

GENDER-CONGRUENT LEADERSHIP STYLE AND PREJUDICED
PERSONALITY IN RELATION WITH JOB/LEADER SATISFACTION AND
TRUST

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ABSTRACT

GENDER-CONGRUENT LEADERSHIP STYLE AND PREJUDICED PERSONALITY IN RELATION WITH JOB/LEADER SATISFACTION AND TRUST

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Prejudice toward leaders might be problematic for employees and organizations because of its negative consequences for employees like lower job satisfaction or leader satisfaction. One of the reasons which can cause prejudiced attitudes toward leaders is the mismatch between gender roles and the leadership style displayed, as according to role congruity theory, employees expect their leaders to show behaviors consistent with their gender roles in society (Eagly & Karau, 2002). According to Altemeyer (1998), there are two personality types which have strong correlations with prejudice; Right Wing Authoritarianism (RWA) and Social Dominance Orientation (SDO). Altemeyer stated that these two personality traits are the reason for many kinds of prejudice including prejudice toward women. For that reason, it was expected that those personalities would interact with gender congruent and incongruent leadership styles in predicting job-, organization-, and leader-related outcomes of employees. Data were collected from 332 employees and moderated regression analyses were performed. Results of the current study showed that, hypothesis were partially supported for male leaders, while, hypothesis for women leaders were not supported

in general. On the one hand, follower RWA and SDO did interact with the leadership style of male leaders in a way that more prejudiced personalities had more positive outcomes when their leader displayed a role congruent leadership style. On the other hand, having a gender role congruent women leader had positive effects on the levels of follower job satisfaction, organizational commitment, leader satisfaction and trust in the leader, while having a gender role incongruent women leader had negative effects on those outcomes, regardless of the employees' RWA and SDO levels.

Keywords: Role Congruity, Right Wing Authoritarianism, Social Dominance Orientation, Leadership, Job/ Leader Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment, Trust

ÖZ

TOPLUMSAL CİNSİYET UYUMLU LİDERLİK STİLİ VE ÖNYARGILI KİŞİLİĞİN İŞ/LİDER TATMİNİ VE GÜVEN İLE İLİŞKİSİ

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Liderlere yönelik önyargılar, düşük iş tatmini veya lider memnuniyeti gibi çalışanlar için olumsuz sonuçlarından dolayı çalışanlar ve organizasyonlar için sorun oluşturmaktadır. Rol uyumu teorisine göre, liderlere karşı önyargılı davranışa neden olabilecek sebeplerden biri de çalışanların liderlerinden toplumdaki cinsiyet rolleriyle tutarlı davranışlar göstermelerini beklerken, liderlerin cinsiyet rolleri ile liderlik tarzı arasındaki uyumsuz davranışlar göstermesidir (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Altemeyer'e (1998) göre, önyargıyla güçlü korelasyonu olan iki kişilik tipi vardır ve bunlar Sağ Kanat Yetkeçiliği (SKY) ve Sosyal Baskınlık Yönelimi'dir (SBY). Altemeyer, bu iki kişilik özelliğinin, kadınlara yönelik önyargıları da içeren birçok önyargının nedeni olduğunu belirtmiştir. Bu nedenle, bu kişiliklerin çalışanların iş, organizasyon ve liderle ilgili sonuçlarının öngörülmesinde cinsiyet uyumlu ve uyumsuz liderlik stilleriyle etkileşime girmesi beklenmiştir. Veriler 332 çalışandan toplanmış ve düzenleyici regresyon analizleri yapılmıştır. Mevcut çalışmanın sonuçları, erkek lider için kısmen desteklenirken, kadın liderler için genel olarak desteklenmemiştir. Bir taraftan, takipçinin SKY ve SBY'sinin, erkek liderlerin liderlik tarzı ile etkileşime girerek, liderlerinin cinsiyet rolüne uygun bir liderlik tarzı sergilediğinde daha

önyargılı kişilerin daha olumlu sonuçlara sahip olmasını sağladığını göstermiştir. Diğer taraftan, SKY ve SBY düzeylerinden bağımsız olarak, çalışanların toplumsal cinsiyet rolüne uygun bir kadın lidere sahip olmasının, iş tatmini, örgütsel bağlılık, lider memnuniyeti ve liderin güven düzeyinin olumlu etkilendiği bulunurken, toplumsal cinsiyet rolüne uymayan kadın lidere sahip olmanın bu sonuçlar üzerinde olumsuz etkilere neden olduğu gözlenmiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Rol Uyumu, Sağ Kanat Yetkenciliği, Sosyal Baskınlık, Liderlik, İş/Lider Tatmini, Örgütsel Bağlılık, Lidere Güven

To my mom and my grandmother,

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Overview

Working women are exposed to prejudice for the mere reason that they are working or they are working for jobs which are traditionally seen as jobs of men, because of gender stereotypes. These gender stereotypes also have effects on prejudiced attitudes toward them because of their positions at work. Leadership positions are one of those work positions in which women are exposed to this kind of prejudice, as there is a mismatch between gender stereotypes of women and leader stereotypes. Unfortunately, this situation results in less women becoming leaders (Eagly & Karau, 2002). When women behave incongruent to such stereotypes and become leaders, they face another problem. They are exposed to prejudice based on whether they behave consistent with their gender roles or not, as a leader. Parallel to their gender roles, people expect women leaders to show a transformational leadership style while they expect male leaders to show more of a transactional leadership style (Embry, Padgett & Caldwell, 2008). However, if women leaders do not want to show a transformational leadership style, but display a male-dominated leadership style or masculine behavior style, women are exposed to prejudice in society as they do not behave congruent with their gender roles (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001). Similarly, male leaders who adopt a more feminine leadership style might also be exposed to prejudice because of the mismatch between male gender roles and the leadership style they adopted (Eagly & Karau, 2002).

According to Altemeyer (1998), there are two personality types, typically taught by society and which tend to develop strong prejudice. These are Right Wing Authoritarianism (RWA) and Social Dominance Orientation (SDO). Altemeyer (1998) stated that these two personality traits are the reason for many kinds of prejudice including prejudice toward women. Thus, when the existing stereotypes about women and men leaders are considered, it can be expected that people with high levels of RWA and SDO would also show more prejudice toward people who adopt role incongruent leadership styles. Experiencing such prejudice can alter work related

experiences. The aim of the current study was to find whether the levels of RWA or SDO had an effect on the employees' perceptions about their leaders' and jobs based on gender role congruent/incongruent leadership behavior. Specifically, job/leader satisfaction, organizational commitment and trust in leader were the focal outcome variables. The present study focuses on the experiences of being satisfied with the leader, trusting the leader, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment as important work life outcomes which could be affected by such prejudice. It is expected that RWA and SDO levels would interact with the perceived leadership style of women/men leaders in predicting such experiences. Those with more prejudiced personalities would experience less satisfying outcomes if they have a leader with a role incongruence in leadership style. The underlying rationale for this expectation is built on gender role congruity theory, prejudiced personalities, and characteristics of the transformational and transactional leadership styles.

1.2 Workforce Participation: Gender Role Congruity as an Explanation

In many countries, women leaders suffer from prejudice against themselves and hence are at a disadvantaged position in work places. Some common perceptions of women compared to men are that women are less intelligent, competent, independent, and ambitious (Bakan, 1966; as cited in Rudman, 2005). Most of the time, domestic work is associated with women, whereas men are seen as the breadwinners. These roles and perceptions of women have been preventing them from gaining lots of rights, like suffrage rights and joining the work force actively for many years around the world. Even after gaining those rights, prejudice toward women has been continuing within societies and workplaces.

When employment is considered, it can easily be seen that there is still a male-dominated world. In most of the countries, number of women members of the parliament is very low, only two countries have more women than men in parliament, and in addition to this, rate of the women participation in the work force is far below that of men (Eagly & Carli, 2007; Thorton, 2019; Turkish Statistical Institution, 2015). In addition to the low rate of women's participation in the work force, there are still problems concerning employed women. One of the basic problems is that some jobs are seen as jobs for women and some others are seen as "masculine" jobs. The reason for such a bifurcation is most probably coming from the gender stereotypes which see men as assertive, competitive, controlling and dominant, while seeing women as

supportive, empathic and gentle (Schuh et al., 2013). Those traits which are attributed to men and women can be the explanation for why some jobs are seen as women's jobs and others are seen as men's jobs. Women themselves are also affected by such gender stereotypes and while choosing a job, they tend to have the misperception that they have the traits considered peculiar to women and choose jobs accordingly.

Gender stereotypes show their effects on women employments and also job preferences. When statistics for Turkey are examined, it can be seen that although 49.8% of the total population is women, only 26.7% of the women who can join the workforce are employed (Turkey Statistical Institution, 2015). In addition, according to Union of Chambers of Turkish Engineers and Architects (TMMOB), only 21% of the engineers are women. These rates are not surprising for Turkey and countries alike because of their high rates of sexism scores which predict gender inequality (Glick et al., 2000). However, this situation is not only seen in Turkey, but also in many developed and less sexist countries. According to many statistics from the United States (US), Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM) areas are less likely to be chosen by women and even if they are chosen by women as a career, withdrawal rates are very high (American Association of University Women, 1993, 1998; National Center for Education Statistics [NCES], 1997; National Science Foundation, 1999; as cited in Watt, 2010). In that point, it can be said that women themselves are influenced by gender stereotypes about their work life, however, those stereotypes also has effects on women and cause prejudiced behavior toward women who prefer to break gender stereotypes. For instance, according to the study of Brescoll and Uhlmann (2005), when people are nontraditional parents, such as employed mothers and stay-at-home fathers, they are evaluated more negatively by participants when compared with traditional parents. Furthermore, those nontraditional parents are shown less sympathy when they are compared to traditional parents. Brescoll and Uhlmann suggest that, since the roles of nontraditional parents do not match the gender stereotypes in society, nontraditional parents are exposed to prejudice and people do not like them as much as traditional parents. Moreover, among those parents, who are employed mothers, employed fathers, stay-at-home mothers and stay-at-home fathers, employed mothers are exposed to the highest rate of prejudice since people think that employed mothers are more selfish compared to others (Brescoll & Uhlmann, 2005).

Therefore, it can be concluded that not behaving in the gender roles brought by society is more problematic for women than men.

There are many studies in the literature showing the results of perceptions of women who do not behave according to gender stereotypes. Violating either of the stereotypes results in lower performance evaluations for women. Cuddy, Fiske, and Glick (2004) stated that working mothers are perceived as less competent compared to working women with no children, working men with no children and working fathers. On the other hand, working men do not lose perceived competence when they have a child. Since working mothers are perceived as less competent, people show less interest in hiring, promoting and educating them. As a consequence, loss in perceived competence causes lower evaluations of women (Cuddy et al., 2004). Moreover, Heilman, Wallen, Fuchs, and Tamkins (2004) found that, women who are successful in jobs which are seen as male gender-typed are liked less and more personally underestimated in comparison with women who are successful in jobs which are seen as women gender-typed or gender neutral. As a consequence of that, successful women working at male gendered-typed jobs compared to successful men are at a disadvantage when considering overall evaluations and organizational rewards like salary and special job opportunities (Heilman et al., 2004). The study shows that these negative evaluations are associated with gender stereotypes rather than women's success. Women are only evaluated negatively if they work in male gender-typed jobs rather than women gender-typed or gender neutral jobs, thus, the negatively evaluated successful women are the ones who violate the gender based stereotypes (Heilman et al., 2004).

Similar prejudicial evaluations are also seen for women in leadership positions. According to Eagly and Carli (2003), while some advantages are gained by women in typical leadership positions, they are exposed to negative prejudicial evaluations of their competence as leaders, if they are in masculine organizational contexts. Likewise, Heilman and Okimoto (2007) stated that women who are successful at male gender-typed jobs are seen as undesirable bosses and it is believed that such women have undesirable interpersonal attributes compared to equally qualified male managers. On the other hand, if the participants are told that, successful women at male gender-typed jobs are mothers (so they have communal attributes) those women are not evaluated negatively. Being a mother is advantageous for women in male gender-typed jobs,

since motherhood restores perceptions of communality, which is the critical element of gender roles (Heilman & Okimoto, 2007). Being a working women is not the only reason for being exposed to prejudices because of the gender stereotypes. Another reason why women are exposed to prejudice in work life is the type of leadership that they adopt. According to the role congruity theory, when there is no match between gender roles and leadership roles and styles, there may be prejudice toward people who show this inconsistency (Eagly & Karau, 2002). These negative evaluations are caused by two reasons. For the first reason, theory states that leadership roles are mostly defined as more agentic and less communal in terms of qualities. As they are seen as more masculine and more parallel to male gender roles, leadership roles are seen as for males than females. Thus, negative evaluations are caused by descriptive norms. The second reason for negative evaluations is that when women become leaders, people see their behavior as incongruent with their gender roles since leadership roles are more desirable for men than women, thus it is caused by prescriptive norms (Eagly & Karau, 2002). That means they show behaviors which are defined for males rather than their gender. According to theory, male leaders can also suffer from these negative evaluations, when they adopt a leadership role which is defined as feminine in descriptive and injunctive content (Eagly & Karau, 2002). However, these prejudiced attitudes are mostly toward women, most probably, because of the incongruence between gender roles and leader roles. Men are seen as natural leaders, while women are evaluated mainly with respect to their relationship orientation. In their 2008 study, Johnson, Murphy, Zewdie, and Reichard found that there are differences in terms of the importance of the leadership prototype dimensions between men and women, and this situation causes that there is negative evaluation when women leaders do not behave as sensitive people and male leaders do not show themselves as strong, which is a support for the role congruity theory. In addition to that, when women leaders fail to exhibit either strength or sensitivity, they are perceived as ineffective leaders according to their followers. On the other hand, male leaders are perceived as ineffective only if they fail to exhibit strength (characteristics like being strong and bold (Offerman, Kennedy, & Wirtz, 1994; as cited in Johnson et al., 2008)) (Johnson et al., 2008). When women show masculine behaviors, it would be incongruent with the gender-role stereotypes and thus, they can face negative consequences (Weyer, 2007).

To understand the consequences of prejudice that leaders with gender role incongruent behaviors face due to gender stereotypes, firstly, conceptualizations of leadership should be understood. Although leadership is a term which is hard to define, it can be said that in general, leaders are the people who choose, equip, train and have an influence on their followers with different skills, abilities and talents. In addition, leaders are people who encourage their followers to achieve the organizational missions and objectives, while followers have a willingness and enthusiasm for spending their spiritual, emotional and physical energy to those organizational missions and objectives (Winston & Patterson, 2006). It is known that each leader has to adopt a particular approach considering the requirements of the situation. When s/he performs a particular approach, the effectiveness of leaders' knowledge and skills in one situation may not apply to another situation (Rad & Yarmohammadian, 2006). Leaders' behavior toward employees can affect their job satisfaction, which is an important factor for both the work and personal life of the employee and for the organization to be successful. All the leadership styles affect job satisfaction in different ways. Although various leadership theories deal with the concept of leadership from various perspectives, there are direct relationships between job satisfaction and two types of leadership styles, which are transactional leadership and transformational leadership (Voon, Lo, Ngui, & Ayob, 2011).

Transformational leadership can be defined as a leadership type in which the leader determines an important vision in a clear way and provides motivation for his/her followers to make an effort for achieving this vision (Jex & Britt, 2008). On the other hand, transactional leadership can be defined as a leadership type in which the leader checks the subordinates all the time for ensuring that the job is done and there is an alignment with the organizational rules (Jex & Britt, 2008). It can be said that while transformational leadership is relationship-oriented, transactional leadership is task-oriented. Transformational leaders motivate individuals to subordinate their self-interest with respect to the larger vision of the firm (Vera & Crossan, 2004). According to Bass and Avolio (1990), they provide inspiration for their followers with their vision, encourage the developments of both groups and organizations, inspire their followers to raise awareness to key issues, and enable their followers to be confident of themselves. Influence (charisma), individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation, and inspirational motivation are four basic components of

transformational leaders (Bass & Avolio, 1990). On the other hand, transactional leaders determine goals, indicate clearly what they expect from the members of the organization, and are clear on how the members would receive rewards for their efforts and commitment. They also have to provide feedback which would be constructive for the members for keeping them on the task (Bass & Avolio, 1993; Howell & Hall-Merenda, 1999). Transactional leaders want to consolidate the culture, strategy and structure of the organization while functioning within an existing system (Vera & Crossan, 2004).

According to many studies, women and men adopt different kind of leadership styles. Being agentic and communalism are the two attributes which are identified with masculinity and femininity, respectively. While being dominant, self-confident, aggressive, forceful, ambitious, individualistic, and self-reliant are seen as traits of agenticism, being interpersonally sensitive, kind, friendly, helpful, and affectionate are seen as the traits of communalism (Eagly & Carli, 2007). These distinctions of attributes are also parallel to leadership types according to several studies. While being task-oriented is parallel to agentic behavior, being socially-oriented is parallel to communal behavior (Berdahl, 1996). When they are compared to men, women are considered as having more communal and fewer agentic traits, both actually and ideally (Ritter & Yoder, 2004). In addition, agentic traits and higher status are expected by leaders who lead the task-oriented groups, thus, especially in these groups; people perceive an inconsistency between women and leadership due to their perceived mismatch between leaders and gender roles (Ritter & Yoder, 2004).

While women leaders have a tendency to show a transformational leadership style, male leaders have a tendency to show a transactional leadership style (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001) which is parallel to their gender roles. However, gender stereotypes still create dilemmas for women leaders. According to Kark and Eagly (2010), on the one hand gender stereotypes demand women to be communal; on the other hand, stereotypes about being a leader demand people to be agentic. As a consequence, if women leaders behave as communal, they are criticized since they are not agentic enough. Conversely, if women leaders behave as agentic, they are criticized because of not being communal enough. Thus, whichever behavior they choose, they are likely to be criticized either for not being a good leader or a woman displaying the gender appropriate attributes. This situation is also the reason why there

are less women leaders. According to Garcia-Retamero and Lopez-Zafra (2006), stereotypes and the perception of incongruence between social roles and gender have a powerful effect on people's judgements about leader candidates.

When women break barriers and become leaders, they are expected to be leaders who behave consistent with the attributed gender roles in society. As mentioned before, women are most likely to show transformational leadership style (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmit, 2001) which is also congruent with the gender roles imposed by the society. However, although women leaders are more likely to show a transformational leadership style, this does not mean that they have to be transformational leaders. They can also be transactional leaders which is perceived as a male style leadership; however, since traits of transactional leaders do not match the gender stereotypes of women, prejudice can be observed toward women who show transactional leadership traits. With relation to this, Eagly and Karau (2002) stated that women who show effective leadership traits have a tendency to violate standards which are defined for their genders, if they behave in a male-stereotypical way. Agentic attributes and failure to behave in a women stereotypical manner may cause an unfavorable evaluation from the people who especially endorse traditional gender roles. In addition to that, when a women manager or leader is perceived as very similar to her male counterpart, women managers experience disadvantages against themselves. This is because women gender roles are identified by injunctive norms (Eagly & Karau, 2002), which are the rules or beliefs that constituting morally approved or unapproved conduct (Cialdini, Reno & Kallgren, 1990). Besides women leaders, when male leaders violate the norms and behave as sensitive, they are evaluated more negatively compared to male leaders behaving more strongly (Johnson et al., 2008). It can be said that violating the norms and behaving in gender role incongruent ways is problematic for both women and men. However, this situation is more complicated for women since people expect them to be both strong and sensitive at the same time, while the only expectation from male leaders is that they are strong (Johnson et al, 2008).

Similar to Eagly and Karau (2002), other researchers stated that when they are compared to agentic male applicants, agentic women applicants are seen as less socially skilled and likeable (Phelan, Moss-Racusin, & Rudman, 2008; Rudman & Glick, 2001) and this situation causes agentic women to be less hireable for the

managerial positions. According to their study, people see agentic applicants as more hireable than communal applicants, thus agentic applicants are preferred to be hired. With relation to this, if the applicant is an agentic male, there is no problem for them to have a higher level of competence than social skills. However, if the applicant is an agentic woman, being competent is devalued and the hiring criterion is determined according to their level of social skills which are seen as lower than it should be, and which is overemphasized for women. That means, hiring for managerial positions are done by competence levels rather than social skills however, people think that agentic women should also have social skills unlike agentic men, thus, agentic women cannot be hired for managerial positions even though they are qualified for the position (Phelan et al., 2008). In this case, whether women are agentic or communal, it is thought that they are less suitable for managerial positions, because of the prejudices caused by gender role congruity.

From all of the information, it can be concluded that prejudice caused by gender role inconsistency causes unfair situations for women. Thus to understand the problem clearly, understanding prejudice and its underlying mechanisms is important. Prejudice is defined by Allport (1950) as different kinds of situations which end up with negative and hostile responses. In the same article, Allport mentioned that there could also be favorable prejudice, which means that people might favor other people or objects on account of their membership in a categorically accepted class. However, existence of negative prejudice is problematic because of its inappropriate and/or unfair nature. Negative prejudice causes many undesirable consequences in human relations. For that reason, what the causes of prejudice are have been investigated from several perspectives.

It can be said that there may be many underlying mechanisms of prejudice, including the role that personality plays. Below Right Wing Authoritarianism and Social Dominance Orientation are discussed as two personality characteristics associated with prejudice.

1.3 Personality and Prejudice

According to many studies, especially two personality traits have relationships with prejudice which are RWA which is defined as conventionalism, submission to authorities, having a desire for punishing offenders and people who try to violate laws (Halkjelsvik & Rise, 2014), and SDO which has characteristics that are defined as

perceiving inferiority for other social groups and believing that there are fewer opportunities for some groups in life (Halkjelsvik & Rise, 2014). According to Altemeyer (1998), these two personality dimensions have strong associations with prejudice. While tradition, structure, conformity, religiosity and valuing order have strong relationships with RWA, valuing power, hedonism and achievement have powerful relationship with SDO (Duckitt & Sibley, 2009). People who are high on RWA show hostile behavior toward many minorities while they are not aware of being ethnocentric (Allport, 1998). People who have high levels of SDO prefer hierarchy-enhancing professional roles and give support for a wide range of social and political ideologies that give importance to group-based ideology like racism and for policies that lead to undesired implications for intergroup relations such as civil rights (Pratto, Sidanius, Stallwort & Malle, 1994).

According to a meta-analytic study, the relationships of RWA and SDO with overall prejudice are strong in effect size and significant ($\rho = .49$ and $\rho = .55$, respectively) (Sibley & Duckitt, 2008). Moreover, researchers also found that people with high RWA and high SDO have prejudice toward out-group members. Duckitt (2005) stated that the strong predictive powers of RWA and SDO on prejudice have been supported by many studies which also included several individual-differences variables like social values and attitudes or cognitive style. The predictive power of such individual differences decreases with the presence of RWA and SDO thus the most powerful individual difference predictors for prejudice are RWA and SDO.

Duckitt and Sibley (2007) supported that people with high RWA and high SDO showed prejudice toward different social groups. When the literature is reviewed, many examples can be found for how people with high RWA and high SDO showed prejudice toward different social groups. For instance, according to Hodson and Costello (2007), there is a relationship between less favorable attitudes and interpersonal disgust toward immigrants which was shown through SDO, RWA and dehumanization. Also, researchers stated that SDO and RWA have predictive effect on negative attitudes toward immigrants, while SDO has both direct and indirect effect on interpersonal disgust which predicts dehumanizing perceptions. Likewise, some researchers found that, people who have high scores on RWA or SDO have a tendency to show more negative attitudes toward Blacks (Duckitt & Farre, 1994; for SDO $r = .42$ to $.65$ for different samples; Pratto et al., 1994; Whitley 1999). In addition to this,

there is support for the positive correlations between RWA and blatant racism ($r = .44$) (Hiel & Mervielde, 2005). The effects of RWA also are seen in the prejudice toward gay men. The research conducted by Stones (2006) showed that rather than having heterosexual group identity, RWA has an effect on prejudice toward gay men, which means that RWA by itself is the reason of prejudice and it is not the reflection of social identity. On the other hand, a high level of SDO shows itself in a positive manner of in-group favoritism for members of high-status groups (Jost & Thompson, 2000) and caste maintenance orientation ($\beta = .32$) (Sidanius & Liu, 1992). Those people with high level of SDO also have strong beliefs in a number of hierarchy-legitimizing myths (Pratto et al., 1994), while they show less tolerance ($r = -.30$), communality ($r = -.33$), altruism ($r = -.28$), and concern for others ($r = -.46$).

Sibley and Liu (2010) stated that there are unique and strong associations between SDO and attitudes toward inequality based on ethnic, gender and age-specific stratifications (r 's are ranging from .50 to .61). Researchers also indicated that this situation shows that SDO and attitudes toward inequality in any particular domain are not synonyms. Nevertheless, Kteily, Sidanius, and Levin (2011) mentioned that SDO is a relatively stable reason of intergroup attitudes and behavior. It is found that there is no significant change between prejudice and discrimination measured in 1996 and 2000 which can be predicted significantly by SDO. Rather than being the mere reflection of attitudes or behaviors, SDO is the reason of prejudice and discrimination by itself. As a result, according to all these results it can be said that, any kind of prejudice can be explained by SDO.

Because of the evidence for generalized prejudice and findings about the relationship between SDO, RWA and prejudice toward different social groups, it is not surprising that SDO and especially RWA have positive relationships with hostile and benevolent sexism (Feather & Mckee, 2012). It was found that, there are consistent positive relationships between SDO and beliefs in all sexism measures (average correlation = .47), equal opportunities ($r = .46$), patriotism, and conservatism (Pratto et al., 1994). In a similar manner, when control variables were entered together with SDO, there was a positive association between RWA and both benevolent (for women weighed $r = .39 \pm .07$, for men weighed $r = .36 \pm .10$) and hostile sexism (for women weighed $r = .31 \pm .07$ for men weighed $r = .16 \pm .10$) while the association between benevolent sexism and RWA is marginally stronger (for women) (Sibley, Wilson, &

Duckitt, 2007). People who have higher SDO show more prejudice against women, and SDO directly affects discrimination against women (Case, Fishbein, & Ritchey, 2008). Likewise, the relationship between SDO and scales assessing opposition to social programs and women's rights is rather strong (Pratto et al., 1994) which means, people with high SDO are less in favor of women's rights (for women $r = -.23$, for men $r = -.71$; Heaven, 1999). Another study conducted by Sibley, Robertson, and Wilson (2006) stated that there are relationships between SDO, RWA and combined prejudiced attitudes/affect toward gay men (for SDO weighed $r = .34$; for RWA weighed $r = .32$) and lesbians (for RWA weighed $r = .37$), although SDO and RWA are independent from each other. In here, it can be clearly seen that even in prejudiced attitudes/affect toward homosexuals, there is a gender inequality that causes lesbian women to experience more prejudice than gay men. On the other side it may be concluded that, even though men are thought as superior group by people with high in SDO or RWA, when they are gay, they are also exposed prejudiced by those people with high in SDO or RWA, as they became outgroup members with not behaving in societies expectations. As a result of these findings, it can be said that prejudice caused by RWA and SDO may have destructive effects on human relations especially for people who do not behave in what society expects and as can be seen from the literature, RWA and SDO are consistent predictors of prejudice and they predict general prejudice additively.

Many findings support the relationship between RWA and prejudice and also SDO and prejudice. These findings direct us to the fact that if an individual with high RWA and SDO has prejudice toward one outgroup, it is likely that this person has a high tendency to show prejudice toward different outgroups, thus, there is generalized prejudice. Likewise, if a person shows favorable attitudes to some outgroups, s/he is more likely to show favorable attitudes toward other outgroups (Duckitt & Sibley, 2007). Allport's conceptualization about one single generalized prejudice gain support from much research (e.g. Backström & Björklund, 2007; Ekehammar, Akrami, Gylje, & Zakrisson, 2004; Zick et al., 2008). On the other hand, the findings of Duckitt and Sibley (2007) should also be paid attention to. They found that rather than one generalized prejudice dimension, there are different generalized prejudice dimensions. When it is investigated from the perspective of the prejudice against women leaders, it can be said that, if there is generalized prejudice, it is clear that people with high

SDO and RWA show prejudice toward women leaders from the same point of view, they see them as outgroup members. However, if there are different generalized prejudice dimensions, that means people with high SDO and/or RWA have different reasons for showing prejudice toward outgroups and in that situation people with high SDO and/or RWA might show prejudice toward specific outgroups. According to Christopher and Wodja (2008), sex is one of the ways for categorizing people. They also added that people with high SDO believe that men are superior to women and women do not have the ability to hack it in male typed employment settings. With relation to this, it would not be surprising to learn that, people with higher levels of SDO show more negative attitudes toward women managers and also, they show more favorable attitudes toward male managers compared to women managers (Emeksizoğlu, 2016). Contrary to SDO, people with high level of RWA do not believe women do not have ability. However, they believe that there are some roles which women will be better at, thus, people with high RWA think that women should behave in traditional roles such as being a wife or mother.

According to findings about the RWA, SDO, and prejudice relationships and in the light of the information about prejudice toward women, it makes sense to argue that people high in RWA or high in SDO or high in both of them would show prejudice toward women, especially women leaders. In addition to this, it will not be wrong to mention that, those people would also show prejudice toward male leaders who have role incongruent leadership styles. As mentioned before, people who have high levels of RWA show prejudice toward outgroups which are threatening social order, stability and security; on the other hand, people who have high level of SDO show prejudice toward outgroups which they consider as socially subordinate and low in status and power (Asbrock, Sibley, & Duckitt, 2009). From the RWA point of view, it can be said that women leaders, especially the gender role incongruent ones, and also male leaders with gender role incongruent behaviors would be a threat for social order and stability; since it does not match with the gender stereotypes and thus would be seen as a kind of rebellion for social order and traditions. In a similar way, people who have a high level of SDO would show prejudice toward women leaders whose job is seen as requiring “traits of men” since, women are already perceived as socially subordinate and low in status and power when they are compared to men. They are traditionally perceived as weak and needy, so people with a high level of SDO might think that

women do not have the necessary qualifications because of their weaknesses and neediness. Similar to prejudiced toward women leaders, it can be expected that people with a high level of SDO would show prejudice toward men leaders who have role incongruent leadership style, as they could think that those male leaders are weak and low in power.

With relation to these suggestions, Christopher and Wodja (2008) search for the SDO, RWA relationships with the prejudice toward working women from two different forms of prejudice which are employment skepticism and traditional role preferences. According to the results of this study, SDO is responsible for variability in both employment skepticism and traditional role preferences while, RWA is only responsible for variability in traditional role preferences. Therefore, it can be concluded that, as people with high SDO or RWA show prejudiced behavior even against working women, they will also show prejudiced behavior toward women leader since leadership is seen as men's job, traditionally. Also, because of their traditional role preferences, those people with higher SDO or RWA may show more prejudice toward women leaders with role incongruent leadership styles since they do not behave in gender stereotypes in the society. In a similar way, it will not be surprising to expect that those people to show prejudice toward male leaders with role incongruent leadership style. In the light of all these findings, in the current study, the relationship between both RWA and SDO and prejudice toward leaders with role incongruent leadership styles are investigated.

1.4 Trust in Leader

As perception of role incongruence from the leader may cause negative evaluations for employees, especially for people with high level of RWA or SDO, it can be considered that it also may have an effect on employees' level of trust in leader. Trust in leader is one of the areas which is mostly focused on in industrial and organizational psychology, most probably because of its consequences for organizations. Thus, it might be valuable to find how it was affected by RWA/SDO and prejudices toward leaders.

Lower trust in leaders is problematic for organizations since it has an effect on job satisfaction, perceived work stress and stress symptoms (Liu, Siu, & Shi, 2010). Also, when incumbents highly trust their leader, it is likely that their communication and organizational commitment behavior increase and turnover intentions decrease

(Burke, Sims, Lazarra, & Salas, 2007). Furthermore, trust in leaders is related to many other factors at work; when the trust in a leader increase, incumbents show more satisfaction with their leaders ($r = .76$), the effectiveness of the leader increases ($r = .73$), team members put more effort into their work ($r = .63$), and the leader-follower relationship is more effective ($r = .65$) (Gillespie & Mann, 2004). There is also a relationship between trust and belief in information provided by the leader ($r = .35$) and commitment to decisions ($r = .24$) (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002). In addition to this, according to Burke, Sims, Lazarra, and Salas (2007), knowledge sharing, and related to this, learning, increases due to trusting the leaders.

As trust is important for the organizations because of its positive impacts on employees, the leadership styles and their relationship with trust should also be paid attention. There are many findings which show that there is a relationship between transformational leadership and trust ($r = .72$, Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; $r = .53$, Liu et al., 2010; $\beta = 0.51$, Jung & Avolio, 2000). According to Jung and Avolio (2000), since transformational leaders articulate their collective tasks/missions, followers show more trust and value comparability. There are also findings for the relationship between transactional leadership and trust (Kelloway, Turner, Barling, & Loughlin, 2012; r 's = .59, Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; $\beta = .14$, Jung & Avolio, 2000), however, these findings are not as strong as the findings that show the relationship between transformational leadership and trust. In addition to the direct effects, trust in leader also has a mediating role in the relationships between individual perceptions of supervisors' transformational leadership and job satisfaction (Braun, Peus, Weisweiler, & Frey, 2013), transformational leadership and employee psychological well-being, as well as, transactional leadership and well-being (Kelloway et al., 2012).

Gillespie and Mann (2004) found that there is a strong association between shared common values among team members and trust in the leader. According to their research, trust is most strongly predicted by consultative leadership, common values and idealized influence. Besides, Eagly (2005) stated that when there is an incongruence between the values of leaders and followers, there should also be a negotiation and a persuasion that should include acceptance for most of the leader's agenda, while leaders should also conform followers' interpretation of community interests. As a result of this, leader legitimacy should be granted by the followers. Eagly (2005) also added that, if there is no legitimacy, conflicts about values or ways

of implementing value commitments will continue. As a consequence of this, followers will probably not trust their leaders and thus, do not want to follow the leader's agenda. According to Eagly (2005), the achievement of this legitimacy is more challenging for women leaders than male leaders, since women leaders are seen as members of outsider social groups that appear incompatible with traditional leadership roles. Likewise, gender role congruence of women or men leaders may have an effect on value incongruence since, people who show role incongruence would violate the traditional roles. As a consequence of this, there will be no match between the values of the followers and leaders, as they will not behave in roles which followers are expecting. Thus, leaders may not have enough legitimacy to inspire followers' identification. In fact, incongruence of values between the leader and follower can also cause followers to perceive authenticity of their leader as weak (Eagly, 2005). At the end, this situation, which is strongly predicted by common values and idealized influence, affects the trust in the leader (Gillespie & Mann, 2004). Moreover, it is probable that, people with high SDO and RWA are more affected by this situation, hence, they are more prone to show prejudice toward women leaders independent of their style as perceived as outsider group members.

Hence, it is suggested that trust in leaders will be associated with levels of RWA and SDO and also the leadership style and the gender of the leaders. Since transformational leadership style is highly related to trust and its characteristics show similarities with the women gender roles rather than male gender roles, incumbents with high levels of RWA and SDO are expected to show higher levels of trust in women leaders who show transformational styles. However, it can be expected that, when male leaders show transformational leadership style, incumbents with high levels of RWA and SDO show lower levels of trust in leader as transformational leadership behavior is incongruent with male gender roles. Furthermore, although transactional leadership and trust relationship is smaller than transformational leadership and trust relationship, there can still be significant results for these relationships, however inversely.

1.5 Job and Leader Satisfaction

Besides low levels of trust in leader, low level of job satisfaction and also leader satisfaction can be problematic for the organizations. That is why job and leader satisfaction are other potential work outcomes that are expected to be predicted by

RWA, SDO and their effects on prejudice, especially prejudice toward women. Job satisfaction is a term which draws the attention of many researchers since low job satisfaction is related to the problematic issues of the workplace, such as turnover rates and absenteeism. According to Rad and Yarmohammadian (2006), job satisfaction has an influence on levels of job dissatisfaction, absenteeism, complaining expression, tardiness, low morale and decision making participation. Likewise, leader satisfaction predicts withdrawal cognition (DeConinck & Stilwell, 2001). Lower leader satisfaction causes unfulfilled needs of the team members, thus, it also, diminishes the team viability (Phillips, 2001). On the other hand, Armstrong-Stassen, Freeman, Cameron, and Rajacich (2015) found that, more leader satisfaction make older nurses more intentional to stay in their jobs.

When there are negative effects of lower job satisfaction and leader satisfaction for organizations, higher levels of both of them have positive effects for organizations. It is known that there is a relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. According to Judge, Thoresen, Bono, and Patton (2001) the correlation between job satisfaction and job performance is higher than .30. Also, there is a stronger relationship between job satisfaction and job performance for complex jobs when compared to less complex jobs (Saari & Judge, 2004). This predictive feature of job satisfaction makes it more important for organizations. On the other hand, leader satisfaction has relationships with moral commitment ($\beta = .47$, Jernigan & Beggs, 2005), which enables employees to be highly involved and accept the goals and objectives of the organization, and affective commitment (McCormack, Casimir, Djurkovic, & Yang, 2006).

As it is mentioned before, the leadership style has effects on job satisfaction. According to Bushra, Usman, and Naveed (2011), there is a positive relationship between transformational leadership and level of overall job satisfaction ($R = .61$) in a mixed sample of women and men leaders. They said that if the leaders adopts transformational leadership style, their staff could be more satisfied with their jobs since a higher level of job satisfaction is shown by employees whose leaders act as transformational leaders. In other words, it shows that this kind of leadership is liked by the employees of the organizations (Bushra et al., 2011). In addition to these findings, Voon, Lo, Ngui, and Ayob (2011) found that while job satisfaction has a positive relationship with transformational leadership, its relationship with

transactional leadership is negative. On the other hand, there is only one significant positive relationship between one of the dimensions of transactional leadership which is contingent reward and two components of the job satisfaction which are working condition and work assignment. When a leader applies contingent reward, job satisfaction of the employees is increased since it affects their working condition and work assignment positively which are components of job satisfaction. Similar to these findings, according to Limsila and Ogunlana (2008), leadership outcomes including satisfaction have a positive association with transformational leadership, it has only positive relationship with contingent reward factor of the transactional leadership style.

When people, especially women, adopt a gender incongruent leadership style, they are exposed to prejudice. While this situation affects the leaders negatively, the person who shows prejudice toward people with incongruent gender roles, can also be affected in a negative way. According to Quaquebeke, Kerschreiter, Buxton, and Dick (2009), when there is a match between employees' ideal values for the leader and their leader herself/himself, leader satisfaction of the employee increases ($r = .66$). In addition to this, when there is a mismatch between employees' ideal values for the leader and their leader herself/himself, leader satisfaction of the employee decreases ($r = -.65$). Researchers added that employees are more satisfied with their leaders matching the ideal values than counter-ideal values. As a result of this, it is likely to for the employees with a mismatch between their own ideal values for the leader and leader who adopted gender incongruent leadership style to experience lower satisfaction with their leader. With relation to this, it can be expected that people with high RWA or SDO may experience lower satisfaction than people with low SDO or RWA when confronted with role incongruent leaders, as the value and stereotype violation causes those people to show prejudice. Thus, those prejudiced behavior may lower their job satisfaction.

1.6 Organizational Commitment

Besides the job satisfaction and leader satisfaction, organizational commitment is one of the areas that the organization gives importance to, due to its impact on employees. Organizational commitment can be described as the loyalty and faithfulness of the employee to the organization and how much intention is shown by the employee to be a part of the organization (Bushra et al., 2011). As a result of this, employees

who show high organizational commitment have high motivation to show advanced levels of performance, lesser tendency to quit the job and absenteeism (Bushra et al., 2011). Besides this, many researchers found that organizational commitment increases the work performance (for the public service managers, $r = .54$, Rose, Kumar, & Pak, 2009; for sales and nonsales employees, Jaramillo, Mulki, & Marshall, 2005; for the accounting professionals in Taiwan and America, $r = .42$, Chen, Silverthorne, & Hung, 2006; Thamrin, 2012). Loke (2001), also found that employees with high organizational commitment have high productivity ($r = .21$) and job satisfaction ($r = .48$). People with high level of organizational commitment have a tendency to show more identification with the goals and values of the organization, willing to make more effort for the benefit of the organization and also a stronger desire to continue their membership in the organization (Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979).

Research has shown that, the leadership style that adopted by managers affect the organizational commitment of the employees. From these findings, it can be clearly seen that, transformational leadership has a positive effect on organizational commitment while, transactional leadership has a negative effect on it, thus, transformational leaders bring more organizational commitment than transactional leaders (Avolio, Zhu, Koh, & Bhatia, 2004; $r = .40$, Bushra et al., 2011; Erkutlu, 2008; Lo, Ramayah, & Min, 2009; Raja & Palanichamy, 2011; Thamrin, 2012; Walumbwa, Orwa, Wang, & Lawler, 2005). Also, as Limsila and Ogunlana (2008) stated, while transformational leadership helps employees to become committed to their organizations, transactional leadership style does not.

In the light of the reviewed literature, it is suggested that since people with a high level of RWA and a high level of SDO have a tendency to be prejudiced they will also show more prejudiced behaviors against leaders, especially the ones who adopt a gender incongruent leadership style, such as women leaders with a transactional leadership style and male leaders with a transformational leadership style. As a result of this, they may have lower organizational commitment than people with low in RWA or SDO. This is because their positions do not match with traditional gender stereotypes and it causes threats on tradition, social order, stability and security from the RWA point of view. On the other hand, people high in SDO see women as socially subordinate and powerless because of the traditional gender stereotypes. It is also

suggested that gender stereotypes toward leaders will also affect the job satisfaction, leader satisfaction, trust and organizational commitment of the incumbents.

1.7 Hypotheses

The following hypotheses are formed based on the aforementioned arguments. In all the hypotheses perceived leadership style is expected to moderate the association between prejudiced personality and work/leader outcomes.

Hypothesis 1. The association between RWA and H1a) job satisfaction, H1b) satisfaction with leader, H1c) trust in leader, and H1d) organizational commitment will be positive and stronger when women leaders are perceived to be more transformational (stereotype congruent) as compared to when they are perceived to be less transformational (stereotype incongruent).

Hypothesis 2. The association between SDO and H2a) job satisfaction, H2b) satisfaction with leader, H2c) trust in leader, and H2d) organizational commitment will be positive and stronger when women leaders are perceived to be more transformational (stereotype congruent) as compared to when they are perceived to be less transformational (stereotype incongruent).

Hypothesis 3. The association between RWA and H3a) job satisfaction, H3b) satisfaction with leader, H3c) trust in leader, and H3d) organizational commitment will be negative and stronger when women leaders are perceived to be more transactional (stereotype incongruent) as compared to when they are perceived to be less transactional (stereotype congruent).

Hypothesis 4. The association between SDO and H4a) job satisfaction, H4b) satisfaction with leader, H4c) trust in leader, and H4d) organizational commitment will be negative and stronger when women leaders are perceived to be more transactional (stereotype incongruent) as compared to when they are perceived to be less transactional (stereotype congruent).

Hypothesis 5. The association between RWA and H5a) job satisfaction, H5b) satisfaction with leader, H5c) trust in leader, and H5d) organizational commitment will be negative and stronger when men leaders are perceived to be more transformational (stereotype incongruent) as compared to when they are perceived to be less transformational (stereotype congruent).

Hypothesis 6. The association between SDO and H6a) job satisfaction, H6b) satisfaction with leader, H6c) trust in leader, and H6d) organizational commitment will

be negative and stronger when men leaders are perceived to be more transformational (stereotype incongruent) as compared to when they are perceived to be less transformational (stereotype congruent).

Hypothesis 7. The association between RWA and H7a) job satisfaction, H7b) satisfaction with leader, H7c) trust in leader, and H7d) organizational commitment will be positive and stronger when men leaders are perceived to be more transactional (stereotype congruent) as compared to when they are perceived to be less transactional (stereotype incongruent).

Hypothesis 8. The association between SDO and H8a) job satisfaction, H8b) satisfaction with leader, H8c) trust in leader, and H8d) organizational commitment will be positive and stronger when men leaders are perceived to be more transactional (stereotype congruent) as compared to when they are perceived to be less transactional (stereotype incongruent).

CHAPTER 2

METHOD

2.1 Participants

Data were collected from 332 private sector employees from different cities of Turkey. Data reached approximately 900 people, however, not all the people completed the survey. Some of them were also deleted since they chose same number for whole scales. Of the participants, while 52.41% (N = 174) are female, 47.59% (N = 158) are male. In terms of age distribution, 37 people's (11.11%) age range is between 18 and 24, 188 people's (56.46%) age range between 25 and 34, 68 people's (20.42%) age range between 35 and 44, 26 people's (7.81%) age range between 45 and 54, when 14 people's (4.20%) age is above 55.

35 participants (10.54% of the participants) are blue-collar workers while 297 people (89.46% of the participants) are white-collar workers. Participants work in 36 different sectors and many of them are working in the tourism sector. Of the participants 20.54% (68 people) earn under 2000 TL in a month, 53.47% (N = 177) earn between 2000-5000 TL monthly, and 25.98% (N = 86) earn above 5000 TL monthly. Participants' average total work experience is 106.80 months (SD = 164.63 months), and their average work experience in their current work place is 54.11 months (SD = 69.61 months). In addition to this, participants' average work experience with their current manager is 32.33 (SD = 39.52) months. Participants' average communication time with their managers is 16.5 hours (SD= 19.09) in a week.

Of the participants, 35.54% (N = 118) have a woman manager and 64.46% (214 people) have a male manager. In terms of the organizational gender ratio the majority of participants with 26.81% (N = 89) stated that men workers are many more than women workers in their organizations, followed by 21.39% (N = 71) who reported that there are a little bit more men workers than women workers, 21.08% (N = 70) who indicated that there are approximately equal amount of women and men workers. 18.37% (N = 61) of the participants stated that there are many more women workers

than men workers, when 12.35% (N = 41) of participants said that there are a little bit more women workers than men workers in their organizations.

2.2 Instruments

2.2.1 Right Wing Authoritarianism (RWA) Scale

For measuring Right Wing Authoritarianism, Turkish version of the RWA scale which is originally developed by Altemeyer (1996) and adapted by Güldü (2011) was used. There are 20 items rated on a 6-point Likert-type scale (1 = totally disagree, 6 = totally agree). However, in the current study, 15 items which have higher loadings were used, as for shortening the total answering time and reaching more participants. Internal consistency of scale items range from .85 to .94 (Fodor, Wick, Hartsen, & Preve, 2007). Higher scores on the scale indicate higher levels of RWA. In the current study, the Cronbach Alpha of the scale was found as .88.

The original version of the RWA scale gains support from the earlier findings that there are consistent results for predicting prejudiced attitudes toward different outgroups, minorities, and other stigmatized social groups. It was also found that there is a strong relationship between RWA scale and generalized prejudice (Altemeyer, 1998, 1996; Van Hiel & Mervielde, 2005).

Güldü (2011) stated that exploratory factor analysis indicated 4 factors in the scale, explaining 52.76% of the variance. While the first factor explained 28.85% of variance, the second factor explained 11.23%, the third factor explained 7.02% and the fourth factor explained 5.66% of the variance. However, Güldü also mentioned that, according to the scree plot, the slope between the 3rd and 4th factors were very low, therefore, the RWA scale was thought to have 2 factors which are high level of RWA that shows authoritarian aggression and conventionalism and low level of authoritarianism that shows authoritarian submission and conventionalism. On the other hand, Altemeyer (1996) stated that scale has only one factor and these three attitudes which are authoritarian aggression, conventionalism and authoritarian submission contributed to this one factor. Because the 2 factors found by Güldü seem like two opposite ends of the same dimension and Altemeyer emphasized that the scale content forms only one factor, in the current study, the scale score was calculated to represent a single factor.

2.2.2 Social Dominance Orientation Scale

Social Dominance Orientation Scale developed by Sidanius and Pratto (1999) and adapted by Karaçanta (2002) was used. There are 16 items rated on a 6-point Likert-type scale (1 = very wrong, 6 = very true). In the current study, 9 items with higher loadings were used, as for shortening the total answering time and reaching more participants. Higher scores on the scale indicate higher SDO. Cronbach alpha is found as .85 for the adapted version of the SDO Scale, while in the current study it is found as .84. Karaçanta stated that scale has only one factor and the total variance explained by this factor was reported to be 34.09%.

2.2.3. Transformational and Transactional Leadership Styles Scale

Transformational Leadership Scale (Dönmez, 2014; Dönmez & Toker, 2017) was used for assessing the leadership style of participants' leaders. The scale originally has 34 items rated on 6-point Likert-type (1 = strongly disagree, 6 = strongly agree). Transformational Leadership part of the scale has 26 items with a Cronbach alpha of .96 while transactional leadership part of the scale has 6 items with a Cronbach alpha of .66. However, in the current study, total of 20 items which have higher loadings were used, as for shortening the total answering time and reaching more participants. In the current study while transformational leadership had Cronbach alpha of .96, transactional leadership had Cronbach Alpha of .68. Higher scores on the transformational leadership part indicate higher perception of transformational leadership on the leader while higher score on the transactional leadership part indicate higher perception of transactional leadership on the leader. Dönmez and Toker (2017) stated that the scale has two factors when the extractions were done with Principal Axis Factoring with direct oblimin, with, 39.83% of the variance explained by the transformational leadership factor, and 5.76% of the variance explained by the transactional leadership factor.

2.2.4. Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction was measured with the Job Satisfaction Index that is originally developed by Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1969). The Turkish version of the scale which was adapted by Ergin (1997) was used for the current study. Although there are 5 subscales, in the present study only the work subscale was used. The subscale has 9 items with a “yes”, “?” and “no”; response format, however, in the present study the scale ranges from 1 “totally disagree to 6 “totally agree” for providing consistency

among all scales of the current study. Higher scores on the scale indicate higher satisfaction. Cronbach Alpha of the Turkish version of the test was reported to be .92 for the total scale while its test-retest reliability was .84 (Ergin, 1997). Cronbach Alpha in the current study was .90.

2.2.5. Leader Satisfaction

Leader Satisfaction Scale (Demircioğlu & Toker, 2016) was used for measuring leader satisfaction. There are 17 items rated on a 6-point Likert-type scale (1 = not at all satisfied, 6 = completely satisfied). Internal consistency reliability of the scale was found as .97. Current study also found Cronbach Alpha as .97. Higher scores indicate higher leader satisfaction on the scale.

2.2.6. Organizational Commitment

Organizational Commitment was measured by Organizational Commitment Scale which is developed by Allen and Meyer (1990), while the Turkish adaptation of the scale was done by Wasti (2000). Although the Organizational Commitment Scale has three different parts, only the Affective Organizational Commitment Scale which has 8 items rated on a 6-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly disagree, 6 = strongly agree) was used, and according to scale, higher scores higher organizational commitment. Affective Organizational Commitment part of the scale has a Cronbach Alpha value of .87. Cronbach Alpha was found as .94 in the current study.

2.2.7. Trust in Supervisor

The Trust in Supervisor Scale developed by Inelman (2006) was used. The scale has 8 items rated on 6-point Likert-type scale (1 = strongly agree, 6 = strongly disagree). The internal consistency of the scale is .82 (Inelman, 2006). Göncü, Aycan, and Johnson (2009) translated the scale into Turkish. According to the findings, the reliability of the scale was .83 and it had one factor explaining the 52% of the variance (Göncü, 2011). After deleting an item, the Cronbach Alpha was .87 in the current study.

2.2.8. Demographic Information

Information of gender, age, sector, total work experience, total work experience in the current organization, total work experience with the current manager, gender of the manager, monthly income, rate of the female-male workers in the organization, participants' average communication time with their managers and whether they are blue-collar or white-collar workers were asked.

2.3. Procedure

After receiving the Institutional Review Board's approval, the questionnaire package was sent to participants via an internet link from METU Qualtrics. Social Media websites such as LinkedIn, Twitter and Facebook were used for the distribution of the link. Participants first read the informed consent form and participated in the study on a voluntary basis. All the scales were randomly distributed to participants except the demographic information part which was presented at the end. At the end of the survey, debriefing was provided to give participants more detailed information about the nature of the study variables.

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

3.1. Data Screening

At first, the data were screened for random responders and outliers. Some of the participants were deleted as they chose the exact same answers across all items in the same scale although there were reverse items. In addition to this, participants who did not answer one or more of the scales were also deleted. Before proceeding with hypothesis testing, data were screened for multivariate analysis using Mahalanobis distance. Accordingly, four cases were removed, leaving 330 participants in the dataset to be analyzed.

3.2. Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Confirmatory Factor Analysis were conducted on all scales to make sure the scales fit the data.

3.2.1. Right Wing Authoritarianism

In the current study, firstly, one factor CFA was conducted as Altemeyer (2007) stated that the scale had only one factor. However, the results showed poor fit, although four modifications were added (S-B χ^2 (86) = 278.76, $p < .001$, CFI = .87, RMSEA = .08, 90% CI [.07, .09], $Rho = .87$). On the other hand, Güldü (2011) stated that Turkish version of the scale has two factors. Thus, a two factor model was tested with CFA. For the two factor model, Mardia's normalized estimate Z for RWA is 25.51, thus, robust results were reported. The average off-diagonal absolute standardized residual was 0.04. In addition to this, 92.05% of the standardized residuals were between -0.1 and 0.1. The results again showed poor fit (S-B χ^2 (89) = 205.11, $p < .001$, CFI = .92, RMSEA = .06, 90% CI [.05, .07], $Rho = .90$), thus, modification was added between error of item 5 "Our country needs free thinkers who have the courage to defy traditional ways, even if this upsets many people." and error of item 1 "Gays and lesbians are just as healthy and moral as anybody else." of the scale. According to new results there was still poor fit (S-B χ^2 (88) = 188.01, $p < .001$, CFI = .93, RMSEA = .06, 90% CI [.05, .07], $Rho = .91$), thus another modification

was added between the error of item 8 “You have to admire those who challenged the law and the majority’s view by protesting for women’s abortion rights, for animal rights, or to abolish school prayer” and the error of item 1 “Gays and lesbians are just as healthy and moral as anybody else.”. The new results showed good fit (S-B χ^2 (87) = 166.83, $p < .001$, CFI = .95, RMSEA = .05, 90% CI [.04, .07], $Rho = .91$). However, although results showed good fit for the two factor model and poor fit for the one factor model, correlations among the two latent factors was .65. In addition to this, one of the factors was deemed a “method factor” as its indicators were all reverse coded items. Thus, following Altemeyer’s proposition, a decision was made to use the one factor model in the current study.

3.2.2. Social Dominance Orientation

Analysis of the one factor CFA of the current study shows that Mardia’s normalized estimate Z was 36.33 thus, robust estimations were reported. The average off-diagonal absolute standardized residual was found as 0.04. 91.11% of the standardized residuals were between -0.1 and 0.1. The results were S-B χ^2 (27) = 94.40, $p < .001$, CFI = .90, RMSEA = .09, 90% CI [.07, .11], $Rho = .84$, which was a poor fit. Thus, modification were done between the error of item 2 “It’s probably a good thing that certain groups are at the top and other groups are at the bottom.” and the error of item 5 “Some groups of people must be kept in their place.”, as the Lagrange Multiplier test recommended. After the modification, there was a moderate fit (S-B χ^2 (26) = 60.09, $p < .001$, CFI = .95, RMSEA = .06, 90% CI [.04, .08], $Rho = .81$), thus another modification was added between the errors of item 6 “We should do what we can to equalize conditions for different groups.” and item 8 “We would have fewer problems if we treated people more equally.”. After the modification, there was very good fit (S-B χ^2 (25) = 48.29, $p < .001$, CFI = .97, RMSEA = .05, 90% CI [.03, .08], $Rho = .80$).

3.2.3. Job Satisfaction

One factor CFA was conducted for the job satisfaction scale. Job satisfaction scale has Mardia’s normalized estimate Z higher than 5 which was 14.66, thus robust estimations are reported. The average off-diagonal absolute standardized residual is 0.03. According to the distribution of standardized residuals results, 97.77% of the residuals were between -0.1 and 0.1. According to the results there were poor fit (S-B χ^2 (27) = 138.80, $p < .001$, CFI = .91, RMSEA = .11, 90% CI [.09, .13], $Rho = .90$),

thus modification was added between the errors of item 1 “fascinating” and item 2 “satisfying”. There was still poor fit (S-B χ^2 (26) = 104.80, $p < .001$, CFI = .94, RMSEA = .10, 90% CI [.08, .12], $Rho = .89$); thus other modifications were added between the errors of item 3 “boring” and item 8 “routine” of the scale and also the errors of item 5 “challenging” and item 6 “gives sense of accomplishment.” After the first modification, the results were S-B χ^2 (25) = 69.06, $p < .001$, CFI = .97, RMSEA = .07, 90% CI [.05, .09], $Rho = .88$ and after the second modification, the results were S-B χ^2 (24) = 50.44, $p < .001$, CFI = .98, RMSEA = .06, 90% CI [.04, .08], $Rho = .87$ indicating good fit.

3.2.4. Leader Satisfaction

One factor Confirmatory Factor Analysis was conducted for Leader satisfaction scale using EQS. As the Mardia’s normalized estimate Z is 59.63, robust estimations are reported. The average off-diagonal absolute standardized residual is 0.03. According to the standardized residuals results, 99.35% of the residuals were between -0.1 and 0.1. The results showed moderate fit (S-B χ^2 (119) = 355.78, $p < .001$, CFI = .95, RMSEA = .08, 90% CI [.07, .09], $Rho = .97$), thus, modification was done between the error of item 1 “satisfaction with the way my leader solves work-related problems” and the error of item 2 “Satisfaction with the way business decisions are made”, as the Lagrange Multiplier test recommended. After the modifications, very good fit was observed (S-B χ^2 (118) = 229.09, $p < .001$, CFI = .98, RMSEA = .05, 90% CI [.04, .06], $Rho = .97$).

3.2.5. Organizational Commitment

The results of one factor CFA shows that Organizational Commitment Scale Mardia’s normalized estimate Z is 33.31, thus, robust estimations are reported. The average off-diagonal absolute standardized residual is 0.02. According to the distribution of standardized residuals results, 100% of the residuals were between -0.1 and 0.1. The results are S-B χ^2 (20) = 85.26, $p < .001$, CFI = .97, RMSEA = .10, 90% CI [.08, .12], $Rho = .94$, thus, there is a poor fit to the data. The modification was added between the error of item 1 “I really feel as if this organization’s problems are my own.” and item 2 “I feel a strong sense of belonging to this organization”. Since there is still poor fit according to the RMSEA (S-B χ^2 (19) = 67.60, $p < .001$, CFI = .98, RMSEA = .09, 90% CI [.07, .11], $Rho = .94$), two other modifications were added between the error of item 2 and the error of item 3 (“I feel ‘emotionally attached’ to

this organization.”) and also the error of item 1 and the error of item 7 (“I feel proud to be an employee of this business.”). After the first modification the results were S-B $\chi^2(18) = 47.93, p < .001, CFI = .99, RMSEA = .07, 90\% CI [.05, .10], Rho = .93$ and the results of the second modification were S-B $\chi^2(17) = 34.69, p < .001, CFI = .99, RMSEA = .06, 90\% CI [.03, .08], Rho = .94$, indicating good fit.

3.2.6. Transformational and Transactional Leadership Style Scale

CFA with two factors was conducted for the leadership style scale. In the first analyses, there was poor fit between the data and the model, although two modifications were added (S-B $\chi^2(167) = 625.16, p < .001, CFI = .89, RMSEA = .09, 90\% CI [.08, .10], Rho = .91$). Examination of standardized item loadings indicated that two items in the transactional leadership subscale had Beta coefficients lower than .25, thus, they were dropped from further analysis. These were item 15 “My manager watches / controls my acts in order to determine my possible mistakes and to interfere when necessary.” and item 19 “Being rewarded by my manager depends only on completing the job he / she asks from me, in the way he / she wants.”. After that, Mardia’s Normalized Estimate Z was 35.53, thus, robust results are reported. The average off-diagonal absolute standardized residual was 0.06. 83.04% of the standardized residuals were distributed between -0.1 and 0.1. According to results there was poor fit S-B $\chi^2(134) = 607.62, p < .001, CFI = .89, RMSEA = .10, 90\% CI [.10, .11], Rho = .93$. For that reason, two modifications were added between the errors of item 13 “I can / do talk about things which are non-related to the work, with my manager.” and item 12 of transformational leadership scale “I know that my manager would help me for my personal problems when I need it.” and also the errors of item 14 “If I invite him / her, my manager attends to my important special events (wedding, birthday etc.)” and item 13. The results still indicated poor fit (S-B $\chi^2(132) = 453.93, p < .001, CFI = .92, RMSEA = .09, 90\% CI [.08, .10], Rho = .92$), thus two other modifications were added between the errors of item 2 “My manager knows about my and my teammates’ competencies, work-related personal concerns and needs and how to motivate each of us” and item 1 “My manager tries to enhance my internal motivation when he / she wants to motivate me for a task.” of the transformational leadership scale and the errors of item 14 and item 12. After these modifications there was a good fit with the data S-B $\chi^2(14) = 360.31, p < .001, CFI = .95, RMSEA = .07, 90\% CI [.06, .08], Rho = .91$.

3.2.7. Trust in Supervisor Scale

One factor CFA was also done for trust in supervisor scale. According to the results, robust estimations are reported, since Mardia's normalized estimate Z was 12.01 which is higher than 5. The result of the average off-diagonal absolute standardized residual was 0.02. According to the distribution of standardized residuals results, 100% of the residuals were between -0.1 and 0.1. The results were S-B $\chi^2(14) = 36.56, p < .001, CFI = .98, RMSEA = .07, 90\% CI [.04, .10], Rho = .88$, thus, there was a moderate fit to the data. As the recommendation of Lagrange Multiplier test modifications, covariance term was added between errors of item 1 "I know s/he will reward me when I succeed." and item 3, "I know s/he will protect me when I'm right about the job." After the modification, model fit the data well (S-B $\chi^2(13) = 27.32, p = .01, CFI = .99, RMSEA = .06, 90\% CI [.02, .08], Rho = .87$).

3.3. Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics are summarized for all participants, participants with women managers, participants with male managers, woman participants and male participants separately. In addition to this, internal consistency analyses were conducted for all the measures in the total sample. The results for all participants are presented in Table 1, while separate results for participants with women managers, men managers, woman participants and male participants are presented in Tables 2 and 3, respectively.

As can be seen in Table 1, mean scores vary for all variables. Variables which are RWA, SDO, and Transactional Leadership Perceptions have mean scores below the mid-point which is 3 for the 6-point Likert-type scale, while job satisfaction, organizational commitment, transformational leadership, leader satisfaction, and trust in leader have mean scores above the mid-point. The mean scores range from 2.23 to 4.10 and the standard deviations range from .91 to 1.37 for all participants. While mean scores range from 2.11 to 4.28 (standard deviations range from .93 to 1.37) among participants with women managers (Table 2), the mean scores range from 2.30 to 4.00 (standard deviations range from .89 to 1.37) among participants with male managers (Table 2). In addition to this, the mean scores of woman participants range from 2.08 to 4.12 (standard deviations range from .90 to 1.36) (Table 3), while the mean scores

of male participants range from 2.39 to 4.07 (standard deviations range from .91 to 1.38) (Table 3).

According to the results of reliability analysis, most of the scales have high levels of Cronbach Alpha coefficients (RWA $\alpha = .88$, SDO $\alpha = .84$, Job Satisfaction $\alpha = .90$, Organizational Commitment $\alpha = .94$, Leader Satisfaction $\alpha = .97$, Transformational Leadership, $\alpha = .96$, Transactional Leadership $\alpha = .68$, Trust $\alpha = .87$). Removing items from the scale did not result in increasing the internal consistency except the trust in leader scale. Item 2 of the scale “I know s/he will only evaluate my work based on my work performance.” was removed increasing the consistency from .77 to .87.

Table 1.

Descriptive statistics of study variables for all participants

	Number of Items	Cronbach Alpha	Mean	SD	Range	Skewness
RWA	15	.88	2.59	.99	4.73	.53
SDO	9	.84	2.23	.92	4.78	.58
Leadership Perceptions	20	.89	3.64	.91	4.20	-.30
TF	14	.96	3.95	1.29	5	-.37
TS	4	.68	2.67	1.10	5	.61
Job Satisfaction	9	.90	3.80	1.12	5	-.38
Organizational Commitment	8	.94	3.98	1.37	5	-.39
Leader Satisfaction	17	.97	3.87	1.29	5	-.40
Trust in Leader	7	.87	4.10	1.17	5	-.45

Notes. Standard error of skewness = .13. RWA = Right Wing Authoritarianism, SDO = Social Dominance Orientation, TF = Transformational Leadership, TS = Transactional Leadership. All scales are rated on a 6-point scale with higher scores indicating higher endorsement of the construct.

Table 2.

Descriptive statistics concerning the variables of interest for participants with a women/men manager separately.

		Number of Items	Mean	SD	Range	Skewness
RWA		15				
	Women		2.32	.93	4.20	.59
	Men		2.74	.99	4.73	.50
SDO		9				
	Women		2.11	.98	4.78	.79
	Men		2.30	.89	3.89	.49
Leadership Perceptions						
	TF	14				
	Women		4.22	1.17	5	-.51
	Men		3.80	1.33	5	-.27
	TS	4				
	Women		2.65	1.11	4.75	.72
	Men		2.68	1.10	5	.56
Job Satisfaction		9				
	Women		3.85	1.15	5	-.39
	Men		3.78	1.37	5	-.38
Organizational Commitment		8				
	Women		3.95	1.37	5	-.45
	Men		3.99	1.37	5	-.36
Leader Satisfaction		17				
	Women		4.13	1.18	5	-.53
	Men		3.74	1.33	5	-.30
Trust in leader		7				
	Women		4.28	1.08	4.86	-.40
	Men		4.00	1.21	5	-.43

Notes. Standard error of skewness for participants with women managers = .22, Standard error of skewness for participants with men managers = .17. RWA = Right Wing Authoritarianism, SDO = Social Dominance Orientation, TF = Transformational Leadership, TS = Transactional Leadership. All scales are rated on a 6-point scale with higher scores indicating higher endorsement of the construct.

Table 3.*Descriptive statistics concerning the variables of interest for women/men participants*

		Number of Items	Mean	SD	Range	Skewness
RWA		15				
	Women		2.37	.90	3.87	.63
	Men		2.83	1.03	4.73	.35
SDO		9				
	Women		2.08	.90	3.89	.71
	Men		2.39	.92	4.78	.47
Leadership Perceptions						
	TF	14				
	Women		4.05	1.28	5	-.44
	Men		3.83	1.30	5	-.31
	TS	4				
	Women		2.66	1.14	5	.65
	Men		2.69	1.06	5	.57
Job Satisfaction		9				
	Women		3.73	1.12	5	-.41
	Men		3.88	1.12	5	-.35
Organizational Commitment		8				
	Women		3.90	1.36	5	-.35
	Men		4.07	1.38	5	-.45
Leader Satisfaction		17				
	Women		3.96	1.32	5	-.59
	Men		3.78	1.26	4.94	-.19
Trust in leader		7				
	Women		4.12	1.23	5	-.59
	Men		4.07	1.11	4.61	-.25

Notes. Standard error of skewness = .18 for women participants, Standard error of skewness = .19 for men participants. RWA = Right Wing Authoritarianism, SDO = Social Dominance Orientation, TF = Transformational Leadership, TS = Transactional Leadership. All scales are rated on a 6-point scale with higher scores indicating higher endorsement of the construct.

To compare the main effects of the participant gender and the gender of the leader together with their interaction on a) job satisfaction, b) organizational commitment, c) leader satisfaction, and d) trust in leader, a two-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted. The results showed that there were no significant differences among groups according to participant gender ($\lambda = .98$, $F(4, 323) = 1.43$, $p = .23$), gender of the leader ($\lambda = .98$, $F(4, 323) = 1.93$, $p = .11$) nor was

there an interaction effect of participant gender and the gender of the leader ($\lambda = .99$, $F(4, 323) = .93$, $p = .45$).

Bivariate correlations of all variables were obtained separately for the entire sample (Table 4), participants with women managers (Table 5) and participants with male managers (Table 6). There are some noteworthy significant correlations for all participants (Table 4). RWA had positive significant correlations with SDO ($r = .50$, $p < .001$), total work experience in the current organization ($r = .26$, $p < .001$). Likewise, organizational commitment had positive significant correlations with job satisfaction ($r = .67$, $p < .001$), transformational leadership perceptions ($r = .51$, $p < .001$), leader satisfaction ($r = .44$, $p < .001$), trust in leader ($r = .43$, $p < .001$), total work experience in the current organization ($r = .26$, $p < .001$) and age of the participant ($r = .25$, $p < .001$). Job satisfaction had positive significant correlations with transformational leadership perceptions ($r = .43$, $p < .001$), leader satisfaction ($r = .40$, $p < .001$) and trust in leader ($r = .40$, $p < .001$). Transformational leadership perceptions had strong positive significant correlations with leader satisfaction ($r = .86$, $p < .001$) and trust in leader ($r = .79$, $p < .001$), while it had negative significant correlation with transactional leadership ($r = -.30$, $p < .001$). Transactional leadership perception had significant negative correlation with leader satisfaction ($r = -.36$, $p < .001$) and trust in leader ($r = -.36$, $p < .001$). Finally, leader satisfaction correlated with trust in leader ($r = .85$, $p < .001$) positively.

Table 4.*Pearson correlation coefficients for all participants*

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1. Right Wing Authoritarianism	—															
2. Social Dominance Orientation	.50*	—														
3. Job Satisfaction for Work	.08	.07	—													
4. Organizational Commitment	.19*	.09	.67	—												
5. Transformational Leadership	-.02	-.04	.43*	.50**	—											
6. Transactional Leadership	.14*	.07	-.11*	-.10	-.30**	—										
7. Leader Satisfaction	-.02	-.03	.40*	.44**	.86*	-.36*	—									
8. Trust in leader	-.04	-.04	.40*	.43**	.79*	-.36*	.85*	—								
9. Age of The Participant	.21*	.10	.20*	.25*	-.08	.05	-.08	-.08	—							
10. Total Work Experience (TWE)	.18*	.12**	.18*	.21*	-.12**	.09	-.13**	-.14**	.76*	—						
11. TWE in Current Organization	.25*	.15*	.14**	.26*	-.11**	.04	-.09	-.13**	.55*	.60*	—					
12. TWE with Current Manager	.09	.07	.15*	.24*	.03	.03	-.02	-.01	.45*	.48*	.52*	—				
13. Monthly Income	-.14*	-.03	.14	-.03**	-.13**	-.06**	-.08	-.11	.38*	.38*	.19*	.17*	—			
14. Gender Composition	.08	.00	-.07**	-.12	-.11**	-.07	-.05	-.05	.09	.08	.03	-.02	.16*	—		
15. Average Communication Time with The Managers	.08	.03	.02	.04	.15*	.08	.19*	.13**	-.05	-.03	-.13**	-.02	-.26*	.04	—	
16. Gender of the Participant	.23*	.17*	.07	.06	-.08	.02	-.07	-.03	.20*	.17*	.13**	.11**	.26	.25*	-.13	—

Notes. $N = 330$, * $p < .01$, ** $p < .05$. Higher score on the Gender Composition variable indicate more men in the organization.

When the data were investigated, differences were found between participants with women leaders and participants with male leaders according to significant correlations (see Table 5 and Table 6). RWA had positive significant correlation with organizational commitment ($r = .25, p < .001$) amongst participants with male leaders but not for participants with women leaders. Transactional leadership had negative significant effect on job satisfaction ($r = -.19, p = .04$) and organizational commitment ($r = -.19, p = .04$) amongst the participants with women leaders but not for participants with male leaders. Transformational leadership and job satisfaction correlation was higher for participants with women leaders ($r = .58, p < .001$) than participants with male leaders ($r = .36, p < .001$). Also transformational leadership and organizational commitment correlation was higher for participants with women leaders ($r = .61, p < .001$) than participants with male leaders ($r = .46, p < .001$). In addition this, the inverse association between transactional leadership and leader satisfaction was higher for participants with women leaders ($r = -.53, p < .001$) than male leaders ($r = -.28, p < .001$), also the inverse association between transactional leadership and trust was higher for participants with women leaders ($r = -.50, p < .001$) than participants with male leaders ($r = -.30, p < .001$).

Table 5.*Pearson correlation coefficients of focal variables for participants with women leaders*

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Right Wing Authoritarianism	—							
2. Social Dominance Orientation	.56*	—						
3. Job Satisfaction for Work	.02	-.02	—					
4. Organizational Commitment	.08	.10	.70*	—				
5. Transformational Leadership	.06	.01	.58*	.61*	—			
6. Transactional Leadership	.18	.03	-.19**	-.19**	-.37*	—		
7. Leader Satisfaction	.02	.02	.48*	.48*	.85*	-.53*	—	
8. Trust in Leader	-.01	.05	.46*	.49*	.71*	-.50*	.82*	—

N = 117, * *p* < .01, ** *p* < .05.

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Table 6.*Pearson correlation coefficients of focal variables for participants with men leaders*

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Right Wing Authoritarianism	—							
2. Social Dominance Orientation	.46*	—						
3. Job Satisfaction for Work	.13	.12	—					
4. Organizational Commitment	.25*	.08	.65*	—				
5. Transformational Leadership	-.01	-.04	.36*	.46*	—			
6. Transactional Leadership	.13	.09	-.06	.06	-.27*	—		
7. Leader Satisfaction	.01	-.04	.36*	.42*	.86*	-.28*	—	
8. Trust in Leader	-.03	-.06	.36*	.40*	.81*	-.30*	.86*	—

N = 213, * *p* < .01

3.4. Hypothesis Testing

In the current study, whether or not RWA and SDO predict the work outcomes of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, trust in leader, and leader satisfaction differentially across employees with women or men leaders and the potential moderation effect of leadership style perceptions on these associations are investigated. Series of moderation analyses were conducted by using the PROCESS macro for Statistical Package for the Social Sciences 23.0 (SPSS 23.0). In the analyses, RWA and SDO were the predictors, transformational and transactional leadership style perceptions were the moderators and job satisfaction, organizational commitment, trust in leader, and leader satisfaction were outcome variables. In addition, total work experience in the current organization was used as a control variable on the analyses in which organizational commitment was used as the DV. All the combinations of the moderations are conducted separately for participants with women leaders and participants with male leaders. An alpha level of .05 was used to test statistical significance. Since there was not enough participants three way interaction could not be conducted, thus, perception of the transformational leadership and perception of the transactional leadership of the participants evaluated separately.

With Hypothesis 1 it was expected that the association between RWA and a) job satisfaction, b) organizational commitment, c) leader satisfaction, and d) trust in leader will be stronger when women leaders are perceived to be more transformational. All statistical results are shown in Table 7 for all four outcomes. Here, only statistically significant results are emphasized. A consistent finding was obtained across the four outcomes. The main effects of transformational leadership perceptions of women leaders were significant on job satisfaction ($b = .56$, $SE = .08$, $p < .001$, 95% CI = .41, .72), leader satisfaction ($b = .85$, $SE = .05$, $p < .001$, 95% CI = .76, .95), organizational commitment ($b = .74$, $SE = .09$, $p < .001$, 95% CI = .57, .91), and trust in women managers ($b = .66$, $SE = .06$, $p < .001$, 95% CI = .53, .78). The moderation effect was not significant in any of the analyses. Thus, hypothesis 1 was not supported.

Table 7.

Simple Moderation Model for RWA and Transformational Leadership Perceptions for participants with women leaders

	Satisfaction with job	Organizational Commitment	Leadership satisfaction	Trust in leader
RWA	-.01 (.10) 95% CI -.21, .18	.01 (.11) 95%CI -.20, .23	-.03 (.06) 95%CI -.16, .09	-.03 (.08) 95% CI -.18, .13
Transformational Leadership (TF)	.56* (.08) 95% CI .41, .72	.74* (.09) 95%CI .57, .91	.85* (.05) 95% CI .76, .95	.66* (.06) 95% CI .53, .78
Total Work Experience In the Current Organization	—	.00 (.00) 95%CI .00, .01	—	—
Age of the Participant	—	.18 (.17) 95% CI -.17, .52	—	—
RWA*TL	.02 (.08) 95% CI -.13, .17	-.08 (.09) 95%CI -.26, .10	-.01 (.05) 95% CI -.11, .09	.05 (.06) 95% CI -.07, .17
R ²	.33	.42	.72	.51
F(df, df)	18.64 (3, 113)	15.88 (5, 111)	96.49 (3, 113)	39.49 (3, 113)
X*W R ² change	.00	.00	.00	.00
F(df,df)	.05 (1, 113)	.83 (1, 111)	.08 (1, 113)	.72 (1, 113)

Notes: Numbers across predictors are b coefficients and numbers in parenthesis next to them are standard errors.

* $p < .05$

With Hypothesis 2 it was expected that, the association between SDO and a) job satisfaction, b) organizational commitment, c) leader satisfaction, and d) trust in leader will be stronger when women leaders are perceived to be more transformational. All statistical results are shown in Table 8 for all four outcomes. According to the results, all the four outcomes have consistent findings with each other. The main effects of transformational leadership perceptions of women leaders had a positive significant effect on employees' job satisfaction ($b = .56$, $SE = .08$, $p < .001$, 95% CI = .41, .71), organizational commitment ($b = .73$, $SE = .09$, $p < .001$, 95 % CI = .56, .90), leader satisfaction ($b = .85$, $SE = .05$, $p < .001$, 95 % CI = .765, .95), and trust (b

= .65, $SE = .06$, $p < .001$, 95 % CI = .53, .77). The moderation effect was not significant in any of the analyses. As a result, hypothesis 2 was not supported.

Table 8.

Simple Moderation Model for SDO and Transformational Leadership for participants with women leaders

	Satisfaction with job	Organizational Commitment	Leadership satisfaction	Trust in leader
SDO	-.01 (.09)	.12 (.10)	.01 (.06)	.06 (.07)
	95% CI -.20, .17	95%CI -.08, .33	95%CI -.11, .14	95% CI -.09, .21
Transformational Leadership (TF)	.56* (.08)	.73* (.09)	.85* (.05)	.65* (.06)
	95% CI .41, .71	95%CI .56, .90	95% CI .75, .95	95% CI .53, .77
Total Work Experience In the Current Organization	—	.00 (.00)	—	—
		95%CI -.00, .01		
Age of the Participants	—	.15 (.17)	—	—
		95% CI -.18, .48		
SDO*TL	.04 (.07)	.02 (.08)	-.02 (.05)	.05 (.06)
	95% CI -.10, .19	95%CI -.14, .19	95% CI -.11, .08	95% CI -.07, .16
R ²	.33	.42	.72	.51
F(df, df)	18.82 (3, 113)	16.05 (5, 111)	96.33 (3, 113)	39.57 (3, 113)
X*W R ² change	.00	.00	.00	.00
F(df,df)	.35 (1, 113)	.07 (1, 111)	.11 (1,113)	.58 (1, 113)

* $p < .05$

Hypothesis 3 expected that the association between RWA and a) job satisfaction, b) organizational commitment, c) leader satisfaction, and d) trust in leader will be negative and stronger when women leaders are perceived to be more transactional. All statistical results are shown in Table 9 for all four outcomes. According to results, transactional leadership perceptions had negative significant effects on job satisfaction ($b = -.21$, $SE = .10$, $p = .03$, 95% CI = -.40, -.02), leader satisfaction ($b = -.58$, $SE = .09$, $p = .01$, 95% CI = -.75, -.41), organizational commitment ($b = -.31$, $SE = .12$, $p = .01$, 95% CI = -.54, -.08) and trust ($b = -.51$, SE

= .08, $p < .001$, 95% CI = -.66, -.35). Still, the moderation effect was not significant in any of the analyses. As a result of this, hypothesis 3 was not supported. A noteworthy finding was the inverse main effect of transactional leader perceptions on being satisfied with and having trust in women leaders and also on job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Table 9.

Simple Moderation Model for RWA and Transactional Leadership for participants with women leaders

	Satisfaction with work	Organizational Commitment	Leadership satisfaction	Trust in leader
RWA	.07 (.12) 95% CI -.16, .31	.16 (.14) 95% CI -.12, .44	.16 (.11) 95%CI -.05, .37	.12 (.10) 95% CI -.08, .31
Transactional Leadership (TS)	-.21* (.10) 95% CI -.40, -.02	-.31* (.12) 95% CI -.54, -.08	-.58* (.09) 95% CI -.75, -.41	-.51* (.08) 95% CI -.66, -.35
Total Work Experience In the Current Organization	—	.00 (.00) 95% CI -.00, .01	—	—
Age of the Participants	—	.22 (.21) 95% CI -.20, .65	—	—
RWA*TL	-.02 (.09) 95% CI -.20, .17	-.02 (.11) 95% CI -.24, .20	-.01 (.08) 95% CI -.18, .15	.02 (.08) 95% CI -.13, .17
R ²	.04	.09	.29	.26
F(df, df)	1.61 (3, 113)	2.17 (5, 111)	15.57 (3, 113)	13.42 (3, 113)
X*W R ² change	.00	.00	.00	.00
F(df,df)	.04 (1, 113)	.05 (1, 111)	.03 (1, 113)	.05 (1, 113)

* $p < .05$

Hypothesis 4 expected that the association between SDO and a) job satisfaction, b) organizational commitment, c) leader satisfaction, and d) trust in leader will be negative stronger when women leaders are perceived to be more transactional. All statistical results are shown in Table 10 for all four outcomes. According to results, transactional leadership perceptions had negative significant effects on job satisfaction ($b = -.20$, $SE = .10$, $p = .04$, 95% CI = -.39, -.01), leader satisfaction ($b = -.56$, $SE =$

.08, $p < .001$, 95% CI = -.73, -.39), organizational commitment ($b = -.29$, $SE = .11$, $p < .001$, 95% CI = -.52, -.06) and trust ($b = -.49$, $SE = .08$, $p < .001$, 95% CI = -.65, -.33). The moderation effect was not significant in any of the analyses. As a result, hypothesis 4 was not supported. Similar to the analysis with RWA in the model, when SDO was in the model, again transactional leadership perceptions were an inverse predictor of satisfaction with and trust in women leaders and also job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Taken together, leader styles seem to have a positive/negative effect on outcomes related to having a women leader.

Table 10.

Simple Moderation Model for SDO and Transactional Leadership for participants with women leaders

	Satisfaction with job	Organizational Commitment	Leadership satisfaction	Trust in leader
SDO	-01 (.11) 95% CI -.22, .21	.14 (.13) 95%CI -.12, .39	.05 (.10) 95%CI -.14, .24	.08 (.09) 95% CI -.10, .26
Transactional Leadership (TS)	-.20* (.10) 95% CI -.39, -.01	-.29* (.11) 95%CI -.52, -.06	-.56* (.08) 95% CI -.73, -.39	-.49* (.08) 95% CI -.65, -.33
Total Work Experience In the Current Organization	—	.00 (.00) -.00, .01	—	—
Age of the Participants	—	.24 (.21) 95% CI -.18, .66	—	—
SDO*TL	.04 (.09) 95% CI -.14, .23	-.06 (.11) 95%CI -.28, .16	.08 (.08) 95% CI -.08, .25	.05 (.08) 95% CI -.10, .21
R ²	.04	.09	.29	.26
F(df, df)	1.55 (3, 113)	2.23 (5, 111)	15.09 (3, 113)	13.17 (3, 113)
X*W R ² change	.00	.00	.01	.00
F(df,df)	.20 (1, 113)	.30 (1, 111)	1.01 (1, 113)	.45 (1, 113)

* $p < .05$

The same analyses were conducted also for participants with men leaders. To do the analyses, participants with men leaders were selected for the data and moderation analyses were conducted.

With Hypothesis 5 it was expected that the association between RWA and a) job satisfaction, b) organizational commitment, c) leader satisfaction, and d) trust in leader will be negative and stronger when men leaders are perceived to be more transformational. All statistical results are shown in Table 11 for all four outcomes. According to results, the interaction effect between RWA and transformational leadership perceptions on job satisfaction was significant and negative ($b = -.16$, $SE = .05$, $p = .002$, 95% CI = $-.26, -.06$) (Table 13). Hence, when men leaders were perceived to be less transformational, the higher employees' RWA level is, the higher job satisfaction (Figure 1) they have ($b = .39$, $SE = .10$, $p < .001$, 95% CI = $.18, .59$). When men leaders were perceived to be more transformational, there was no interaction effect on job satisfaction ($b = -.11$, $SE = .11$, $p = .30$, 95% CI = $-.33, .10$). The main effect of RWA on organizational commitment ($b = .22$, $SE = .08$, $p < .001$, 95% CI = $.06, .37$) was significant and positive for participants with men leaders (Table 13). In addition to this, transformational leadership perceptions had significant positive main effects on job satisfaction ($b = .30$, $SE = .05$, $p < .001$, 95% CI = $.20, .40$), organizational commitment ($b = .50$, $SE = .06$, $p < .001$, 95% CI = $.39, .61$), leader satisfaction ($b = .86$, $SE = .04$, $p < .001$, 95% CI = $.79, .93$), and trust ($b = .74$, $SE = .04$, $p < .001$, 95% CI = $.67, .81$) (Table 13). Also, total work experience in the current organization ($b = .00$, $SE = .00$, $p < .001$, 95% CI = $.00, .01$) and age ($b = .21$, $SE = .09$, $p = .02$, 95% CI = $.03, .38$) were positive significant on organizational commitment. Thus, hypothesis 5a was supported for job satisfaction, however, Hypotheses 5b, 5c and 5d were not supported when the DV was organizational commitment, leader satisfaction and trust.

Table 11.

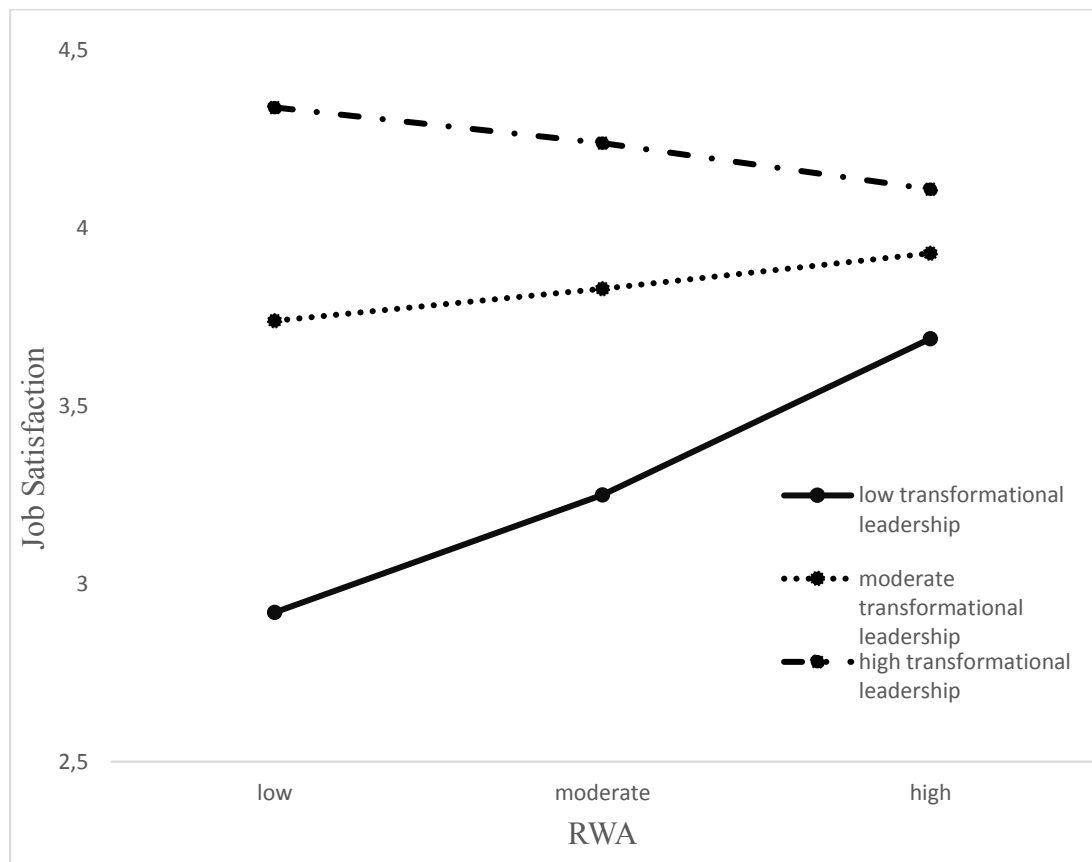
Simple Moderation Model for RWA and Transformational Leadership Perceptions for participants with male leaders

	Satisfaction with job	Organizational Commitment	Leadership satisfaction	Trust in leader
RWA	.13 (.07) 95% CI -.01, .28	.22* (.08) 95%CI .06, .37	.01 (.05) 95%CI -.08, .10	-.04 (.05) 95% CI -.14, .06
Transformational Leadership (TF)	.30* (.05) 95% CI .20, .40	.50* (.06) 95%CI .39, .61	.86* (.04) 95% CI .79, .93	.74* (.04) 95% CI .67, .81
Total Work Experience In the Current Organization	—	.00* (.00) 95%CI .00, .01	—	—
Age of the Participant	—	.21* (.09) 95% CI .03, .38	—	—
RWA*TL	-.16* (.05) 95% CI -.26, -.06	-.10 (.06) 95%CI -.21, .01	-.03 (.04) 95% CI -.10, .04	-.03 (.04) 95% CI -.10, .04
R ²	.19	.40	.74	.66
F(df, df)	15.84 (3, 209)	27.36 (5, 207)	198.73 (3, 209)	138.16 (3, 209)
X*W R ² change	.04	.01	.00	.00
F(df,df)	9.80 (1, 209)	3.00 (1, 207)	.74 (1, 209)	.66 (1, 209)

*p < .05.

Figure 1.

The Moderation Effect of RWA and Transformational Leadership on Job Satisfaction for Participants with Male Leaders



With Hypothesis 6 it was expected that the association between SDO and a) job satisfaction, b) organizational commitment, c) leader satisfaction, and d) trust in leader will be negative and stronger when men leaders are perceived to be more transformational. All statistical results are shown in Table 14 for all four outcomes. The results showed that, the interaction between SDO and transformational leadership had a negative significant effect on job satisfaction ($b = -.22$, $SE = .06$, $p = .0001$, 95% CI = $-.33$, $-.11$) and organizational commitment ($b = -.18$, $SE = .06$, $p = .005$, 95% CI = $-.30$, $-.05$) (Table 14). That means, when men leaders are perceived less transformational, the higher employees' SDO level is, the higher job satisfaction ($b = .48$, $SE = .11$, $p < .001$, 95% CI = $.26$, $.70$) (Figure 3) and organizational commitment ($b = .30$, $SE = .12$, $p = .02$, 95% CI = $.06$, $.54$) (Figure 4) they have. When men leaders are perceived to be more transformational, there were no interaction effect on job satisfaction ($b = -.19$, $SE = .12$, $p = .11$, 95% CI = $-.43$, $.05$) and organizational commitment ($b = -.24$, $SE = .13$, $p = .07$, 95% CI = $-.51$, $.02$). Moreover,

transformational leadership perceptions had a significant positive main effect on job satisfaction ($b = .31, SE = .05, p < .001, 95\% CI = .21, .42$), organizational commitment ($b = .52, SE = .06, p < .001, 95\% CI = .41, .63$), leader satisfaction ($b = .86, SE = .04, p < .001, 95\% CI = .79, .93$) and trust ($b = .74, SE = .04, p < .001, 95\% CI = .67, .81$). Also, total work experience in the current organization was positive significant on organizational commitment ($b = .00, SE = .00, p < .001, 95\% CI = .00, .01$) and age of the participant ($b = .24, SE = .09, p = .01, 95\% CI = .07, .42$) (Table 14). As a result, hypothesis 12 is supported when the DVs were job satisfaction and organizational commitment, however, it was not supported when the DVs were leader satisfaction and trust.

Table 12.

Simple Moderation Model for SDO and Transformational Leadership Perceptions for participants with male leaders

	Satisfaction with job	Organizational Commitment	Leadership satisfaction	Trust in leader
SDO	.13 (.08) 95% CI -.02, .29	.02 (.09) 95%CI -.15, .19	-.01 (.05) 95%CI -.12, .09	-.04 (.06) 95% CI -.15, .07
Transformational Leadership (TL)	.31* (.05) 95% CI .21, .42	.52* (.06) 95%CI .41, .63	.86* (.04) 95% CI .79, .93	.74* (.04) 95% CI .67, .81
Total Work Experience In the Current Organization	—	.00* (.00) 95%CI .00, .01	—	—
Age of the Participant	—	.24* (.09) 95%CI 07, 42	—	—
SDO*TL	-.22* (.06) 95% CI -.33 -.11	-.18* (.06) 95%CI -.30, -.05	-.07 (.04) 95% CI -.15, .00	-.01 (.04) 95% CI -.09, .07
R ²	.21	.39	.74	.66
F(df, df)	18 (3, 209)	26.55 (5, 207)	202.12 (3, 209)	137.56 (3, 209)
X*W R ² change	.06	.02	.00	.00
F(df,df)	14.94 (1, 209)	8.17 (1, 207)	3.45 (1, 209)	.08 (1, 209)

*p < .05

Figure 2.

The Moderation Effect of SDO and Transformational Leadership on Job Satisfaction for Participants with Male Leaders

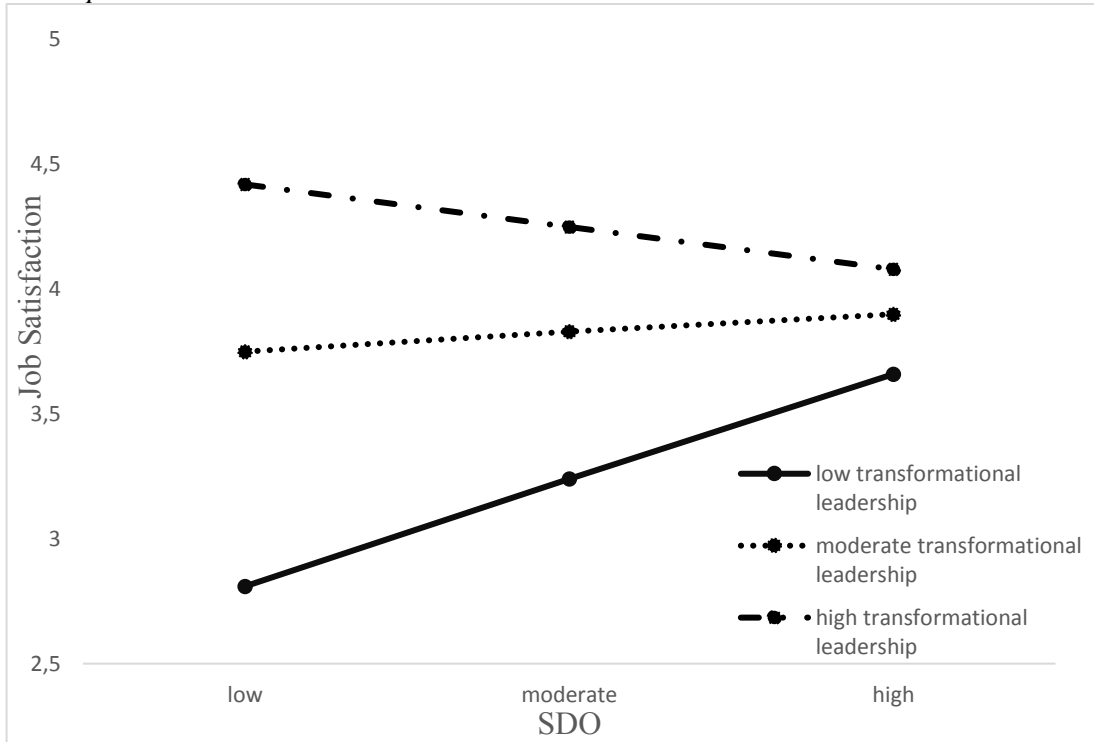
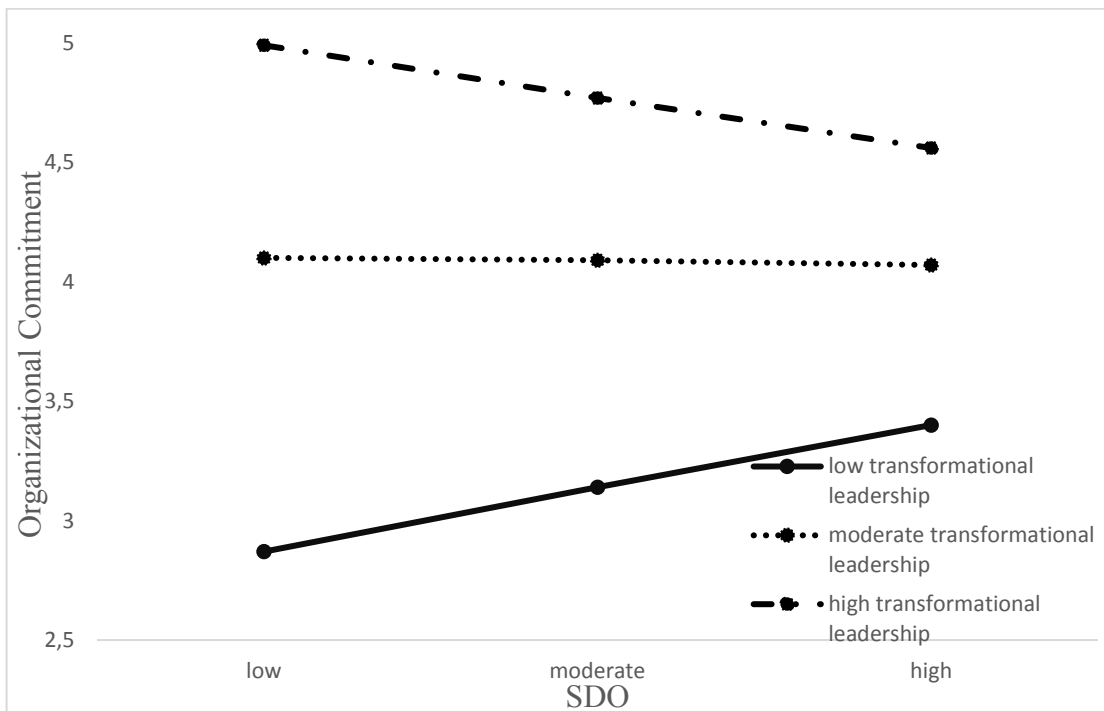


Figure 3.

The Moderation Effect of SDO and Transformational Leadership on Organizational Commitment for Participants with Male Leaders



With Hypothesis 7 it was expected that the association between RWA and a) job satisfaction, b) organizational commitment, c) leader satisfaction, and d) trust in leader will be positive and stronger when men leaders perceived to be more transactional. All statistical results are shown in Table 13 for all four outcomes. According to results, the interaction between RWA and transactional leadership perceptions had a positive significant effect on leader satisfaction ($b = .18$, $SE = .08$, $p = .02$, 95% CI = .03, .33) and trust ($b = .18$, $SE = .07$, $p = .009$, 95% CI = .05, .32) (Table 15). That means, when men leaders are perceived more transactional, the higher employees' RWA level is, the higher leader satisfaction ($b = .24$, $SE = .12$, $p = .046$, 95% CI = .004, .47) (Figure 4). When men leaders are perceived less transactional, there was no interaction effect on leader satisfaction ($b = -.16$, $SE = .13$, $p = .21$, 95% CI = -.41, .09). For the trust outcome, although the interaction effect was significant, the simple slopes for neither the RWA-trust association at the low level of transactional leadership ($b = -.22$, $SE = .12$, $p = .06$, 95% CI = -.44, .01) nor the association at the high level of transactional leadership ($b = .20$, $SE = .11$, $p = .07$, 95% CI = -.02, .41) were significant. Nevertheless, the direction of effect changed from negative to positive from lower to higher levels of transactional leadership, resulting in the observed significant interaction effect. Transactional leadership also had significant effect on leader satisfaction ($b = -.34$, $SE = .08$, $p < .001$, 95% CI = -.50, -.19) and trust ($b = -.33$, $SE = .07$, $p < .001$, 95% CI = -.47, -.19). The effect of RWA was positive and significant on job satisfaction ($b = .15$, $SE = .08$, $p = .047$, 95% CI = .00, .30) and organizational commitment ($b = .25$, $SE = .09$, $p = .008$, 95% CI = .06, .43). Also, total work experience in the current organization was positive significant on organizational commitment ($b = .00$, $SE = .00$, $p = .02$, 95% CI = .00, .01) (Table 15). As a result, hypothesis 7 was supported for leader satisfaction and trust, but not for job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Table 13.

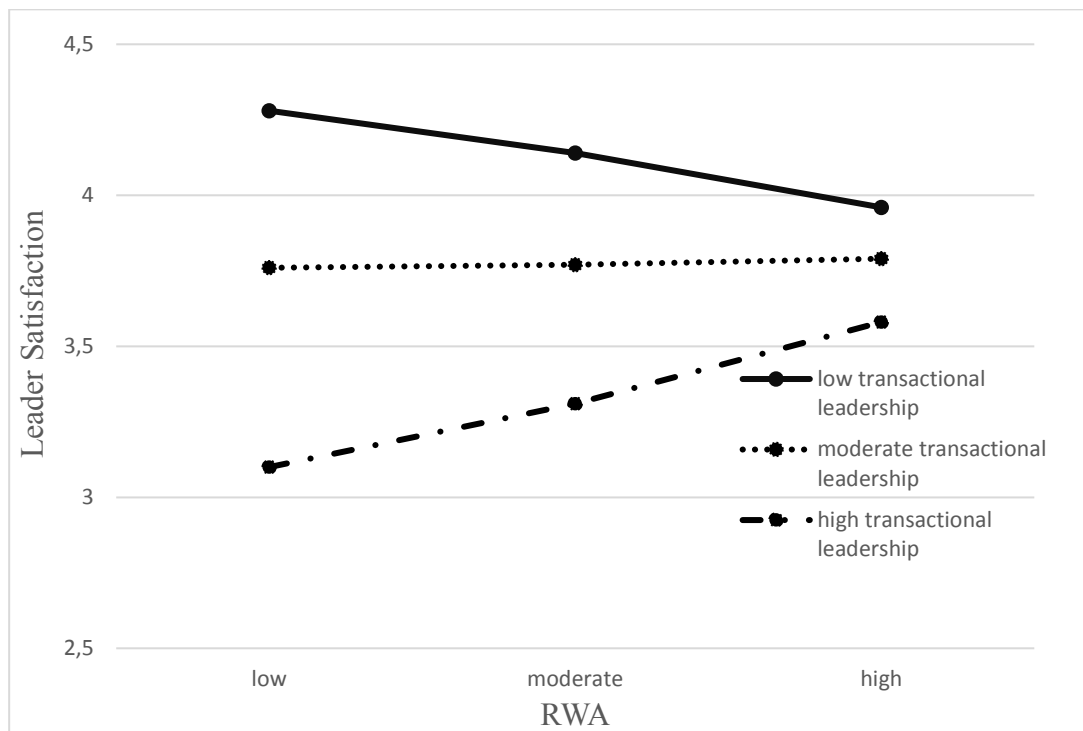
Simple Moderation Model for RWA and Transactional Leadership for participants with male leaders

	Satisfaction with job	Organizational Commitment	Leadership satisfaction	Trust in leader
RWA	.15* (.08) 95% CI .002, .30	.25* (.09) 95%CI .06, .43	.05 (.09) 95%CI -.12, .22	.00 (.08) 95% CI -.16, .16
Transactional Leadership (TL)	-.08 (.07) 95% CI -.22, .06	-.10 (.08) 95%CI -.25, .06	-.34* (.08) 95% CI -.50, -.19	-.33* (.07) 95% CI -.47, -.19
Total Work Experience In the Current Organization	—	.00 (.00) 95%CI .00, .01	—	—
Age of the Participants	—	.20 (.10) 95% CI -.00, .41	—	—
RWA*TL	.06 (.07) 95% CI -.07, .19	.12 (.08) 95%CI -.03, .27	.18* (.08) 95% CI .03, .33	.18* (.07) 95% CI .05, .32
R ²	.03	.16	.10	.12
F(df, df)	1.94 (3, 209)	8.07 (5, 207)	7.97 (3, 209)	9.34 (3, 209)
X*W R ² change	.00	.01	.02	.03
F(df,df)	.93 (1, 209)	2.30 (1, 207)	5.36 (1, 209)	7 (1, 209)

*p < .05.

Figure 4.

The Moderation Effect of RWA and Transactional Leadership on Leader Satisfaction for Participants with Male Leaders



With Hypothesis 8 it was expected that the association between SDO and a) job satisfaction, b) organizational commitment, c) leader satisfaction, and d) trust in leader will be positive and stronger when men leaders are perceived to be more transactional. All statistical results are shown in Table 14 for all four outcomes. A consistent finding was obtained across the four outcomes. None of the interaction effects on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, leader satisfaction and trust in leader were significant. Transactional leadership had significant effect on leader satisfaction ($b = -.34$, $SE = .08$, $p < .001$, 95% CI = $-.50, -.18$) and trust ($b = -.33$, $SE = .07$, $p < .001$, 95% CI = $-.47, -.18$). Also total work experience in the current organization ($b = .00$, $SE = .00$, $p = .01$, 95% CI = $.00, .01$) and age ($b = .24$, $SE = .11$, $p = .02$, 95% CI = $.04, .45$) had positive significant effect on organizational commitment. The moderation effect was not significant in any of the analyses either. As a result, hypothesis 8 was not supported.

Table 14.

Simple Moderation Model for SDO and Transactional Leadership for participants with male leaders

	Satisfaction with job	Organizational Commitment	Leadership satisfaction	Trust in leader
SDO	.15 (.09) 95% CI -.02, .33	.02 (.10) 95%CI -.18, .23	-.04 (.10) 95%CI -.23, .16	-.06 (.09) 95% CI -.24, .12
Transactional Leadership (TL)	-.07 (.07) 95% CI -.21, .06	-.07 (.08) 95%CI -.23, .09	-.34* (.08) 95% CI -.50, -.18	-.33* (.07) 95% CI -.47, -.18
Total Work Experience In the Current Organization	—	.00* (.00) 95%CI .00, .01	—	—
Age of the Participants	—	.24* (.11) 95% CI .04, .45	—	—
SDO*TL	.03 (.08) 95% CI -.12, .19	.09 (.09) 95%CI -.10, .27	.14 (.09) 95% CI -.04, .32	.05 (.08) 95% CI -.11, .22
R ²	.02	.13	.09	.09
F(df, df)	1.46 (3, 209)	6.09 (5, 207)	6.73 (3, 209)	7.05 (3, 209)
X*W R ² change	.00	.00	.01	.00
F(df,df)	.16 (1, 209)	.88 (1, 207)	2.28 (1, 209)	.41 (1, 209)

*p < .05.

All the results are summarized in table 15.

Table 15.*Summary Table*

	Job Satisfaction	Organizational Commitment	Satisfaction with Leader	Trust in Leader
Women Managers				
RWA	X	X	X	X
Transformational leader	✓ (+)	✓ (+)	✓ (+)	✓ (+)
TF*RWA	X	X	X	X
Transactional leader	✓ (-)	✓ (-)	✓ (-)	✓ (-)
TS*RWA	X	X	X	X
SDO	X	X	X	X
Transformational leader	✓ (+)	✓ (+)	✓ (+)	✓ (+)
TF*SDO	X	X	X	X
Transactional leader	✓ (-)	✓ (-)	✓ (-)	✓ (-)
TS*SDO	X	X	X	X
Men Managers				
RWA	X	✓ (+)	X	X
Transformational leader	✓ (+)	✓ (+)	✓ (+)	✓ (+)
TF*RWA	✓ (-)	X	X	X
Transactional leader	X	X	✓ (-)	✓ (-)
TS*RWA	X	X	✓ (+)	✓ (+)
SDO	X	X	X	X
Transformational leader	✓ (+)	✓ (+)	✓ (+)	✓ (+)
TF*SDO	✓ (-)	✓ (-)	X	X
Transactional leader	X	X	✓ (-)	✓ (-)
TS*SDO	X	X	X	X

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

4.1. Overview

The aim of the current study was to investigate the predictive effects of Right Wing Authoritarianism and Social Dominance Orientation on the job satisfaction and organizational commitment of incumbents and incumbents' trust and satisfaction in their leaders by taking account of the moderating role of leadership styles. The results show that whether people are high in RWA and/or SDO or not, they show negative prejudiced attitudes toward women leaders whom adopt gender role incongruent leadership styles. On the other hand, it is found that RWA and SDO interact with gender role congruent / incongruent leadership styles of men leaders and have an effect on follower attitudes and experiences.

The study provides valuable insights from different points of views into employees' prejudiced attitudes toward their leaders, depending on employees' RWA or SDO levels and leaders' gender role congruent or gender role incongruent leadership styles. It also provides a different perspective to the reasons that have effects on the job/leader satisfaction, organizational commitment and trust in leader. It is believed that, the results contribute to the literature and can be helpful for the fight against gender inequalities and its negative consequences for people especially in the work context.

In the next sections, detailed information about the results and implications are discussed. Also, limitations of the study and suggestions for future studies are presented.

4.2. Discussion of the Findings and Implications

Results showed that although job satisfaction, leader satisfaction, organizational commitment or trust in leader do not differ according to participant gender, these outcomes do differ based on the gender of one's leader in some situations. When the results about women leaders are investigated deeply, it was found

that, despite some consistent results with the literature, hypotheses were not supported for women leaders. The results showed that the interaction between RWA/SDO and leadership styles had no effect on job/leader satisfaction, organizational commitment or trust in leader of the employees with women leaders. However, when findings with male leaders are investigated, the results have partial supports for the hypotheses. First of all, when employees perceive their male leader as low on transformational leadership (role congruent), those with higher RWA are more likely to have higher job satisfaction compared to people with low RWA. In addition to this, when employees perceive their male leader as low on transformational leadership, those with higher SDO are more likely to have higher job satisfaction and/or organizational commitment compared to people with low SDO. Similar to the findings with transformational male leaders, there were also valuable findings for transactional male leaders. When male leaders are perceived as high in transactional leadership (again role congruent), those with higher RWA are more likely to have higher leader satisfaction and trust in their leader compared to people with low RWA, although the interaction of SDO and transactional leadership perceptions had no effect on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, leader satisfaction or trust in leader. In short, significant interaction effects indicated that employees had more positive attitudes when their male leaders were perceived more role congruent.

When main effects were investigated, the results showed that transformational leadership had positive effects on all the outcomes for both women and male leaders. Transactional leadership had negative effects on all outcomes for women leaders, although, it had negative effects only on leader satisfaction and trust in leader for male leaders. From these results, some conclusions can be drawn for women leaders and men leaders, separately. First of all, even though not all the interaction hypotheses were supported, the main effects of the leadership styles were supported. Consistent with the literature stating that people are more satisfied with women leaders adopting a gender congruent leadership style (transformational leadership) than women leaders adopting a gender incongruent leadership style (transactional leadership) (Embry et al., 2008) the results showed that transformational leadership perceptions of the women leaders have positive effects on employee outcomes. Secondly, for the men leaders, the findings show that employees did not show prejudiced attitudes toward male leaders who adopted a transformational leadership style. It was found that

employees showed more job satisfaction, leader satisfaction, organizational commitment and trust in their leader, when they perceived more transformational leadership from their male leader, which is also consistent with the findings of Cuadrado, Morales, and Recio (2008) who stated that stereotypical feminine leadership style adopted by men did not cause negative evaluations for them. However, it would be useful to add that, the relationships between transformational leadership and outcomes were stronger for women leaders than men leaders. That is also consistent with the literature since, transformational leadership behaviors parallel some women gender roles. Thirdly, for the participants with male leaders, the main effects of transactional leadership style show that transactional leadership had effects on leader satisfaction and trust in their leader negatively, however, it had no effect on job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The literature on the association between transactional leadership and job outcomes has somewhat inconsistent findings, indicating negative associations [e.g. transactional leadership predicts job satisfaction and organizational commitment negatively (Erkutlu, 2008; Limsila & Ogunlana, 2008); predicts leader satisfaction (Erkutlu, 2008) and trust in leader (Kelloway et al., 2012) negatively], positive associations [e.g., it predicts trust positively (Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Jung & Avolio, 2000)], and also null findings [(e.g., no relationship between trust in leader and gender congruent leadership style (Embry et al., 2008)]. Also there is a consistency with the findings which stated that transactional leadership has relationship with leader satisfaction (Erkutlu, 2008) and trust in leader (Kelloway et al., 2012) negatively. Findings of the present study further contribute to the literature on transactional leader's negative effect on leader satisfaction and trust. However, this effect was not observed on the job and workplace related attitudes of job satisfaction and organizational behavior.

As mentioned before, according to the findings, when women or male leaders were perceived to be more transformational, the job satisfaction, leader satisfaction, trust in leader and organizational commitment levels were higher for employees. These results of main effects are also consistent with the current literature which state the positive effects of transformational leadership on outcomes (Bushra et al., 2011; Dirks & Ferrin, 2002; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Jung & Avolio, 2000; Limsila & Ogunlana, 2008; Liu et al., 2010; Voon et al., 2011). From these results, it can be concluded that transformational leadership is beneficial for employees and organizations whether they

have women or men leaders. That means, due to leaders transformational style, there could be lower levels of job dissatisfaction, absenteeism, complaining expression, tardiness, low morale and decision making participation (Bushra et al, 2011; Rad et al., 2006), unfulfilled needs of the team members (Phillips, 2001), turnover intentions (Burke et al., 2007). Also there could be high level of communication (Burke et al., 2007) and productivity (Loke, 2001).

The results also showed that transactional leadership perceived from women leaders had negative effects on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, leader satisfaction and trust in leader, while transactional leadership perceived from men leaders had negative effects only on leader satisfaction and trust in leader. Therefore, it could be concluded that employees did not prefer to perceive transactional leadership from their leaders. It had negative consequences for the employees which would also create negative consequences for the organizations. On the other hand, it should be taken into account that while transactional leadership perceived from women leaders had negative effects on all the outcomes, transactional leadership perceived from men leaders had negative effects only on leader satisfaction and trust in leader. The results about women leaders and also men leaders were consistent with the current literature which stated that the subordinates show less satisfaction with female leaders with gender role incongruent style than gender role congruent style and on the contrary, employees show more satisfaction with gender role incongruent male leaders than role congruent male leaders (Embry et al., 2008). For the male leaders, when employees perceived gender role incongruent leadership style which is transformational leadership, employees experienced positive, rather than negative consequences. However, when there were male role congruent and women role incongruent leadership style which is transactional leadership, only employees with women leaders had lower job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Perception of the high level of transactional leadership had no effect on job satisfaction or organizational commitment of the employees with male leaders. There could be two possible reasons for this situation. First of all, it could be said that men adopting a gender congruent leadership style, that is transactional leadership, eliminated some of the negative effects of transactional leadership. With relation to this, while there were no effects of transactional leadership on job satisfaction and organizational commitment of the participants with male leaders, it had effects on leader satisfaction and trust in leader.

This might be because the leader satisfaction and trust in leader are two concepts that could be more proximally affected by personal relationships with leaders while personal relationships may have indirect effects on job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Thus, employees with men leaders, might not be satisfied with their leader or trust them, still, the leadership style might have no effect on job satisfaction or organizational commitment as it is seen as a “man’s style” and they believe that leadership should be like this. On the other hand, employees with women leaders could be affected by personal relationships and also they may not like gender role incongruent women leaders, thus, as a result of this, it could be having an effect on job satisfaction and organizational commitment too. Secondly, rather than eliminating the negative effect, perception of the transactional leadership from women leaders had negative effect on job satisfaction or organizational commitment, while transactional leadership itself had not effect on job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Thus, regardless of their levels of RWA and SDO, employees give negative reactions to women with role incongruent leadership style while role incongruent leadership style has no negative effects on job satisfaction and organizational commitment for male leaders. As a result, it can be concluded that, only women are exposed negative evaluations from gender incongruent leadership style.

When the main effects of SDO and RWA investigated, the results showed that there were no main effect of SDO or RWA on any of the outcomes for the participants with women leaders. Thus, it could be concluded that the effect on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, leader satisfaction and trust in leader were independent from SDO and RWA, when employees have women leaders. However, RWA has a positive effect on organizational commitment of the participants with men managers, whether they perceive their leader as higher on transformational leadership or transactional leadership. Also, employees with higher RWA show more job satisfaction when they perceive more transactional leadership from their male leader. In here, another interesting point was that the higher RWA helps employees to show more organizational commitment whether they have transformational male leader or transactional male leaders. Therefore, it can be concluded that, when people have high level of RWA, they show higher organizational commitment or job satisfaction since they have male leader. The reason of this might the effects of gender of the leader. This might be because people with higher RWA are seeking for social order, stability

and safety of the groups (Cohrs & Asbrock, 2009) and also tradition, structure, conformity, religiosity and valuing order (Duckitt & Sibley, 2009). When employees who have male leaders also have high levels of RWA, even though they do not like their leaders, they will respect them, since the male leaders protect social order, stability and safety of the group. It will in turn, also help those employees to show commitment to the organization or satisfied with their jobs. Therefore, as male leaders provide traditions to be continued, employees with high level of RWA may feel more committed to the organizations without looking at the leadership style of their male leader. In addition to organizational commitment, since transactional male leaders are more traditional, this might also have positive effect on job satisfaction of the employees with high level of RWA.

To sum up, employees with transformational leaders have higher levels of job satisfaction, leader satisfaction, organizational commitment and trust in their leader, while the employees with transactional managers have lower levels of leader satisfaction and trust in their leaders. Also, employees with transactional women managers have lower levels of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. The negative evaluation of the transactional women leaders seems mostly because of their gender incongruent behavior since perception from transactional leadership from male leaders have no effect on job satisfaction and organizational commitment. As a result of this, it can be said that women leaders are exposed to prejudice because of their leadership style whether the employees have high level of RWA and SDO or not. The results of the present study show consistency with the findings of Eagly and Karau (2002) who state that gender role incongruent behaviors of women can receive unfavorable evaluation from people and also other researchers stated that agentic women are seen as less likeable and socially skilled than agentic males (Rudman & Glick, 2001; Phelan et al., 2008). Although, RWA and SDO have relationships with different kind of prejudices, they do not have any interactions on role incongruent leadership styles of women leaders and its consequences. On the other hand, women's role incongruent leadership style have different and negative consequences while male role incongruent leadership style has positive effects. As mentioned before, rather than resulting in negative effect, perception of transformational leadership from male leaders had positive effects on outcomes. Thus, this situation can point to bigger problems for women in managerial positions.

According to results, RWA or SDO's interaction with transactional leadership or transformational leadership has no effect on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, leader satisfaction and trust in leader, when employees have women leaders. These results showed that gender role congruity plays an important role while perceiving and evaluating women leadership, RWA and SDO do not have any impact on this relationship. The existing stereotypes about women leaders in society might dominate the perception of women leaders and thus, this might eliminate the effects of RWA and SDO. As a result of this, even people who had low level of RWA and SDO show similar prejudices toward women leaders as people with high level of RWA or SDO. However, on the bright side, transformational leadership was perceived positively by all employees whether their leader were male or women. Since transformational leadership corresponds with women gender roles, employees would give more positive reactions to transformational women leader than transformational male leaders.

The results showed that the interaction between RWA or SDO and transformational leadership or transactional leadership had different consequences for participants with male leaders. First of all, according to results, when male leaders have high or moderate level of transformational leadership, RWA and/or SDO have no effect on the level of job satisfaction or organizational commitment. However, when male leaders have low level of transformational leadership, the higher the RWA level of the employees, the higher the job satisfaction they have and similarly, the higher the SDO level, the higher the job satisfaction or organizational commitment they have. Hence, this behavior can be named as positive discrimination shown by people who have high level of RWA and SDO, through male leaders who have low level of transformational leadership. Here, it should be paid attention that, while there were interaction effects on job satisfaction and organizational commitment, there were no interaction on leader satisfaction and trust in leader. The reason of this might be that the transformational leadership is the leadership type which is already being greeted positively by employees. Thus, people with high or low level of RWA may not give negative reactions to their leaders when they have transformational male leaders. Also, according to Ayman, Korabik, and Morris (2009), transformational leadership has an equalizer effect and men can have power for preventing status lost without losing their legitimacy. They also stated that being considered caring can be

perceived as paternalistic which in turn creates positive attributes for transformational male leaders. However, when there would be lower level of transformational leadership perception from their leader, those people with high level of RWA or SDO benefited from this situation. This might be because, leader satisfaction and trust in leader are two concepts that could be more proximally affected by personal relationships with leaders while personal relationships may have indirect effect on job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Since the people with high level of RWA are traditional and people with high level of SDO have a tendency to make more stereotyping (Whitley, 1999) which might in turn have effect on their belief about gender roles, they may respect their leader as their leader was male. Thus, although they do not show differences with people with low RWA or SDO, people with higher RWA show more satisfaction, and people with higher SDO show more job satisfaction and organizational commitment to their less transformational leader, because of their gender.

In addition to the findings with RWA/SDO and their interaction with transformational leadership, there were also important findings for the effects of RWA/SDO interaction with transactional leadership on the outcomes. When the attitudes toward transactional male leaders are investigated, it is found that, when men leaders are perceived more transactional, the higher employees' RWA level is, the higher leader satisfaction or trust they have. However, SDO and transactional leadership interaction has no effect on any of the outcomes. These results of the interaction effect findings are new for the literature. It is believed that they provide some insight about role incongruence and prejudices. Unlike RWA, people with high level of SDO do not have high level of leader satisfaction or trust in their male leader who adopt transactional leadership style highly. In that point, it can be paid attention to Duckitt and Sibley's conclusion that states there are different generalized prejudice dimensions which are predicted by RWA and SDO in different ways. Moreover, Cohrs and Asbrock (2009) said that there are different kind of motivational concerns which cause prejudice through RWA and SDO. While social cohesion and identity have association with RWA, concerns about in-group superiority and dominance have relationship with SDO. Cohrs and Asbrock (2009) also indicated that when social order, stability and safety of group is threatened, RWA strongly drives prejudice rather than SDO, since there is no competition for the status hierarchy between dominant and

subordinate groups. On the other hand, when there is a group which competes for power-status, SDO strongly causes prejudice compared to RWA, since people do not perceive threats to their social order, stability or safety, although competition can be understood as a certain kind of threat. As a result of this, it can be concluded that, when there are male leaders who adopt gender role congruent leadership style highly, people with high level of RWA have more satisfaction with their leader and trust, since the leader helps to continue social order and stability for the gender roles, the group. On the other hand, people with high level of SDO might think that men leaders already have status and power. Thus leadership style of men leaders may not be important and it may not cause prejudice behavior toward transactional male leader, whether in a positive way or in a negative way.

The results also showed that when employees perceived their leaders more transactional, people with high level of RWA had more leader satisfaction and trust in their leader but not job satisfaction and organizational commitment. This situation might be explained by two reasons which was mentioned before. First of all, this might be because of the strong relationships between RWA and tradition, structure, conformity, religiosity and valuing order (Duckitt & Sibley, 2009). With relation to this, when male leaders adopt transactional leadership style, there is a consistency between the male gender roles and leadership style and this consistency can continue social order, stability and safety of groups which are valuable for RWA (Cohrs & Asbrock, 2009). For that reason, rather than creating negative prejudice, consistency with values may create positive prejudice and thus, people with high level of RWA show higher leader satisfaction and trust in leader. Secondly, leader satisfaction and trust in leader are two concepts that could be more proximally affected by personal relationships with leaders while personal relationships may have an indirect effect on job satisfaction and organizational commitment. When they have transactional male leaders, the male leader behave as congruent with his gender role, thus, there is a consistency between the expectations in the society and leaders behavior. Since transactional leadership behavior is what they expect from the male leaders, people with high level of RWA show more leader satisfaction and trust in their leader, however, the other effects might have more influence on job satisfaction and organizational commitment, thus, the interaction might not have any effect on job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

The results of the current study also show that, employees in general benefit from transformational leaders. Whether the leader is a man or woman, transformational leadership style has positive effects on job satisfaction, leader satisfaction, organizational commitment and trust in their leader. However, when a low level of transformational leadership from a male leader is perceived, having high level of RWA becomes advantageous for having more job satisfaction and having a high level of SDO also becomes advantageous for high level of job satisfaction and organizational commitment. In addition to this, although transactional leadership has no effect on job satisfaction and organizational commitment and negative effect on leader satisfaction and trust in leader for all people with male leaders, people with high levels of RWA show more leader satisfaction and trust in their leader. However, transactional women leaders are evaluated negatively by people independent of their SDO and RWA levels.

When all the findings are evaluated, some implications will be suggested for the practices. First of all, the current study and other studies about the relationships between transformational leadership and job/leader satisfaction, organizational commitment and trust in leader show that transformational leadership has a positive effect on employees in general. Whether employees have a high level of RWA and SDO, it is obvious that high or moderate level of transformational leadership style has positive effect on employees, thus, both transformational women and men leaders are beneficial for the organizations. In addition to this, without looking at RWA and SDO levels, it is clearly seen that transactional leadership is not beneficial since it has no effect on job satisfaction and organizational commitment and negative effect on trust in leader for people with male leaders. It has also negative consequences for people with women leaders. Transactional leadership has positive consequence only for people who have high level of RWA. Thus, leaders should consider twice when they adopt a transactional leadership style, because of the negative consequences of transactional leadership style. Results for transactional leadership style and RWA relationships are valuable, since it shows that transactional male leaders benefited from RWA, however, transactional leadership has negative effect on women leaders, without the effects of employees' RWA and SDO level. At one point, it is not acceptable that, women leaders who adopt transactional leadership style are exposed the prejudice because of the incongruence between their gender and stereotypes about

women in society. On the other hand, women can benefit from these stereotypical thoughts with being transformational leaders. In this way, the effects of their prejudiced behavior toward role incongruent leaders and its consequences can be precluded, since there is a match between women gender roles and transformational leadership style behavior, and at the same time, outcomes of the employees can be higher which in turn would benefit the organizations.

As a result, in light of all the information, it can be concluded that organizations should break the prejudiced ideas toward women leaders and their leadership styles. With relation to this, on the equal conditions, women should be given a chance to be leaders. In this way, while there will be more gender equal work environment, there will be more positive outcomes for organizations, employees and women leaders.

4.3. Limitations and Suggestions for the Future Studies

The study has some limitations. Firstly, although an effort was made to reach people from different cities, most of the participants reached live in metropolitan municipalities in Turkey such as İstanbul, İzmir and Ankara. Thus, the culture of the metropolitan cities might have made participants pay more attention to gender equality or they might have been more accustomed to it and be more open to women leaders. Because of the dynamics of the metropolitans and huge cultural differences across Turkey, having participants from the rural areas might be better for this study. On the other hand, people who live in metropolitan cities have different cultural backgrounds from different cities, so the effects of cultural differences might have actually been reduced. But still, reaching more people from different cities would strengthen the generalizability of study findings.

Secondly, in the current study, most of the participants are white collar workers. The representation of the blue-collar workers were limited. The reason of this situation may be because of the distribution method of the survey. The survey was distributed via using social media websites such as LinkedIn, Facebook and Twitter. Although the usage of these websites are very high in Turkey and it was easy to reach people from different backgrounds, education level seems to be playing a role for completing the survey. Since most of the white collar workers are highly educated, they are willing to complete the survey. On the other hand, reaching blue-collar workers was more difficult than white collar workers. For preventing this kind of

limitations, paper pencil method might be better. In addition to blue collar workers, public officers might also be included as participants for the future studies for seeing the similarities or the differences from private sectors and using these results also for the public sector.

Like the blue-collar, white-collar problem, most of the participants were working in sectors like accounting and tourism in which approximately equal number of men and women are employed. As a result of this, people get used to working with women as these women may act like a model to show that women can be successful workers and leaders and this exposure might have a positive effect on their perception about women leaders. Thus, if there were more participants who work mostly with male workers rather than female workers, this might create more unbiased results.

As the level of the managerial position was not controlled, it can also be a limitation. Because of the prejudices toward women leaders, it can be considered that, people with high level of SDO or RWA might give more harsh reactions to women in upper level management positions which in turn could have an effect on results. So, in future studies, the level of the managerial positions can also be used as a control variable.

At last, it was hard to reach people with women leaders. Unfortunately, many of the management positions are dominated by male leaders, thus, in the current study only 35.54% of people had women managers. On the other hand, women and men participants are equal approximately. Thus, this might be a strength of the study since in this way, dominance of the one gender on the results are prevented.

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APPENDICES

A. INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Gönüllü Katılım Formu

Sayın Katılımcı,

Bu çalışma, Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi, Endüstri ve Örgüt Psikolojisi Yüksek Lisans Programı öğrencisi Meltem Düzgün tarafından Yrd. Doç. Dr. Yonca Toker danışmanlığında yürütülen tez çalışması kapsamında yapılmaktadır. Çalışmanın amacı, bireyin kişiliğın süpervizörüne yönelik tutumıyla ilişkisi ve bunun da kişinin iş tatminine olan etkisini araştırmaktır.

Çalışmaya katılım tamamıyla gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır. Ankette, sizden kurum kimliğı veya kişisel kimlik belirleyici hiçbir bilgi istenmemektedir. Cevaplarınız tamamıyla gizli tutulacak ve sadece araştırmacılar tarafından değerlendirilecektir; kesinlikle hiçbir kişi yada kurumla paylaşılmayacaktır. Elde edilecek bilgiler bilimsel yayımlarda kullanılacaktır

Anket, genel olarak kişisel rahatsızlık verecek soruları içermemektedir ve tamamlanması ortalama 15 dakika sürmektedir. Ancak, katılım sırasında sorulardan ya da herhangi başka bir nedenden ötürü kendinizi rahatsız hissederseniz cevaplama işini yarıda bırakabilirsiniz. Böyle bir durumda anket linkini kapatmanız yeterli olacaktır.

Lütfen anket sorularını dikkatli okuyunuz ve yanıtız soru bırakmayınız. Araştırmanın güvenilir olabilmesi açısından soruları dikkatli ve içtenlikle cevaplamanız büyük önem taşımaktadır. Çalışmayla ilgili daha fazla bilgi almak için Meltem DÜZGÜN (e-mail: meltem.duzgun@metu.edu.tr) ile iletişim kurabilirsiniz.

Bu çalışmaya katıldığınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederiz.

Bu çalışmaya tamamen gönüllü olarak katılıyorum ve istediğim zaman yarıda kesip çıkabileceğimi biliyorum. Verdiğim bilgilerin bilimsel amaçlı yayımlarda kullanılmasını kabul ediyorum.

Evet



Hayır



B. SCALES

Right Wing Authoritarianism

Aşağıda katılabileceğiniz ya da karşı olabileceğiniz bir grup ifade verilmiştir. Lütfen okuduktan sonra her bir ifadeye katılıp katılmama düzeyinizi cümlelerin yanlarında verilen rakamlardan birini daire içine alarak belirtiniz. İlk düşündüğünüz yanıtların en uygun yanıtlar olduğunu unutmayınız.

1 = Hiç Katılmıyorum

2 = Pek Katılmıyorum

3 = Biraz Katılmıyorum

4 = Biraz Katılıyorum

5 = Oldukça Katılıyorum

6 = Tamamen Katılıyorum

1. Eşcinseller ve lezbiyenler, herhangi biri kadar sağlıklı ve ahlaklıdır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. Hiç kuşkusuz, mevcut dinsel öğretilere isyan edenler ve ateistler düzenli olarak camiye gidenler kadar iyi ve erdemlidirler.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Ülkemizi krizlerden kurtarmak için, geleneksel değerlerimize dönmek, sert liderleri iş başına getirmek ve kötü fikirleri yayanları susturmak gerekmektedir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. Çıplaklar kampının olmasında yanlış bir şey yoktur.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Birçok kişiyi tedirgin etse bile ülkemizin, geleneksel uygulamalara karşı çıkma cesareti gösterebilen özgür düşünceli bireylere ihtiyacı var.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. İnançlarımızı ve ahlaki yapımızı yiyip bitiren geleneksel olmayan değerleri zamanında yok etmezsek, günün birinde ülkemiz yıkılacak.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. Kendilerini herkesten farklı kılacak olsa bile bireyler, yaşam tarzlarını, dini inançlarını ve cinsel yönelimlerini kendileri belirlemelidir.	1	2	3	4	5	6

8. Kadınların siyasi, sosyal ve ekonomik alanlarda daha aktif rollere sahip olması, okullarda din derslerinin isteğe bağlı olması ve hayvan hakları için yeni düzenlemeler yapılmasını talep ederek mevcut yasalara ve çoğunluğun görüşlerine karşı çıkanlara hayranlık duymalısınız.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. Ülkemiz, kötülükleri yok ederek bizi doğru yola getirecek güçlü ve kararlı bir lidere ihtiyaç duymaktadır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. Ülkemizin en iyi bireyleri hükümete karşı çıkan, dini eleştiren ve doğal kabul edilen şeyleri göz ardı edebilenlerdir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. Bugün ülkemizde dini değerlerden yoksun, kendi amaçları için ülkeyi yıkmaya çalışan ve otorite tarafından mutlaka etkisizleştirilmeleri gereken radikal ve ahlaksız birçok kişi var.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. Kadının yeri, nerede olmak istiyorsa orasıdır. Kadının kocasına ve toplumsal geleneklere itaat etmek zorunda kaldığı günler artık geçmişte kalmıştır.	1		3	4	5	6
13. Atalarımızın yaptıklarıyla onur duyarsak, otoritenin yapmamızı istediklerini yaparsak ve her şeyi berbat eden çürük elmaları ayıklarsak ülkemiz müthiş olur.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. Feministler ve homoseksüeller, geleneksel aile değerlerine karşı koyabilecek kadar cesur oldukları için takdir edilmelidirler.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. Bu ülkede işler, sorun çıkarıcı gruplar seslerini keser ve kendi gruplarının toplumdaki geleneksel yerini kabullenirlerse, biraz daha iyiye gidecektir.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Social Dominance Orientation Scale

Aşağıda, toplumda bulunabilecek her türlü gruba (dini, siyasi etnik vb.) yönelik bazı ifadeler verilmiştir. Bu ifadelerin doğru veya yanlış cevabı yoktur. Lütfen, her bir ifadeye katılma düzeyinizi her cümlenin yanında verilen 1'den 6'ya kadar derecelendirilmiş ölçek (1 = Hiç Katılmıyorum; 6 = Tamamen Katılıyorum) üzerinde daire içine alarak belirtiniz. Lütfen ölçekte bulunan **tüm ifadeleri** değerlendiriniz.

1 = Hiç Katılmıyorum

2 = Pek Katılmıyorum

3 = Biraz Katılmıyorum

4 = Biraz Katılıyorum

5 = Oldukça Katılıyorum

6 = Tamamen Katılıyorum

1. Bütün gruplara yaşamda eşit şans verilmelidir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. Eğer belirli gruplar yerlerinde dursalardı daha az sorunumuz olurdu.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Belirli grupların en üstte, diğer grupların en altta olması belki iyi bir şeydir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. Sosyal eşitlik toplumsal hedefimiz olmalıdır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Bazen diğer gruplar oldukları yerde tutulmalıdırlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. Farklı grupların koşullarını eşitlemek için elimizden geleni yapmalıyız.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. Düşük statülü gruplar yerlerinde kalmalıdırlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. Farklı gruplara eşit davransaydık, şimdi daha az sorunumuz olurdu.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. Yaşamda ilerlemek için bazen başka grupları çiğneyip geçmek gereklidir.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Organizational Comittment Scale

Aşağıdaki ifadeler, kişilerin çalıştıkları kurumlar hakkında çeşitli duygu ve düşüncelerini yansıtmaktadır. Aşağıda sunulan 8 ifadeye şu anda çalıştığınız kurum açısından ne ölçüde katıldığınızı verilen ölçek üzerinde uygun rakamı daire içine alarak belirtiniz.

1 = Hiç Katılmıyorum

2 = Pek Katılmıyorum

3 = Biraz Katılmıyorum

4 = Biraz Katılıyorum

5 = Oldukça Katılıyorum

6 = Tamamen Katılıyorum

1. Bu işletmenin sorunlarını kendi sorunlarım gibi hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. Bu işletmeye karşı güçlü bir ait olma hissim var.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Bu işletmeye kendimi duygusal olarak bağlı hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. Bu işletmenin benim için çok özel bir anlamı var.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Kendimi bu işletmede ailenin bir parçası gibi hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. Bu işletmedeki işimi kendi özel işim gibi hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. Bu işletmenin bir çalışanı olmanın gurur verici olduğunu düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. Bu işletmenin amaçlarını benimsiyorum.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Job Satisfaction Scale

Aşağıdaki sorular **İŞİNİZ** ile ilgili neler düşündüğünüz hakkındadır. İşiniz **ÇOĞU ZAMAN** nasıldır? Lütfen her madde için, verilmiş olan sıfatın **İŞİNİZİ** ne ölçüde tanımladığını, aşağıda verilen 6li ölçeğe göre belirtiniz.

1= Hiç tanımlamıyor

2= Pek tanımlamıyor

3 = Biraz tanımlamıyor

4= Biraz tanımlıyor

5=Oldukça tanımlıyor

6= Çok iyi tanımlıyor

HARİKA	1	2	3	4	5	6
TATMİN KAR	1	2	3	4	5	6
SIKICI	1	2	3	4	5	6
YARATICI	1	2	3	4	5	6
İDDİALI	1	2	3	4	5	6
BAŞARI HİSSİ VEREN	1	2	3	4	5	6
ZEVK KAYNAĞI	1	2	3	4	5	6
DURGUN	1	2	3	4	5	6
İLGİNÇ	1	2	3	4	5	6

Leadership Style Scale

Birazdan okuyacağınız ifadeler, yöneticilerde gözlemlenebilecek yönlerle ilgilidir. Lütfen cümleleri dikkatlice okuyarak söz konusu ifadenin sizin yöneticinizi ne derece yansıttığını 6-noktalı derecelendirme ölçeğini kullanarak belirtiniz.

1 = Hiç Katılmıyorum

2 = Pek Katılmıyorum

3 = Biraz Katılmıyorum

4 = Biraz Katılıyorum

5 = Oldukça Katılıyorum

6 = Tamamen Katılıyorum

Yöneticim:						
1. Beni bir görev için motive etmeye çalışırken, görevle ilgili içsel motivasyonumu yükseltmeye çabalar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. Ben ve takım arkadaşlarımın yetkinliklerini, işle ilgili kişisel ilgi ve ihtiyaçlarını ve her birimizi nasıl motive edeceğini bilir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Bana yaptığım işin değerli ve işe yarar olduğunu hissettirir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. İşleri planlar ve yürütürken bizi de fikir üretmemiz için teşvik eder ve önerilerimizi dinler.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. İşyerinde kendimi aile ortamında gibi hissettirir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. Yaptıklarımın kısa veya uzun vadede firmaya sağlayacağı katkılar konusunda beni bilgilendirir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. Düşüncelerimi özgürce ifade edebilmem için beni teşvik eder.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. Beni varsayılanı sorgulamaya, yeni çözüm yolları üretmeye teşvik eder; yaratıcılığımı destekler.	1	2	3	4	5	6

9. Eksik veya gelişime açık yönlerim için eğitimler planlar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. Beni bir çalışan olmanın dışında bir insan olarak da önemser.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. Görev dağılımı yaparken, kişisel ilgilerimizi veyeteneklerimizi de göz önünde bulundurur.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. İhtiyaç duyduğumda iş dışı özel problemlerim için bana yardım eder.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. İstersem iş dışı konularda da benimle konuşur.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. Davet etmem halinde özel hayatımdaki önemli sosyal etkinliklere katılır (düğün, doğum günü)	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. Olası herhangi bir hatamı tespit etmek ve gerekirse müdahalede bulunmak adına sıklıkla davranışlarımı gözler ve kontrol eder.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. Bana herhangi bir işi yaptırmak için tehdit kullandığı olur.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. İsteddiği bir işi yapamadığımda bana çeşitli yollarla yaptırım uygular.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. Bana bir görev verdikten sonra, hata yapmamı önlemek için talimat vermeye devam eder.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. Ancak istediği işi, istediği şekilde tamamlamama bağlı olarak beni ödüllendirir.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. Ancak verdiğim kadarını alabileceğimi hissettirir; ilişkimiz bir çeşit ticarete benzer.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Leader Satisfaction Scale

Lider pozisyonundaki kişiler, çalışanlarına karşı, işle ilgili ve iş dışı konularda farklı tarzlar benimseyebilmektedir. Aşağıdaki maddeleri okurken beraber çalıştığınız liderin tarzını düşününüz ve liderinizin tarzından ne derece memnun olduğunuzu 6 noktalı derecelendirme ölçeğinde belirtiniz. Örneğin, birinci maddede belirtilen “işle ilgili sorunları çözme şekli” farklı liderler tarafından farklı şekillerde ele alınabilmektedir. Siz her bir madde için kendi liderinizin tarzını düşünerek, var olan şekilden memnuniyetinizi belirtiniz.

1 = Hiç Memnun Değilim

2 = Memnun Değilim

3 = Pek Memnun Değilim

4 = Biraz Memnunum

5 = Memnunum

6 = Çok Memnunum

LİDERİMİN;

1. İşle ilgili sorunları çözme şeklinden	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. İşle ilgili konularda karar verme şeklinden	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Çalışanlar arasındaki adaleti sağlama şeklinden	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. Çalışanların iş dışı sorunlara dahil olma şeklinden	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Yeni ve farklı görüşlere yaklaşım şeklinden	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. Yapılan işlere geri bildirim verme tarzından	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. Yapılan hatalara karşı gösterdiği genel tavrından	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. Çalışanlarla iletişim kurma şeklinden	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. Çalışanları yapılacak görevlere yönlendirme şeklinden	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. İşte var olan değişimleri ve gelişmeleri çalışanlara iletme şeklinden	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. Gerek iş performansım, gerek bilgi, beceri ve yeterliliklerim, gerekse kişiliğimle ilgili negatif ve pozitif yönlerimi değerlendirme şeklinden	1	2	3	4	5	6

12. Çalışanların fikirlerine başvurma sıklığından	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. Çalışanların gelişimini destekleme şeklinden	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. Çalışanları ile kurduğu yakınlık/mesafe seviyesinden	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. Çalışanları gözlemleme/denetleme şeklinden	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. İyi performans gösteren çalışanlarını motive etme şeklinden	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. İşyerinde yarattığı genel çalışma ortamından	1	2	3	4	5	6

Trust in Leader

Lütfen doğrudan bağlı bulunduğunuz yöneticinizin aşağıdaki ifadelerde yer alan davranışları ne ölçüde sergilediğini aşağıdaki 6 basamaklı ölçeği kullanarak değerlendiriniz. Her bir davranışı ayrı olarak düşününüz ve yöneticiniz hakkındaki genel görüşlerinizin, belirtilen davranış konusundaki değerlendirmelerinizi yanıltmasına izin vermeyin.

1 = Hiç Katılmıyorum

2 = Pek Katılmıyorum

3 = Biraz Katılmıyorum

4 = Biraz Katılıyorum

5 = Oldukça Katılıyorum

6 = Tamamen Katılıyorum

DOĞRUDAN BAĞLI OLDUĞUM YÖNETİCİMİN;

1.Beni başarılı olduğum zaman ödüllendireceğini bilirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.İşimi sadece çalışma performansıma bağlı değerlendireceğini bilirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.İş konusunda haklı olduğumda beni koruyacağını bilirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.Konumunu hakettiğine inanırım.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.Söyledikleri ve yaptıkları birebir örtüşür.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.Otoritesinden rahatsızlık duyarım.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.Bilgisinin eksik kaldığı konular vardır.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.Talep ve önerilerine güvenirim.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Demographic Information

Demografik Bilgi

Cinsiyetiniz Kadın_ Erkek_

Doğum tarihiniz: Ay / Yıl

Çalıştığınız Sektör:

Ajans-Fuar-Organizasyon__ Akademi-Yüksek Öğretim_ Araştırma_ Bankacılık_

Basın-Yayın/Matbaa_ Bilişim_ Cam ve Seramik_ Çağrı Merkezi_ Danışmanlık_

Dayanıklı Tüketim_ Demir-Çelik_ Denetim_ Denizcilik ile ilgili Üretim& Hizmetler_

Eğitim_ Eğlence-Sanat_ Elektrik-Elektronik_ Enerji_ Finansal Hizmet_

Gayrimenkul_ Gıda_ Güvenlik/Koruma Hizmetleri_ Kimya/Kimyasal Ürünler_

Kozmetik_ Lojistik/Taşımacılık_ Madencilik_ Mağazacılık_

Medya/Televizyon/Radyo/Film_ Mimarlık/Dizayn_ Mobilya_ Mühendislik Hizmetleri_

Otomasyon_ Otomotiv_ Perakendecilik/Toptancılık_ Petrol ve Ürünleri_

Reklam ve Tanıtım_ Sağlık/Hastane_ Savunma Sanayii_ Sigorta_ Silahlı Kuvvetler_

Sivil Toplum Kuruluşları_ Spor_ Tekstil_ Telekomünikasyon_ Tıbbi Malzeme_

Turizm/Otelcilik_ Üretim/İmalat_ Yapı/İnşaat_ Ziraat/Hayvancılık_

Toplam İş Deneyimi Süreniz:

Bulduğunuz Şirketteki İş Deneyimi Süreniz:

Şu anki Süpervizörünüzle Beraber Çalışma Süreniz:

Süpervizörünüzün Cinsiyeti: Kadın_ Erkek_

Aylık Ekonomik Geliriniz:

Çalıştığınız kurumdaki kadın-erkek oranı:

- 1 = Kadınlar erkeklerden çok daha fazla
- 2 = Kadınlar erkeklerden biraz daha fazla
- 3 = Kadın ve erkek sayıları eşdeğer görünüyor diyebilirim
- 4 = Erkekler kadınlardan biraz daha fazla
- 5 = Erkekler kadınlardan çok daha fazla

C. DEBRIEFING FORM

Katılım Sonrası Bilgilendirme Formu

Değerli Katılımcı,

Öncelikle araştırmamıza katıldığınız için teşekkür ederiz.

Bu araştırma, daha önce de belirtildiği gibi, Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi, Endüstri ve Örgüt Psikolojisi Yüksek Lisans Programı öğrencisi Meltem Düzgün tarafından Yrd. Doç. Dr. Yonca Toker danışmanlığında yürütülen tez çalışması kapsamında yapılmaktadır. Araştırmanın amacı, Sağ Kanat Yetkenciliği ve Sosyal Baskınlık yönelimi olarak bilinen iki kişilik özelliğinin kadın liderlere karşı bakış açısını nasıl etkilediğini görmek ve bunun sonucunun da kişinin işten aldığı tatmin ve liderine karşı güvenine etki edip etmediğini araştırmaktır.

Dönüşümcü ve etkileşimci liderlik olmak üzere iki tür liderlik vardır. Bu liderlik tarzlarının tanımları nedeniyle dönüşümcü liderlik kadınların liderlik tarzı olarak görülmekte, etkileşimci liderlik erkeklerin liderlik tarzı olarak görülmektedir. Yapılan bir çok araştırmada, kadınların dönüşümcü liderlik yerine etkileşimci liderlik özelliklerini gösterdiklerinde önyargıya maruz kaldıkları bulunmuştur. Diğer taraftan, Altemeyer'e (1998) göre önyargıyla güçlü ilişki gösteren iki kişilik türü vardır ve bunlar sağ kanat yetkenciliği (SKY) ve sosyal baskınlık yönelimidir (SBY). Altemeyer (1998), bu kişilik özelliklerinin kadınlara yönelik önyargılar da dahil olmak üzere birçok önyargının nedeni olduğunu belirtmiştir. Dolayısıyla, yüksek SKY ve SBY düzeyine sahip kişilerin etkileşimci liderliği benimseyen kadınlara daha fazla önyargı göstereceği ve bunun sonucunda da hem SKY hem de SBY düzeyi yüksek olan çalışanların iş doyumunun ve yöneticilerine yönelik güvenlerinin düşük olacağı öngörülmektedir ve bu çalışmada bunun gerçekten böyle olup olmadığı araştırılmaktadır.

Araştırmada sizin yukarıda bahsedilen kişilik özelliklerine ne kadar sahip olduğunuzu görmek ve bunun sonucunda da kadınlara ve kadın liderlere karşı tutumunuzu ölçmek için bazı anketler verilmiştir. Bunun yanında iş tatmininizi ve yöneticinize ne kadar güvendiğinizi ölçen anketler de bulunmaktadır.

Bu çalışmadan alınacak ilk verilerin 2017 yılı ortalarında elde edilmesi amaçlanmaktadır. Elde edilen bilgiler sadece bilimsel araştırma ve yazılarda kullanılacaktır. Çalışmanın sağlıklı ilerleyebilmesi ve bulguların güvenilir olması için çalışmaya katılacağınızı bildiğiniz diğer kişilerle çalışma ile ilgili detaylı bilgi paylaşımında bulunmamanızı dileriz. Bu araştırmaya katıldığınız için tekrar çok teşekkür ederiz.

Araştırmanın sonuçlarını öğrenmek ya da daha fazla bilgi almak için Meltem Düzgün'e (e-mail: meltem.duzgun@metu.edu.tr) başvurabilirsiniz.

D. ETHICS COMMITTEE APPROVAL

UYGULAMALI ETİK ARAŞTIRMA MERKEZİ
APPLIED ETHICS RESEARCH CENTER



ORTA DOĞU TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ
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Sayı: 28620816/253

05 Mayıs 2017

Konu: Değerlendirme Sonucu

Gönderen: ODTÜ İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu (İAEK)

İlgi: İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu Başvurusu

Sayın Yrd. Doç. Dr. Yonca TOKER ;

Danışmanlığını yaptığımız yüksek lisans öğrencisi Meltem DÜZGÜN' ün "*Önyargı ve İş Tatmini: Kişilik Kadın Liderlere Karşı Önyargıyı ve Çalışanların İş Tatminini Nasıl Etkiler*" başlıklı araştırması İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu tarafından uygun görülerek gerekli onay **2017-SOS-080** protokol numarası ile **05.05.2017 – 30.08.2017** tarihleri arasında geçerli olmak üzere verilmiştir.

Bilgilerinize saygılarımla sunarım.

Prof. Dr. Ş. Halil TURAN

Başkan V

Prof. Dr. Ayhan SOL

Üye

Prof. Dr. Ayhan Gürbüz DEMİR

Üye

Doç. Dr. Vaşar KONDAKÇI

Üye

Doç. Dr. Zana ÇITAK

Üye

Yrd. Doç. Dr. Pınar KAYGAN

Üye

Yrd. Doç. Dr. Emre SELÇUK

Üye

E. TURKISH SUMMARY/ TÜRKÇE ÖZET

GİRİŞ

1.1. Genel Bakış

Liderlik pozisyonları, kadınların önyargılara maruz kaldıkları iş pozisyonlarından biridir. Liderler toplumsal cinsiyet rollerine uygun davranmadıkları için önyargıya maruz kalabilmekte (Eagly ve Johannesen- Schmidt, 2001; Eagly ve Karau, 2002) bu da çalışanlar için başka olumsuz sonuçlara neden olabilmektedir.

Altemeyer (1998), Sağ Kanat Yetkeçiliği (SKY) ve Sosyal Baskınlık Yönelimi (SBY) adlı iki kişilik özelliğinin, kadınlara yönelik önyargıları da içeren birçok önyargının sebebi olduğunu belirtmiştir. Kadın ve erkek liderlerle ilgili mevcut klişeler de göz önüne alındığında, yüksek düzeyde SKY ve SBY'e sahip kişilerin, rol uyumsuz liderlik stilleri benimseyen insanlara daha fazla önyargı göstermeleri beklenebilir. Buna bağlı olarak, SKY ve SBY'nin, lider memnuniyeti, lidere güvenme, iş tatmini ve örgütsel bağlılığı öngörmede, kadın / erkek liderlerden algılanan liderlik tarzı ile etkileşime girmesi ve daha önyargılı kişilikleri olan kişilerin, uyumsuz liderlik tarzında bir liderleri varsa, daha az tatmin edici sonuçlara sahip olması beklenmektedir. Bu beklentinin altında yatan mantık, cinsiyet rolü uygunluk teorisi, önyargılı kişilikler ve dönüşümcü ve işlemsel liderlik stillerinin özellikleri üzerine kuruludur.

1.2. İş Gücü Katılımı ve Cinsiyet Eşitsizliği

Geleneksel yapının yarattığı önyargılar, kadını ev işleri yapıp çocuk yetiştiren, erkeklerinse eve ekmek getiren kişi olmasını dikte ederek çalışan kadınların uzun süre olumsuz etkilenmelerine neden olmuşlardır. Çoğu ülkede kadınların iş gücüne katılımının az olmasının yanı sıra (Eagly ve Carli, 2007; Türkiye İstatistik Kurumu, 2015), liderlik pozisyonlarında da kadın sayısının azlığı dikkat çekicidir. Bunun yanında kadınlar benimsemiş oldukları liderlik tarzından dolayı da önyargılara maruz kalmaktadırlar. Rol uyum teorisine göre, cinsiyet rolleri ile liderlik rolleri arasında bir eşleşme olmadığı zaman, bu tutarsızlığı gösteren insanlara karşı önyargı gösterilmektedir (Eagly ve Karau, 2002) ve bu iki nedene dayandırılmaktadır. İlk neden, liderlik rollerinin çoğunlukla daha kendi kendini yönetebilen ve daha az toplumsal olarak tanımlanmasıdır. Bu da, liderlik rolleri daha maskülen görüldüğü

için, kadınlar yerine erkeklerin lider olması gerektiği önyargısını oluşturur. İkinci neden ise, liderlik rollerinin erkek cinsiyet rolleriyle uyuşması sebebiyle, kadınların lider olması kendi cinsiyet rolleriyle uyumsuzluk yaratacağından önyargıya neden olmasıdır. Benzer olarak, erkek liderler de feminen olarak tanımlanan bir liderlik rolü üstlendiklerinde bu olumsuz değerlendirmelerden zarar görebilmektedir (Eagly ve Karau, 2002). Buna bağlı olarak, Johnson, Murphy, Zewdie ve Reichard (2008), kadın liderlerin kendilerini hassas, erkek liderlerinse güçlü göstermedikleri durumlarda olumsuz değerlendirmelere maruz kadıklarının belirtmiş, Offerman, Kennedy ve Wirtz'in (1994) toplumdaki lider prototiplerine uygun olarak kadınların olumsuz değerlendirmelere maruz kalmamak için kendilerini güçlü göstermeleri de gerektiği bulgusunu da vurgulamışlardır.

Kadınlar daha çok toplumun dayattığı toplumsal cinsiyet rolleriyle de uyuşan dönüşümcü liderlik tarzını gösterme eğilimindedir (Eagly ve Johannesen-Schmit, 2001), ama işlemsel liderlik tarzını da benimseyebilirler. Ancak, işlemsel liderlerin özellikleri kadınların cinsiyet klişeleriyle uyuşmadığından, önyargılara maruz kalabilmektedirler. Bununla ilgili olarak, Eagly ve Karau (2002), etkili liderlik özellikleri sergileyen kadın liderlerin, kendi kendini yöneten nitelikler göstermesi ve kadın rollerine uygun davranmamasından dolayı, özellikle geleneksel cinsiyet rollerini destekleyen insanlar tarafından olumsuz değerlendirilebileceğini belirtmiştir. Benzer olarak, erkek liderler de normları ihlal edip hassas davrandıklarında, güçlü davranan erkek lidere kıyasla daha olumsuz değerlendirilebilmektedir (Johnson ve ark. 2008). Bu nedenle, normları ihlal edip toplumsal cinsiyet rollerine uyumsuz davranmanın hem kadınlar hem de erkekler için problemli olduğu söylenebilir.

Tüm bu bilgilerden, cinsiyet rolü tutarsızlığının neden olduğu önyargının haksız durumlara yol açtığı sonucuna varılabilir. Bu nedenle sorunu açıkça anlamak için önyargıyı ve bunun temelini oluşturan mekanizmaları anlamak önemlidir. Çünkü olumsuz önyargının varlığı, uygunsuz ve / veya haksız doğası nedeniyle sorunludur. Dolayısıyla, önyargı nedenlerinin ne olduğu çeşitli açılardan araştırılmıştır.

1.3. Kişilik ve Önyargı

Altemeyer'e (1998) göre, SKY ve SBY kişilik boyutlarının önyargıyla güçlü ilişkileri vardır ve literatür incelendiğinde, yüksek SKY veya SBY'li kişilerin farklı sosyal gruplara karşı önyargılı olduklarını gösteren birçok örnek bulunabilir (Duckitt

ve Farre, 1994; ; Hiel ve Mervielde, 2005; Hodson ve Costello, 2007; Jost ve Thompson, 2000; Pratto ve ark., 1994; Sidanius ve Liu, 1992; Stones, 2006; Whitley 1999;). Bu bulgular bizi, yüksek SKY ve SBY'li bir birey bir gruba karşı önyargılıysa, bu kişinin farklı dış gruplara karşı önyargı gösterme eğiliminde olduğu bulgusuna yönlendirir.

Christopher ve Wodja'ya (2008) göre, yüksek SBY'li kişiler, erkeklerin kadınlardan daha üstün olduğuna, kadınların erkek tipi istihdam ortamlarında başarılı olamayacaklarına inanmaktadırlar. Bu nedenle, yüksek SBY'li kişilerin, kadın yöneticilere karşı daha olumsuz tutumlar gösterirken erkek yöneticilere karşı kadın yöneticilere kıyasla daha olumlu tutumlar gösterdiklerini öğrenmek şaşırtıcı olmayacaktır (Emeksizoğlu, 2016). SBY'nin aksine, yüksek SKY'li insanlar kadınların yeteneklerinin olmadığını düşünmekte ancak, kadınların daha iyi olacağı bazı rollerin olduğuna inanmaktadırlar, ki bu roller kadınların eş ya da anne gibi geleneksel rollerde davrandığı rollerdir (Christopher ve Wodja, 2008).

Asbrock, Sibley ve Duckitt (2009), yüksek SKY'li kişilerin, sosyal düzeni, istikrarı ve güvenliği tehdit eden dış gruplara karşı önyargılı olduklarını; öte yandan, yüksek SBY'li insanlar, sosyal olarak altta ve statü ve güç açısından düşük olduğunu düşündüğü dış gruplara karşı önyargılı olduklarını belirtmektedir. Bu da rol uyumsuz davranan liderleri grup dışı olarak görüp onlara önyargı gösterme olasılıkları olduğunu göstermektedir. Ayrıca, geleneksel rol tercihlerinden ötürü, SBY veya SKY'leri daha yüksek olan kişiler, toplumdaki cinsiyet klişelerine uygun davranmadıkları için uyumsuz liderlik tarzı olan kadın ve erkek liderlere karşı daha fazla önyargı gösterebilirler. Bu bulgular ışığında, bu çalışmada, hem SKY hem de SBY ile uyumsuz liderlik stili gösteren liderlere karşı önyargı arasındaki ilişki incelenmiştir.

1.4. Lidere Güven

Kurumlar için, çalışanlar üzerindeki olumlu etkileri nedeniyle lidere güven önemli olduğundan, liderlik tarzları ve güven ile ilişkilerine dikkat edilmelidir. Gillespie ve Mann (2004), ekip üyeleri arasında paylaşılan ortak değerlerle lidere güven arasında güçlü bir ilişki olduğunu bulmuşlardır. Buna bağlı olarak, cinsiyet rollerine uyumsuz davranan lider, gelenekselliği ihlal edeceği için, bu liderlerle çalışanlar arasında paylaşılan ortak değerler azalabilir. Dolayısıyla lidere güvenin olumsuz etkilenmesi, bundan da en çok SBY ve SKY'si yüksek olan kişilerin

etkilenmesi muhtemeldir. SKY ve SBY'si yüksek olan kişilerin cinsiyet rollerine uyumlu davranan liderlere yüksek düzeyde güven göstermeleri beklenirken, cinsiyet rollerine uyumsuz davranan lidere düşük seviyede güven göstermeleri öngörülmektedir.

1.5. İş ve Lider Memnuniyeti

Kurumlar için yüksek iş tatmini ve lider memnuniyetinin olumlu etkileri olduğunda, her ikisine de önem verilmektedir. Bushra, Usman ve Naveed'e (2011) göre, yüksek düzeyde dönüşümcü liderlik yüksek iş memnuniyetiyle ilişkilidir. Bu bulgulara ek olarak, Voon, Lo, Ngui ve Ayob (2011), iş tatmininin dönüşümcü liderlikle pozitif bir ilişki kurarken, işlemsel liderlikle ilişkisinin negatif olduğunu tespit etmiştir.

Quaquebeke, Kerschreiter, Buxton ve Dick (2009)'a göre, çalışanların lider için ideal değerleri ile liderin kendisi arasında bir eşleşme olduğu zaman, çalışanın lider memnuniyeti artar ($r = .66$). Buna bağlı olarak, cinsiyet rollerine uyumsuz davranan liderlere sahip olmak, çalışanların lider için ideal değerleriyle lider arasında uyumsuzluğa sebep olacağından, çalışanların lider tatmininin düşmesine neden olabilir. Bu da, özellikle SKY veya SBY'si yüksek olan kişilerin, daha az memnuniyet göstermelerine ve iş tatmininin düşmesine neden olabilir, çünkü değer ve toplumsal klişelerin ihlalleri bu kişilerin önyargı göstermesine neden olur.

1.6. Örgütsel bağlılık

Örgütsel bağlılık, çalışanlar üzerindeki etkisinden dolayı kurumun önem verdiği alanlardan biridir. Yüksek örgütsel bağlılık gösteren çalışanlar, ileri düzeyde performans gösterme konusunda yüksek motivasyona sahiplerdir, ayrıca işten ayrılma eğilimi ve işe devamsızlık eğilimleri azdır (Bushra ve ark., 2011).

Araştırmalara göre, dönüşümcü liderler işlemsel liderlerden daha fazla örgütsel bağlılık sağlamaktadır (Avolio, Zhu, Koh, ve Bhatia, 2004; $r = .40$, Bushra ve diğerleri, 2011; Erkutlu, 2008; Lo, Ramayah ve Min, 2009; Raja ve Palanichamy, 2011; Thamrin, 2012; Walumbwa, Orwa, Wang, ve Lawler, 2005). Diğer taraftan, işlemsel liderlik stiline sahip kadın liderler ve dönüşümcü liderlik stiline sahip erkek liderlerin cinsiyet rolleriyle uyumlu liderlik göstermedikleri için yüksek SKY ve SBY'li kişilerde önyargıya sebep olacağı ve bunun da örgütsel bağlılığı düşüreceği

öngörülmektedir. Liderlere yönelik cinsiyet klişelerinin, aynı zamanda çalışanların iş tatmini, lider tatmini, güven ve örgütsel bağlılığını da etkileyeceği önerilmektedir.

1.7. Hipotezler

Aşağıdaki hipotezler yukarıda belirtilen tartışmalara dayanarak oluşturulmuştur. Tüm hipotezlerde algılanan liderlik tarzının önyargılı kişilik ile iş / lider tutumları arasındaki ilişkide moderatör değişken olması beklenmektedir.

H1) SKY ve ya **H2)** SBY ile a) iş tatmini, b) liderden memnuniyet, c) lidere güven ve d) örgütsel bağlılık arasındaki ilişki, kadın liderlerin daha az dönüşümcü algılanmaları (rol uyumsuz) yerine daha dönüşümcü (rol uyumlu) algılanmaları durumunda pozitif ve daha güçlü olacaktır.

H3) SKY ve ya **H4)** SBY ile a) iş tatmini, b) liderden memnuniyet, c) lidere güven ve d) örgütsel bağlılık arasındaki ilişki, kadın liderlerin daha az işlemsel algılanmaları yerine daha işlemsel (rol uyumsuz) algılanmaları durumunda negatif ve daha güçlü olacaktır.

H5) SKY ve ya **H6)** SBY ile a) iş tatmini, b) liderden memnuniyet, c) lidere güven ve d) örgütsel bağlılık arasındaki ilişki, erkek liderlerin daha az dönüşümcü algılanmaları (rol uyumlu) yerine daha dönüşümcü (rol uyumsuz) algılanmaları durumunda negatif ve daha güçlü olacaktır.

H7) SKY ve ya **H8)** SBY ile a) iş tatmini, b) liderden memnuniyet, c) lidere güven ve d) örgütsel bağlılık arasındaki ilişki, erkek liderlerin daha az işlemsel algılanmaları yerine daha işlemsel (rol uyumlu) algılanmaları durumunda pozitif ve daha güçlü olacaktır.

YÖNTEM

2.1. Katılımcılar

Türkiye'nin çeşitli illerindeki 332 özel sektör çalışanından veri toplanmıştır. Katılımcılar 36 farklı sektörde çalışmakta olup bir çoğu turizm sektöründe çalışmaktadır. 37 kişinin yaş aralığı 18-24, 188 kişinin yaş aralığı 25-34, 68 kişinin yaş aralığı 35-44, 26 kişinin ise yaş aralığı 45 ila 54 arasında değişmekte olup, 14 kişinin yaşı 55'in üzerindedir. Katılımcıların ortalama toplam iş tecrübesi 106.80 ay (SS = 164.63 ay) ve mevcut iş yerlerinde ortalama iş tecrübesi 54.11 ay (SS = 69.61 ay) olup, mevcut yöneticileriyle olan ortalama iş deneyimi 32.33 (SS = 39.52) aydır.

Katılımcıların, yöneticileriyle olan ortalama iletişim süresi haftada 16.5 saattir (SS = 19.09).

2.2 Araçlar

2.2.1. Sağ Kanat Yetkenciliği Ölçeği

Sağ Kanat Yetkenciliği'ni ölçmek için, Altemeyer (1996) tarafından geliştirilen ve Güldü (2011) tarafından Türkçe'ye uyarlanan SKY ölçeği kullanılmıştır. Ölçek maddelerinin iç tutarlılığı .85 ile .94 arasında değişmektedir (Fodor, Wick, Hartsen ve Preve, 2007). Bu çalışmada ölçeğin Cronbach Alfa değeri .88 olarak bulunmuştur.

2.2.2. Sosyal Baskınlık Yönelimi Ölçeği

Sosyal baskınlık yönelimini ölçmek için, Sidanius ve Pratto (1999) tarafından geliştirilen ve Karaçanta (2002) tarafından uyarlanan SBY Ölçeği kullanılmıştır. Ölçeğin uyarlanmış versiyonu için Cronbach alpha .85, bu çalışmada ise .84 olarak bulunmuştur.

2.2.3. Dönüşümcü ve Etkileşimci Liderlik Stili Ölçeği

Katılımcıların liderlerinin liderlik tarzını değerlendirmek için Dönüşümcü Liderlik Ölçeği (Dönmez, 2014; Dönmez ve Toker, 2017) kullanılmıştır. Ölçeğin Dönüşümcü Liderlik kısmının Cronbach alfa'sı .96, işlemsel liderlik kısmınınsa Cronbach alfası .66 olarak belirtilmiştir. Bu çalışmada dönüşümcü liderlik Cronbach alfa .96, işlemsel liderlik ise Cronbach Alfa .68 bulunmuştur.

2.2.4. İş Tatmini Ölçeği

İş tatmini, Smith, Kendall ve Hulin (1969) tarafından geliştirilen, Ergin (1997) tarafından Türkçe'ye uyarlanan İş Memnuniyeti Endeksi ile ölçülmüştür. Uyarlanmış versiyonunun Cronbach Alpha'sı .92, test-tekrar test güvenilirliği .84 olarak bildirilmiştir (Ergin, 1997). Bu çalışmada Cronbach Alpha .90 olarak bulunmuştur.

2.2.5. Lider Tatmini Ölçeği

Lider memnuniyetinin ölçülmesinde Lider Memnuniyet Ölçeği (Demircioğlu ve Toker, 2016) kullanılmıştır. Ölçeğin iç tutarlılık güvenilirliği .97 olarak belirtilmiştir. Bu çalışmada Cronbach Alpha .97 olarak bulunmuştur.

2.2.6. Örgütsel Bağlılık Ölçeği

Örgütsel Bağlılık, Allen ve Meyer (1990) tarafından geliştirilen ve Wasti (2000) tarafından Türkçe'ye uyarlanan Örgütsel Bağlılık Ölçeği ile ölçülmüştür. Ölçek üç farklı bölüme sahip olsa da, ölçeğin sadece Cronbach Alpha'sı .87 olarak belirtilen

Duygusal Bağlılık boyutu kullanılmıştır. Bu çalışmada Cronbach Alpha .94 olarak bulunmuştur.

2.2.7. Yöneticiye Güven Ölçeği

Yöneticiye güveni ölçmek için Inelman (2006) tarafından geliştirilen ve Göncü, Aycan ve Johnson (2009) tarafından Türkçe'ye uyarlanan Süpervizör Güven Ölçeği kullanılmıştır. Uyarlama ölçeğin güvenilirliği .83 olarak belirtilmiştir (Göncü, 2011). Bu çalışmada Cronbach Alpha .87 olarak bulunmuştur.

2.2.8. Demografik Bilgi

Katılımcılara Cinsiyet, yaş, sektör, toplam iş tecrübesi, mevcut organizasyondaki toplam iş tecrübesi, mevcut yöneticiyle toplam iş tecrübesi, yöneticinin cinsiyeti, aylık gelir, organizasyondaki kadın erkek işçilerin oranı, katılımcıların yöneticileriyle ortalama iletişim süreleri ve mavi yakalı mı yoksa beyaz yakalı işçi mi oldukları bilgileri sorulmuştur.

2.3. Prosedür

Etik onayı, Üniversite İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu'ndan alınmıştır. Tüm anketler MetuQualtrics üzerinden internet bağlantısıyla katılımcılara gönderilmiştir. Bağlantının dağıtılmasında sosyal medya siteleri kullanılmıştır. Katılımcılar önce bilgilendirilmiş onam formunu okumuş ve çalışmaya gönüllü olarak katıldıklarını onaylamışlardır. Sonda sunulan demografik bilgiler bölümü dışında tüm ölçekler katılımcılara rastgele dağıtılmıştır. Anket sonunda, anketle ilgili bilgilerin bir kısmının onay formunda belirtilmemesi nedeniyle bilgilendirme sağlanmıştır.

SONUÇLAR

3.1. Tanımlayıcı İstatistikler

Katılımcıların ve liderlerin cinsiyetinin ve aynı zamanda ikisinin etkileşiminin, a) iş tatmini, b) örgütsel bağlılık, c) lider memnuniyeti ve d) lidere duyulan güven üzerindeki etkilerini karşılaştırmak için, iki yönlü çok değişkenli bir varyans analizi (MANOVA) yapılmıştır. Sonuçlar, gruplar arasında katılımcı cinsiyeti ($\lambda = .98$, $F(4, 323) = 1.43$, $p = .23$), liderin cinsiyeti ($\lambda = .98$, $F(4, 323) = 1.93$, $p = .11$) veya katılımcı cinsiyeti ve liderin cinsiyeti etkileşimi ($\lambda = .99$, $F(4, 323) = .93$, $p = .45$) için farklılık olmadığını göstermiştir.

3.2. Hipotezler

Hipotez 1'in analiz sonuçlarına göre, kadın liderlerden algılanan dönüşümcü liderliğin temel etkisinin iş doyumu ($b = .56, SE = .08, p < .001, \% 95 CI = .41, .72$), lider memnuniyeti ($b = .85, SE = .05, p < .001, \% 95 CI = .76, .95$), örgütsel bağlılık ($b = .74, SE = .09, p < .001, \% 95 CI = .57, .91$) ve yöneticiye güven ($b = .66, SE = .06, p < .001, \% 95 CI = .53, .78$) üzerinde anlamlı etkisi vardır. Analizlerin hiçbirinde moderatör etkisi bulunmamıştır. Dolayısıyla, hipotez 1 desteklenmemiştir.

Hipotez 2'nin analiz sonuçları, kadın liderlerden algılanan dönüşümcü liderliğin temel etkisinin çalışanların iş tatminini ($b = .56, SE = .08, p < .001, \% 95 CI = .41, .71$), örgütsel bağlılığı ($b = .73, SE = .09, p < .001, \% 95 CI = .56, .90$), lider memnuniyeti ($b = .85, SE = .05, p < .001, \% 95 CI = .765, .95$) ve lidere güveni ($b = .65, SE = .06, p < .001, \% 95 CI = .53, .77$) anlamlı olarak yordadığını göstermiştir. Moderatör etkisi, hiçbir analizde anlamlı değildir. Dolayısıyla, hipotez 2 desteklenmemiştir.

Hipotez 3'ün analiz sonuçlarına göre, kadın liderlerden algılanan işlemsel liderliğin iş tatmini ($b = -.21, SE = .10, p = .03, \% 95 CI = -.40, -.02$), lider memnuniyeti ($b = -.58, SE = .09, p = .01, \% 95 CI = -.75, -.41$), örgütsel bağlılık ($b = -.31, SE = .12, p = .01, \% 95 CI = -.54, -.08$) ve güven ($b = -.51, SE = .08, p < .001, \% 95 CI = -.66, -.35$) üzerinde negatif yönde olumsuz ve anlamlı olduğunu göstermiştir, fakat, moderatör etkisi analizlerin hiçbirinde anlamlı bulunmamıştır. Bu sebeple, hipotez 3 desteklenmemiştir.

Hipotez 4'ün analiz sonuçları, kadınlardan algılanan işlemsel liderliğin iş tatmini ($b = -.20, SE = .10, p = .04, \% 95 CI = -.39, -.01$), lider memnuniyeti ($b = -.56, SE = .08, p < .001, \% 95 CI = -.73, -.39$), örgütsel bağlılık ($b = -.29, SE = .11, p < .001, \% 95 CI = -.52, -.06$) ve güven ($b = -.49, SE = .08, p < .001, \% 95 CI = -.65, -.33$) üzerinde anlamlı ve negatif yönde olduğunu göstermiş, moderatör etkisi, hiçbir analizde anlamlı bulunmamıştır. Sonuç olarak, hipotez 4 desteklenmemiştir.

Erkek liderleri olan katılımcılar için de aynı analizler yapılmıştır.

Hipotez 5'in analiz sonuçları, erkek lideri olan çalışanların, SKY ile dönüşümcü liderlik algısının arasındaki etkileşimin iş tatmini üzerinde anlamlı ve olumsuz olduğunu göstermiştir ($b = -.16, SE = .05, p = .002, \% 95 CI = -.26, -.06$) (Tablo 13). Yani, erkek liderler daha az dönüşümcü lider (rol uyumlu) olarak algılandığında,

çalışanların SKY düzeyi arttıkça, iş tatmini artmaktadır (Şekil 1) ($b = .39, SE = .10, p < .001, \% 95 CI = .18, .59$). SKY'nin örgütsel bağlılık üzerindeki ana etkisi anlamlı ve pozitif ($b = .22, SE = .08, p < .001, \% 95 CI = .06, .37$) (Tablo 13). Ek olarak, erkek liderlerden algılanan dönüşümcü liderliğin iş tatmini ($b = .30, SE = .05, p < .001, \% 95 CI = .20, .40$), örgütsel bağlılık ($b = .50, SE = .06, p < .001, \% 95 CI = .39, .61$), lider memnuniyeti ($b = .86, SE = .04, p < .001, \% 95 CI = .79, .93$) ve güven ($b = .74, SE = .04, p < .001, \% 95 CI = .67, .81$) üzerinde anlamlı ve pozitif etkileri olmuştur (Tablo 13). Ayrıca mevcut organizasyondaki toplam iş deneyimi ($b = .00, SE = .00, p < .001, \% 95 CI = .00, .01$) ve yaş ($b = .21, SE = .09, p = .02, \% 95 CI = .03, .38$) örgütsel bağlılıkta pozitif ve anlamlı etkiye sahiptir. Dolayısıyla, hipotez 5 sadece iş tatmini için desteklenmiştir.

Hipotez 6'nın analizleri, SBY ile dönüşümcü liderlik arasındaki etkileşimin erkek lideri olan çalışanların iş tatmini ($b = -.22, SE = .06, p = .0001, \% 95 CI = -.33, -.11$) ve örgütsel bağlılığı ($b = -.18, SE = .06, p = .005, \% 95 CI = -.30, -.05$) negatif yönde etkilediğini göstermiştir (Tablo 14). Yani, erkek liderler daha az dönüşümcü olarak algılandığı zaman, çalışanların SKY'si arttıkça, iş tatmini ($b = .48, SE = .11, p < .001, \% 95 CI = .26, .70$) (Şekil 3) veya örgütsel bağlılığı da artmaktadır ($b = .30, SE = .12, p = .02, \% 95 CI = .06, .54$) (Şekil 4). Ayrıca, erkek liderlerden dönüşümcü liderlik temel algısının ve iş tatmini ($b = .31, SE = .05, p < .001, \% 95 CI = .21, .42$), örgütsel bağlılık ($b = .52, SE = .06, p < .001, \% 95 CI = .41, .63$), lider memnuniyeti ($b = .86, SE = .04, p < .001, \% 95 CI = .79, .93$) ve güveninde ($b = .74, SE = .04, p < .001, \% 95 CI = .67, .81$) pozitif anlamlı etkisi olmuştur. Mevcut organizasyondaki toplam iş tecrübesinin örgütsel bağlılık ($b = .00, SE = .00, p < .001, \% 95 CI = .00, .01$) ve katılımcının yaşı ($b = .24, SE = .09, p = .01, \% 95 CI = .07, .42$) üzerinde pozitif anlamlı etkisi vardır (Tablo 14). Sonuç olarak, hipotez 11 sadece iş tatmini ve örgütsel bağlılık için desteklenmiştir.

Hipotez 7'nin analiz sonuçları, SKY ile erkek liderlerden algılanan işlemsel liderliğin, etkileşimin lider memnuniyeti ($b = .18, SE = .08, p = .02, \% 95 CI = .03, .33$) ve güven ($b = .18, SE = .07, p = .009, \% 95 CI = .05, .32$) üzerinde pozitif anlamlı etkisi vardır (Tablo 15). Bu, erkek liderlerden işlemsel liderlik algısı arttıkça ve çalışanların SKY seviyesi yükseldikçe, lider memnuniyetinin daha yüksek olması anlamına gelir ($b = .24, SE = .12, p = .046, \% 95 CI = .004, .47$) (Şekil 4). Güven için, anlamlı

etkileşim bulunmasına rağmen, basit eğimlerde anlamlı ilişki bulunamamıştır. Yine de, etkinin yönü, düşük seviyeden yüksek seviye işlemsel liderlikte negatif yönden pozitif yöne doğru değişerek, önemli etkileşim etkisiyle sonuçlanmıştır. Erkeklerden algılanan işlemsel liderliğin aynı zamanda lider memnuniyeti ($b = -.34, SE = .08, p < .001, \% 95 CI = -.50, -.19$) ve güven ($b = -.33, SE = .07, p < .001, \% 95 CI = -.47, -.19$) üzerinde önemli etkisi vardır. SKY'nin iş tatmini ($b = .15, SE = .08, p = .047, \% 95 CI = .00, .30$) ve örgütsel bağlılık ($b = .25, SE = .09, p = .008, 95\% CI = .06, .43$) üzerinde olumlu ve anlamlı etkisi bulunmaktadır. Ayrıca, mevcut organizasyondaki toplam iş tecrübesi, örgütsel bağlılık açısından da anlamlı bulunmuştur ($b = .00, SE = .00, p = .02, \% 95 CI = .00, .01$) (Tablo 15). Sonuç olarak, hipotez 7, lider memnuniyeti ve güveni için desteklenmiştir.

Hipotez 8'in analizin sonuçlarına göre, moderatör etkisi hiçbir bağımlı değişken üzerinde gözlenmemiştir. İşlemsel liderliğin lider memnuniyeti ($b = -.34, SE = .08, p < .001, \% 95 CI = -.50, -.18$) ve güven ($b = -.33, SE = .07, p < .001, 95\% CI = -.47, -.18$) üzerinde negatif anlamlı etkisi vardır. Ayrıca mevcut organizasyondaki toplam iş deneyimi ($b = .00, SE = .00, p = .01, \% 95 CI = .00, .01$) ve yaş ($b = .24, SE = .11, p = .02, \% 95 CI = .04, .45$) örgütsel bağlılık üzerinde olumlu ve anlamlı etkiye sahiptir. Sonuç olarak, hipotez 8 desteklenmemiştir.

TARTIŞMA

4.1. Bulguların ve Uygulamaların Tartışılması

Sonuçlar, SKY / SBY ve liderlik stilleri arasındaki etkileşimin, kadın lideri olan çalışanların, iş / lider memnuniyeti, örgütsel bağlılık veya liderine güven üzerinde etkisi olmadığını göstermiştir. Bu durum, toplumdaki kadın liderlerle ilgili klişelerin, kadın liderleri değerlendirirken SKY ve SBY'nin etkisini ortadan kaldırdığını düşündürmektedir. Ayrıca, bulgular, çalışanlar erkek liderlerin dönüşümcü liderliğini (rol uyumsuz) düşük algılasa, SKY'leri daha yüksek olanların, SKY'leri düşük olanlara göre daha yüksek iş memnuniyetine sahip olduğunu göstermiştir. Benzer olarak, çalışanlar erkek liderlerini dönüşümcü liderliğini düşük olarak algıladıklarında, yüksek SBY'li kişilerin düşük SBY'li insanlara kıyasla daha yüksek iş tatmini ve / veya örgütsel bağlılığa sahip olma eğiliminde olduğunu göstermiştir. Diğer taraftan, erkek liderler işlemsel liderlikte yüksek olarak algılandığında (rol uyumlu), SKY'si yüksek

olanların düşük SKY'li kişilere kıyasla liderlerinde daha yüksek lider memnuniyeti ve güvenine sahip olma olasılığını göstermiştir.

Ana etkiler incelendiğinde, literatüre uygun olarak, çalışanların, cinsiyet rolü uyumlu liderlik tarzı benimseyen (dönüşümcü liderlik) kadın yöneticilerden memnunken, cinsiyet rollerine uymayan liderlik tarzı benimseyen (işlemsel liderlik) kadın yöneticilerden memnun olmadığı bulunmuştur. Aynı zamanda, Cuadro, Morales ve Recio'nun (2008) bulgularıyla da tutarlı olarak, erkek liderlerinden daha fazla dönüşümcü liderlik algılayan çalışanların daha fazla iş tatmini, lider memnuniyeti, örgütsel bağlılık ve güven gösterdikleri tespit edilmiştir. Ayrıca, erkek liderleri olan katılımcılar için, işlemsel liderlik stiline, lider memnuniyetini ve liderine olan güveni olumsuz yönde etkilerken, iş tatmini ve örgütsel bağlılık üzerinde etkisi olmadığı bulunmuştur. Bu durumda, erkek cinsiyet rolleriyle işlemsel liderliğin özelliklerinin benzer olmasının, işlemsel liderliğin olumsuz etkilerinin ortadan kalkmasına etki ettiği sonucuna varılabilir.

Bulgulara göre, dönüşümcü liderliğin hem kadın hem erkek liderli çalışanlar için yararlı olduğu sonucuna varılabilir. Diğer taraftan, kadın liderlerden algılanan işlemsel liderliğin iş tatmini, örgütsel bağlılık, liderlik doyumunu ve liderlik güveninde olumsuz etkileri varken, erkek liderlerden algılanan işlemsel liderlikse sadece liderlik memnuniyeti ve güvenini olumsuz etkilemiştir. Bunun iki nedeni olabileceği düşünülmektedir. İlk olarak, işlemsel liderliğin erkek liderler için cinsiyet uyumlu bir liderlik tarzı olması sebebiyle çalışanlar için bazı olumsuz etkileri ortadan kaldırdığı düşünülebilir. Ayrıca, sadece lider memnuniyeti ve lidere olan güvenin olumsuz etkilenmesi, bu sonuçların liderlerle kişisel ilişkilerden daha doğrudan etkilenebilecek iki kavramken, iş doyumunu ve örgütsel bağlılığın liderle ilişkiden dolayı etkilenme olasılığı olan kavramlar olmasından kaynaklanabilir. İkinci olası sebep, işlemsel liderliğin olumsuz etkisi yerine, işlemsel kadın liderlerin örgütsel bağlılık ve iş tatmini üzerinde olumsuz etki yaratması olabilir. Buna bağlı olarak SKY ve SBY seviyelerine bakılmaksızın, sadece kadın liderlerin uyumsuz liderlik tarzının iş tatmini ve örgütsel bağlılık üzerinde olumsuz etkiye sahip olduğu sonucu çıkarılabilir.

Bulgulardaki diğer nokta, yüksek SKY'nin, dönüşümcü ya da işlemsel erkek liderli çalışanların daha fazla örgütsel bağlılık göstermelerini sağlamasıdır. Bunun nedeni, SKY'si daha yüksek olan kişilerin, gruplarında sosyal düzenin, istikrar,

güvenlik (Cohrs ve Asbrock, 2009) ve geleneksel yapı araması (Duckitt & Sibley, 2009) ve liderin erkek olmasının bu durumu devam ettirecek olması olabilir.

Bulgular, SKY veya SBY ile dönüşümcü liderlik veya işlemsel liderlik arasındaki etkileşimin, erkek liderleri olan katılımcılar için farklı sonuçları olduğunu göstermiştir. Erkek liderler düşük seviyede dönüşümcü liderlik gösterdiğinde, çalışanların SKY'si ne kadar yüksekse, sahip oldukları iş tatmini o kadar yüksek olmuş, benzer şekilde, SBY ne kadar yüksek olursa, iş tatmini veya örgütsel bağlılık o kadar yüksek olmuştur. Burada, iş tatmini ve örgütsel bağlılık üzerinde etkileşim etkileri olsa da, lider memnuniyeti ve lider güveninde bir etkileşim olmamasına dikkat edilmelidir. Bunun nedeni dönüşümcü liderliğin, çalışanlar tarafından zaten olumlu karşılanan liderlik tipi olması olabilir. Ayrıca, Ayman, Korabik ve Morris'e (2009) göre, dönüşümcü liderliğin eşitleyici etkisi vardır ve erkekler meşruiyetlerini kaybetmeden statü kaybını önleme gücüne sahip olabilirler. Diğer taraftan, liderlerden daha düşük bir dönüşümcü liderlik algısı, yüksek SKY veya SBY'e sahip kişiler için olumlu olmuştur. Bunun nedeni, lider memnuniyetinin ve lidere duyulan güvenin, liderlerle kişisel ilişkilerden doğrudan etkilenebilecek iki kavram olması ve kişisel ilişkilerin iş doyumu ve örgütsel bağlılık üzerinde dolaylı etkisi olabileceği olabilir.

SKY'si yüksek çalışanlar, erkek liderlerde daha çok işlemsel liderlik algılandığında lider memnuniyetinin veya güveninin arttığı sonucuna ulaşılırken, SBY ve erkek işlemsel liderlik etkileşiminin sonuçların hiçbirinde etkisi olmadığı bulunmuştur. Bu noktada, Cohrs ve Asbrock'un (2009) SKY'nin grubun sosyal düzeni, istikrarı ve güvenliği tehdit edildiğinde, SBY'nin ise grup için güç savaşı olduğunda önyargılı davranmaya sebep olduğunu söylemesi dikkate alınabilir. Buna bağlı olarak, cinsiyet rolü uyumlu, işlemsel liderlik gösteren erkek lidere sahip olmanın sosyal düzen, istikrar ve güven sağlayacağı düşüncesiyle SKY'si yüksek olan kişilerin memnuniyetini arttırdığı sonucuna ulaşılabilir. Öte yandan, yüksek düzeyde SBY olan insanlar, erkek liderlerin zaten statü ve güce sahip olduğunu düşündüğü için değişkenleri etkilenmemiş olabilir.

Sonuçlar ayrıca, çalışanlar erkek liderlerini daha işlemsel algıladıklarında, yüksek SKY'e sahip kişilerin lider memnuniyeti ve güvenin daha yüksek olduğunu ancak SKY'nin iş tatmini ve örgütsel bağlılık üzerinde etki yapmadığını göstermiştir. Her şeyden önce, bu, SKY ve geleneksel ve kuralla uygunluk, dindarlık ve itaat

arasındaki güçlü ilişkilerden kaynaklanabilir (Duckitt ve Sibley, 2009). Diğer taraftan, liderlik memnuniyeti ve lidere duyulan güvenin, liderlerle kişisel ilişkilerden daha doğrudan etkilenmesi bu sonuçlar üzerinde etki yaratmışken, kişisel ilişkilerin iş tatmini ve örgütsel bağlılık üzerinde dolaylı bir etkisi olması etkiyi engellemiş olabilir.

Tüm bulgular değerlendirildiğinde, organizasyonlar için bazı çıkarımlar önerilecektir. Öncelikle, dönüşümcü liderlerin kuruluşlar için faydalı olduğu sonucuna varılabilir. Buna ek olarak, SKY ve SBY seviyelerine bakılmaksızın, işlemsel liderliğinin fayda sağlamadığı açıkça görülmektedir. İşlemsel liderliğin sadece erkek lidere sahip yüksek SKY'li insanlar için olumlu etkileri vardır. Dolayısıyla, işletmelerde hem dönüşümcü liderlik stilini benimseyen liderlerin olması, hem de daha çok kadın liderin bu stiller olan rol uyumunun olası önyargıları ortadan kaldırabileceği göz önüne alınarak, kadın liderlere şans tanınması gerektiği açıktır.

4.2. Çalışmanın Kısıtlılıkları ve Gelecekteki Çalışmalar İçin Öneriler

Çalışmanın bazı kısıtlılıkları bulunmaktadır. Birincisi, katılımcıların çoğunun büyükşehirlerde yaşamasıdır. Farklı şehirlerden insanlara ulaşmak, araştırma bulgularının genellenebilirliğini artıracaktır.

İkincisi, bu çalışmada, katılımcıların çoğu beyaz yakalı işçilerdir. Mavi yakalı işçilerin temsili sınırlıdır. Mavi yakalı çalışanların yanında, kamu görevlilerinden veri toplanması özel sektörlerden farklılıkları görmek ve bu sonuçları kamu sektörü için kullanmak için faydalı olabilir.

Bir diğer problem katılımcıların çoğunun, yaklaşık olarak eşit sayıda kadın ve erkeğin çalıştığı muhasebe ve turizm gibi sektörlerden olmasıdır. Kadın işçilerden ziyade çoğunlukla erkek işçilerle çalışan daha fazla katılımcının olması, daha tarafsız sonuçlar doğurabilir.

SKY ve SBY'li kişilerin üst yönetimdeki kadın liderlere daha fazla tepki verebileceği düşünülerek, yönetim seviyesinin kontrol edilmemiş olması hem sınırlama olarak kabul edilebilir hem de gelecek çalışmalarda bunun kontrol edilmesi önerilebilir.

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