The relationship between employee personality traits and preferred leadership style

Thomas M. Kuhn

University of Nevada, Las Vegas

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UMI®
THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN EMPLOYEE
PERSONALITY TRAITS AND PREFERRED
LEADERSHIP STYLE

by

Thomas M. Kuhn, Jr.

Bachelor of Science
California State University, Northridge
1990

A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the

Master of Science Degree
William F. Harrah College of Hotel Administration

Graduate College
University of Nevada, Las Vegas
December 2001
The Thesis prepared by

Thomas M. Kuhn, Jr.

Entitled

The Relationship Between Employee Personality
Traits and Preferred Leadership Style

is approved in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Master of Science in Hotel Administration

Examination Committee Chair

Dean of the Graduate College

Examination Committee Member

Graduate College Faculty Representative
ABSTRACT

The Relationship Between Employee Personality Traits And Preferred Leadership Style

by

Thomas M. Kuhn, Jr.

Dr. Andrew Feinstein, Examination Committee Chair
Professor of Hotel Administration
University of Nevada, Las Vegas

Purpose: The purpose of this study is to examine how employee personality traits are related to a preferred leadership style and how the differences between preferred and actual leadership style relate to employee perceptions of leader satisfaction and effectiveness. Respondents completed a survey questionnaire that consisted of the commonly used Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaire Form 5X to assess employee leadership preferences and the NEO-FFI to identify personality traits. The relationship between employee personality traits and their preferred leadership style is significant to leaders who believe that it is possible to adjust a leadership approach to improve organizational performance.

Findings: Agreeableness is positively related and age is negatively related to a transformational leadership preference. The results also indicate a negative relationship between the difference between preferred and actual leadership and ratings of employee satisfaction and ratings of leader effectiveness. Lastly, employee satisfaction is positively related to ratings of leader effectiveness.
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### ABBREVIATIONS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Definition</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Neuroticism</td>
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<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>Extraversion</td>
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<tr>
<td>O</td>
<td>Openness</td>
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<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Agreeableness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Conscientiousness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T(_A)(_P)</td>
<td>Preferred Transactional Leadership Score</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T(_A)(_A)</td>
<td>Perceived Actual Transactional Leadership Score</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T(_F)(_P)</td>
<td>Preferred Transformational Leadership Score</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T(_F)(_A)</td>
<td>Perceived Actual Transformational Leadership Score</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL (= T(_F) (- T(_A)(_P)) )</td>
<td>Preferred Leadership Score</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TAD (= T(_A)(_P) (- T(_A)(_A)) )</td>
<td>Transactional Leadership Difference Score</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TFD (= T(_F) (- T(_F)(_A)) )</td>
<td>Transformational Leadership Difference Score</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LSAT</td>
<td>Leader Satisfaction Score</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LEFF</td>
<td>Leader Effectiveness Score</td>
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**GLOSSARY**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tr>
<td>Agreeableness</td>
<td>The degree to which individuals are cooperative, warm, and agreeable versus cold, disagreeable, and antagonistic (HRZone, 1998).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conscientiousness</td>
<td>The extent that a person is hard-working, organized, dependable, and persevering versus lazy, disorganized, and unreliable (HRZone, 1998).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extraversion</td>
<td>The extent to which an individual is out-going, assertive, and positively interactive with others as opposed to reserved, timid, and quiet (HRZone, 1998).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Five Factor Model of Personality (FFM)</td>
<td>Model developed that provides a comprehensive description of an individual’s personality. The five factors are: Neuroticism, Extraversion, Openness, Agreeableness, and Conscientiousness (Costa &amp; McCrae, 1992).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership</td>
<td>“...leadership is a process of influence between a leader and those who are followers” (Hollander, 1978, p. 1).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neuroticism</td>
<td>The degree to which the individual is insecure, anxious, depressed, and emotional versus calm, self-confident, and cool. Also known as emotional stability (HRZone, 1998).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Openness</strong></td>
<td>Considered the degree to which an individual is creative, curious, and cultured versus practical with narrow interests (HRZone, 1998).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Personality Traits</strong></td>
<td>Relatively permanent and enduring qualities or characteristics that define an individual (Coon, 1983).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Transactional Leadership Style</strong></td>
<td>An exchange process in which the leader provides rewards in return for the subordinate's effort and performance (Bass, 1990).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Transformational Leadership Style</strong></td>
<td>A process where the leader motivates followers to perform beyond expectations by activating followers' higher order needs, fostering a climate of trust, and inducing followers to transcend self-interest for the sake of the organization (Bass, 1990).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Several people deserve thanks for helping in this academic achievement. On the home front, I thank my wife for her love and devotion. Without her, I would not have the clarity of mind to succeed in anything. She truly is my better half. I would also like to thank my two boys for allowing me to take so much time away from them. And last, to my parents for always supporting my educational pursuits.

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Professionally, I owe thanks to all who helped make this experience a reality. To those that have mentored me and provided guidance, direction, insight, and opportunity. I am forever indebted. I will not forget, nor keep secret, what I have been taught.
CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Leading people effectively is a tremendous challenge, a great opportunity, and a serious responsibility. Today's organizations, more than ever, need effective leaders who understand the complexities of our ever-changing global environment and have the intelligence, sensitivity, and ability to empathize with others necessary to motivate their followers to strive to achieve excellence. (Nahavandi, 2000, p. xv)

Background

Although a significant amount of literature has been written about leadership and its various styles, very little has focused on the hospitality industry (Mullins, 1992). In view of the widely held belief that the hospitality industry is a "people" industry, it is surprising that leadership and leadership development have not had a greater impact or emphasis in hospitality research (Pittaway, Carmouche, & Chell, 1998).

What is leadership? Leadership has as many definitions as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept (Bass, 1990) and "...it is important to understand that there is no single 'correct' definition" (Hughes, Ginnett, & Curphy, 1993, p. 8). In recent years, observers have emphasized the relatedness of leadership and followership (Bass, 1990; Hughes, et al., 1993; Nahavandi, 2000; Rosenbach & Taylor, 1993). Hence, most definitions include the interaction of both leaders and followers. While many definitions

1

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incorporate the general theme of modern leadership, the conciseness of Hollander’s (1978) definition of leadership was chosen for use in this study—“...a process of influence between a leader and those who are followers” (p. 1).

Aside from defining leadership, achieving consensus on how the process of influence works is equally difficult. The leadership process is a complex and dynamic exchange between the leader, the followers, and the situation (Pierce & Newstrom, 1995). To better understand the leadership process it is necessary to understand the different relationships involved (e.g., leader-follower, leader-situation, and follower-situation) (Pierce & Newstrom, 1995).

Several studies (Judge & Bono, 2000; Singer & Singer, 1986, 1990; Tracey & Hinkin, 1994, 1998; Wofford, Whittington, & Goodwin, 2001) have investigated the leader-follower relationship within the context of transformational and transactional leadership. Transformational and transactional leadership have been the dominant context in which to identify the leadership process since 1990 (Judge & Bono, 2000). The transactional leader, or classical manager, pursues a cost-benefit, economic exchange to meet subordinates’ current material and psychic needs in return for “contracted” services rendered by the subordinates (Bass, 1985). Transformational leaders, on the other hand, attempt to succeed in elevating those they influence from a lower to a higher level of awareness according to Maslow’s hierarchy of needs (Bass, 1985).

Within the transformational and transactional construct, researchers have started to investigate the relationship of individual differences of followers and leaders. Individual differences include: personality traits (Judge & Bono, 2000; Singer & Singer, 1986; Sogunro, 1998), motive patterns (Wofford, et al., 2001), aptitudes, and abilities. These

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researchers also encourage more research in regards to individual differences and the relationship to various leadership styles.

In their literature review of hospitality leadership research, Pittaway et al. (1998) believe that a major weakness of past research is the lack of attention paid to organizational elements (e.g. size, structure, culture, industry, decision making time, and technology) and personal elements (e.g. job maturity, motivation, individual past experience, personal history, and personality of leaders and subordinates) and how these elements actually affect the leadership process. This is important because if leadership is dependent on elements such as the personality of subordinates, a leader requires a better understanding of them in order to adapt his or her leadership style to maximize effectiveness (Pittaway et al., 1998).

Problem Statement

In response to the lack of leadership research in the hospitality industry, a better understanding of what type of leadership style is more effective is needed.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to examine how employee personality traits are related to a preferred leadership style and how the differences between preferred and actual leadership style relate to employee perceptions of leader satisfaction and effectiveness.

Research Questions

1. How are an employee's personality traits related to the employee's preferred leadership style?
2. How is the difference between an employee's preferred leadership style and the employee's perception of their leader's actual leadership style related to the employee's satisfaction with the leader?

3. How is the difference between an employee's preferred leadership style and the employee's perception of their leader's actual leadership style related to the employee's rating of leader effectiveness?

4. How is an employee's perception of leader effectiveness related to the employee's satisfaction with the leader?

Significance of Study

As hospitality organizations seek to improve performance, anticipate change, and develop new structures, the importance of effective leadership performance may be essential to ensure increased effectiveness, efficiency, and hence profitability (Zhao & Merna, 1992; Slattery & Olsen, 1984). Meeting employees' needs is commonly accepted as one of the keys to improving organizational performance (Kotler, Bowen, & Makens, 1999). Part of meeting employees' needs is a firm understanding of the employees and what motivates them. With this knowledge, a leader can provide a leadership style that attends to their desires (Go. Monachello, & Baum, 1996). One way to better understand an employee is to look at their personality and preference for a specific leadership style. This relationship between employee personality traits and a preferred leadership style should benefit managers that desire to adopt an effective leadership approach.
Delimitations

This study was conducted at three Air Force bases in the United States. The three bases were picked at the convenience of the researcher and may have resulted in possible sampling error. Additionally, significant differences and motives of employees in a military setting prevent the results from being generalized to all organizational settings. The survey instruments were also administered by a third party, which may introduce some error, but the nature of the questionnaire required little third party involvement other than to distribute and collect the instrument. And last, in the interest of time, the data collection period was limited to a four-week period.

Limitations

The study used two very popular and well-tested survey instruments that have been shown to have a high degree of reliability and validity; however, the combined length of the survey (162 one-part questions) may have affected the effective response rate (32%). Non-response error was investigated by contacting the administrating officials at all three bases. The majority of non-respondents were civilian food service workers unable to read the survey (written in English and at the sixth grade reading level) because of a lack of language skills. The survey was also administered after September 11, 2001 (the World Trade Center and Pentagon terrorist attacks) and many of the military participants were tasked with emergency duties. The last limitation to the study is in regards to the reliability of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Form 5X and its measure of transactional leadership. A test on the reliability of the four constructs that comprise transactional leadership yielded a Cronbach alpha of -.2415 indicating that the construct may not be measuring what it intends; however, the construct is generally considered to

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be reliable and is the industry standard to measure transactional and transformational leadership.

Organization of Thesis

This thesis is organized into five chapters. Chapter 1 introduced the purpose and research questions to be addressed in this study. Chapter 2 is a literature review regarding recent research on leadership, followership, and personality theory. Chapter 3 describes the methodology used for the study. Chapter 4 discusses the results of the research. And last, Chapter 5 provides a summary and offers suggestions for additional research.
CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

The study of leadership rivals in age the emergence of civilization, which shaped its leaders as much as it was shaped by them. From its infancy, the study of history has been the study of leaders—what they did and why they did it. (Bass, 1990, p. 5)

Introduction

Where does a systematic study of leadership begin? Leadership studies often begin with the evolution of leadership theory. It then progresses to adopting a definition of leadership that fits the context of the discussion. Last, it typically looks at the participants involved. Chapter 2 addresses this process and builds the theoretical model for the study.

Leadership History

As Bass (1990) points out, the study of leadership can be traced back to the beginning of civilization. However, for this study, only modern leadership theory will be reviewed. Discussion focuses on trait, behavioral, contingent, and contemporary leadership theories.

Trait Theory

Trait theory enjoyed popularity from the late 1800s to the mid-1940s. It was the first scientific attempt to study leadership. The premise of this theory is that leaders are born, not made. With the introduction of personality tests, researchers started to compare
leader's IQ, motivation, initiative, and self-confidence and the predictive ability of these
traits on leader effectiveness. However, after forty plus years of studies, researchers
concluded that traits played an insignificant role in determining leader effectiveness
(Nahavandi, 2000).

**Behavioral Theory**

In the 1940's, with trait theory inconclusive, researchers began considering the
influence that behavior had on leadership effectiveness. Behavioral theory was
advantageous to researchers because behaviors are observed more objectively than traits,
more easily measured, and can be taught. However, researchers soon discovered that not
everyone that had similar behavior achieved the same effectiveness and that the same
individual displaying the same behavior in two contexts was not always effective in both.
This awareness led to the investigation of situational variables (Nahavandi, 2000).

**Contingency Theory**

From the 1960's to the present, contingency theories of leadership have evolved.
These theories include elements of both trait and behavior theory but add the element of
situation to the equation. The three elements are all seen as instrumental in determining
the effectiveness of the leader. The situation is determined by such things as leader-
member relations, task structure, leader positional power, subordinate motive patterns,
task structure, follower ability level, and follower authoritarianism (Wofford et al., 2001).
Three of the most popular contingency theories are Fiedler's contingency theory, path-
goal theory, and the situational leadership model (Hughes, et al., 1993).

Fiedler postulated that effective leadership was the result of matching the right leader
with the right situation. The theory assumes that the leader's traits and behavior are fixed,
and when in the right situation the leadership process is very effective (Wood, 1994).
Path-goal theory is based on a leader providing valued rewards for followers and then helping them find the best way to get them. The underlying assumption is that the leader knows what is of value for employees and what will motivate them. It also assumes that followers understand their own abilities and have a desire for the reward (Hughes, et al., 1993).

The last contingency model is the situational leadership model. This model suggests that a leader determines his or her behavior based on the maturity level of the followers. It is a simplistic model of leadership that enjoys a high degree of popularity, but there is little empirical evidence to support its effectiveness (Hughes, et al., 1993).

Contemporary Leadership Theory

The term contemporary leadership theory is used in this study to refer to leadership theories that do not fall neatly into the trait, behavior, or contingency categories but are capturing the majority of attention into today's leadership research. The two relevant styles in this category for this study are transactional and transformational leadership. It is proposed that all leadership can be categorized as transactional and transformational (Bass, 1985).

Transactional leadership

Transactional leadership is rooted in contingency or situational leadership, although it contains elements of trait and behavioral theories. "The transactional leader pursues a cost-benefit, economic exchange to meet subordinates' current material and psychic needs in return for 'contracted' services rendered by the subordinate" (Bass, 1985, p. 14). Transactional leadership is based on bureaucratic authority and legitimacy within the organization with the leader focusing on task completion and employee compliance through the promise of reward or threat of punishment (Tracey & Hinkin, 1994).
Transactional leaders serve to recognize and clarify the role and task requirements for the subordinates' reaching the desired outcomes. This gives the subordinates sufficient confidence to exert the necessary effort. Transactional leaders also recognize what the subordinates need and want and clarify how these needs and wants will be satisfied if the subordinate expends the necessary effort. Such effort to perform or motivation to work implies a sense of direction in the subordinate as well as some degree of energization (Bass, 1985). This classical form of leadership style has been rooted in the hospitality industry for decades with managers emphasizing rules and regulations and policies and procedures as the method to get things done. Transactional leadership also includes elements such as positional power, employees considered replaceable commodities, and profit as a guiding mechanism (Tracey & Hinkin, 1994).

**Transformational leadership**

Transformational leaders differ from transactional leaders in that they attempt to succeed in elevating those influenced from a lower to a higher level of need according to Maslow's hierarchy of needs (Bass, 1985). “Transformational leaders possess good visioning, rhetoric, and impression management skills, and they use these skills to develop strong emotional bonds with followers” (Hughes, et al., 1993, p. 443). Transformational leaders are concerned with the broad, holistic perspective of the organization, both current and future (Tracey & Hinkin, 1994).

Transformational leadership is based on several components: the followers’ perceptions of similarity with, and attraction to, the leader; the degree to which the leader addresses the concerns of the followers; and the extent to which the leader provides the followers with interesting and challenging tasks. Transformational leaders en-gender feelings of trust, loyalty, and respect from followers by
generating awareness and acceptance of the purpose and mission of the organization, (2) inducing them to transcend their own self-interest for the sake of the organization, and (3) activating their higher-order needs. (Tracey & Hinkin, 1994, p. 20)

Transformational leadership also includes elements such as personal power given to leaders by the followers, employees considered developable resources, and vision and values as guiding mechanisms (Tracey & Hinkin, 1994).

Leadership Process Participants

Contemporary leadership studies generally conclude that leadership is a process between leaders and followers (Hughes et al., 1993; Pierce & Newstrom, 1995). A discussion of leadership and followership is essential for a complete understanding of both roles.

Concepts of Leadership

In the face of uncertainty, rapid change, and intense competition in the last couple of decades, organizations have had to focus on managing chaos, restructuring their organizations, empowering organizational members, promoting continuous improvement, and inventing high involvement organizations and management systems (Pierce & Newstrom, 1995). “Often the only difference between chaos and a smoothly functioning operation is leadership...(Hughes et al., 1993. p. vii). It is this desire to provide order that creates a need to understand what leadership is.

Definition of Leadership

Defining leadership is harder than it would seem. Leadership has as many definitions as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept (Bass, 1990) and “...it is
important to understand that there is no single ‘correct’ definition” (Hughes, et al., 1993, p. 8). In recent years, observers have emphasized the relatedness of leadership and followership (Bass, 1990; Hughes, et al., 1993; Nahavandi, 2000; and Rosenbach & Taylor, 1993). Hence, most definitions include the interaction of both leaders and followers.

It is Bass’ conclusion that the definition of leadership should depend on the purposes to be served by the definition. Bass (1981) offers several possible interpretations of the meaning or definition of leadership. They include leadership as (a) a focus of group processes; (b) as the relationship of personality and its effects; (c) the art of inducing compliance; (d) the exercise of influence; (e) an act or behavior; (f) a form of persuasion; (g) a power relation; (h) an instrument of goal achievement; (i) an emerging effect of interaction; (j) a differentiated role; and (k) the initiation of structure. One such definition proposed by Bass (1990) that is particularly helpful in understanding a wide variety of research findings delineates effective leadership as the interaction among members (leaders and followers) of a group that initiates and maintains improved expectations and the competence of the group to solve problems or attain goals. Murphy (1941) believed that leadership is a process and not a quality and that it is dictated by the needs of the group and the situation. Like most others. Murphy (1941) agrees with the assumption that leadership includes two elements--a leader and some followers. Hollander (1978) adds influence as a third element to create the relationship between the first two. While many definitions comprise the general theme of modern leadership, Hollander’s (1978) simple and concise definition of leadership was chosen for use in this study—“...a process of influence between a leader and those who are followers” (p. 1).
Concepts of Followership

"Without followers...Napoleon would have been just a man with grandiose ambitions" (Lee, 1991, p. 2). While most leadership studies have focused on leaders, perhaps the emphasis should be on the followers since leadership obviously implies followership (Sogunro, 1998). As Hollander's definition of leadership suggests, both leaders and followers have an influence on the relationship and the relationship between the leader and follower is reciprocal (Pierce & Newstrom, 1995).

Sanford (1952) states that:

The follower is always there when leadership occurs. It is he who accepts or rejects leadership. It is he who follows reluctantly or enthusiastically, obediently or creatively. In any situation where leadership occurs, he is there with all his psychological attributes. He brings with him his habits, attitudes, preferences, biases, and deep-lying psychological needs. If we know something about these psychological attributes, we know something about the follower's "readiness for leadership." We know something about the sort of relations he will be inclined to establish with what sort of leaders. (p. 130)

Followership is the process that allows followers to get along with their co-workers and leaders in ways that benefit organizations (Kelley, 1992). Followership involves subordinates who can think independently, send supervisors honest and truthful messages, and implement difficult decisions (Lundin, Lancaster, & Gardner, 1990). Followership is a skill that both followers and leaders need to possess since even top leaders have followership roles (Lee, 1991).

Effective followers practicing good followership require a partnership environment that enables them to benefit the organization. They think for themselves, self-direct their
work, make themselves integral to the organization, hone their skills, focus their contributions, collaborate with colleagues, and, essentially, hold up their end of the bargain (Kelley, 1992). Lundin et al. (1990) observed some key traits of effective followers (see Table 1).

Kelley argues that leaders account for one or two percent of the organizational behavior and that real research needs to involve the other 98 percent that involves followers (Rosenbach & Taylor, 1993). Hughes et al. (1993) contends that “...followers’ expectations (Sutton & Woodman, 1989); personality traits (Burke, 1965); maturity levels (Moore, 1976); levels of competence (Scandura, Graen, & Novak, 1986); and

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Trait</th>
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<tr>
<td>Integrity</td>
<td>They have personal integrity that requires a loyalty and a willingness to act according to their beliefs.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Accountability</td>
<td>They “own the territory” and understand the organization and their role and contribution to it.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Versatility</td>
<td>They are versatile in their skills and flexible enough to accommodate change in the environment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responsibility</td>
<td>They take responsibility for their own careers, actions, and personal and professional development.</td>
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levels and types of motivation (Sales, Levanoni, & Saleh, 1984) can affect the leadership process...” (Hughes, et al., 1993, p. 97). To an increasing degree, leadership must be understood in terms of both leader and follower variables (Hughes, et al., 1993).

Concepts of Personality

“Personality theories, or models, are metaphors for describing something which is intrinsically indescribable—the human personality” (Howard & Howard, 2001, p. 1). For about thirty years, the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) was the prevailing personality paradigm. But another paradigm, the Five-Factor Model (FFM) has taken hold in most research communities. The model’s robustness of structure across cultures and measures has led to widespread acceptance of the FFM among personality researchers (Judge & Bono, 2000).

The FFM was first established by two Air Force researchers, Tupes and Christal, in the late 1950s; however, their work was not mainstreamed until the mid-1960s when another researcher, Warren Norman, popularized it. As trait theory fell out of favor in the late 1960s and 1970s, very little attention was given the FFM. It was not until the 1980s that trait theory gained renewed interest. And, only in the last decade has the taxonomic structure been established as the current paradigm for personality research (Howard & Howard, 2001).

The five measurable factors of the FFM are neuroticism, extraversion, openness, agreeableness, and conscientiousness (see Table 2). They are commonly referred to as the Big-Five and they have revolutionized personality psychology (Judge & Bono, 2000). In fact, the model is so strong that there is a clear trend towards embracing it as the single basis for present and future personality research (Howard & Howard, 2001).
Table 2

Personality Trait Definitions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Trait</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Neuroticism</td>
<td>The degree to which the individual is insecure, anxious, depressed, and emotional versus calm, self-confident, and cool. Also referred to as emotional stability (HRZone. 1998).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extraversion</td>
<td>The extent to which an individual is out-going, assertive, and positively interactive with others as opposed to reserved, timid, and quiet (HRZone. 1998).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Openness</td>
<td>The degree to which an individual is creative, curious, and cultured versus practical with narrow interests (HRZone. 1998).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conscientiousness</td>
<td>The extent that a person is hard-working, organized, dependable, and persevering versus lazy, disorganized, and unreliable (HRZone. 1998).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agreeableness</td>
<td>The degree to which individuals are cooperative, warm, and agreeable versus cold, disagreeable and antagonistic (HRZone. 1998).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Hospitality Centered Leadership Research

So far this chapter has covered general work done in the area of leadership and personality. Both topics have received extensive attention over the years and volumes of literature have been written on each. The research in this area does not reveal or prescribe a single best type of leadership style or leader or follower personality; however, there...
appears to be significant interest recently (the last two decades) on transformational and transactional leadership (Tracey & Hinkin, 1996) and the Big-Five personality traits.

Surprisingly, very little research has been conducted regarding leadership in the hospitality industry (Mullins, 1992). Perhaps this has something to do with Wood’s (1994) contention that the hospitality industry is insular and does not consider itself subject to advancements in industrial management practices. At any rate, some hospitality leadership research has been conducted and deserves to be mentioned.

Two authors, J. Bruce Tracey and Timothy R. Hinkin, have done research regarding transformational and transactional leadership in the hospitality industry. They use Bass’ definitions and measurement techniques to evaluate the presence of these leadership styles in the lodging sector. The bulk of their research suggests that transformational leadership is more effective than transactional leadership given the dynamic nature and fiercely competitive nature of the hospitality industry—"We believe...that the external environment will remain turbulent and that transformational leadership will be important for enhancing individual and organizational effectiveness" (Tracey & Hinkin, 1994, p. 24). However, they also believe that under predictable and stable conditions, transactional leadership would be effective for certain operational and strategic activities.

Another group of authors that have provided conceptual work on leadership in the hospitality industry are Pittaway, Carmouche, and Chell. In 1998, these three authors reviewed the research that had been conducted on leadership in the hospitality field and found that the majority of it dealt with the importance of leadership as opposed to trying to develop a better understanding of leadership or how hospitality personnel can improve leadership performance (Pittaway, et al., 1998). In their research, they identified four different leadership paradigms: (a) existential headship, (b) strategic headship, (c)
influential leadership, and (d) situational leadership. For each they developed possible courses of research that could enrich the industry.

Pittaway et al. (1998) identified the situational leadership paradigm as the most dominant paradigm in leadership research. They identified it as rooted in functionalist sociology and having a general emphasis on leadership in organizations. This paradigm assumes that leaders are restricted by the external and internal environment in which they operate and that they must be able to adapt their leadership approach to the situation.

Pittaway et al. (1998) points out that one of the weaknesses of research in this paradigm is the suggestion that effective leadership depends on the situation without investigating, in any depth, how each element of the situation actually affects the leadership process (Pittaway et al., 1998; Wofford et al., 2001). Some additional avenues of research they suggest are: (a) how organizational structure influences leadership style; (b) how technology, organizational culture, and organizational size influence leadership style; (c) how subordinate's job maturity and motivations affect the usefulness of different leadership styles; and (d) whether or not there are significant differences in leadership style between hospitality industry sectors (Pittaway et al., 1998).

Synopsis

A review of the literature points out that followers play a strong role in the overall leadership process and in determining the overall effectiveness of the leader. "In general, there are two significant questions that have been posed by students of leadership: (1) To what extent do 'attributes' of the follower serve to moderate the leader behavior-outcome...relationship? and (2) How does the follower affect/influence the leader?" (Pierce & Newstrom, 1995, p. 119). Sanford (1952) emphasizes that "[L]eadership is a
relation. Psychological factors in the follower as well as psychological factors in the leader help determine this relation” (p. 132). Followers’ personalities (e.g. needs, abilities, and attitudes) combine to determine the followers’ receptivity to a particular leader and his or her personality and leadership style (Pierce & Newstrom, 1995). Past research links follower personality to a preference for a specific leadership style, but none of the research investigates the relationship using today’s most widely used descriptions of personality and leadership—the Big-Five model of personality and transformational-transactional leadership.

The theoretical model in this study is adopted from Yukl’s (1971) Discrepancy Model. Yukl’s model is summarized by the following three hypotheses:

1. Subordinate leadership preference is determined by the combined effect of subordinate personality and situational variables.
2. Subordinate satisfaction with the leader is a function of the discrepancy between the leader’s actual leadership style and the follower’s preferred leadership style.
3. Follower’s typically prefer a high degree of leader consideration and this preference results in a positive relation between consideration and satisfaction.

Yukl’s model has formed the foundation for much of the research regarding transformational leadership.

Theoretical Construct and Justification

The theoretical model developed for this study posits that an employee’s personality traits relate to his or her preferred style of leadership and perception of his or her manager’s actual leadership style. It also poses the hypothesis that the greater the difference between the employee’s preferred leadership style and the leader’s perceived
actual style, the lower the employee's perception of leader satisfaction and effectiveness.

In addition, the model depicts the relationship between a subordinate's satisfaction with
the leader and his or her perception of leader effectiveness. Last, demographics are
considered to moderate the affects of personality traits. The model is based on Yukl's
(1971) Discrepancy model and research done by Singer and Singer (1986, 1990), Tracey
and Hinkin (1994, 1996), and Judge and Bono (2000) that linked personality traits to
leadership styles.

Singer and Singer (1986) explored the possible links between subordinates' personal
traits and preference for transformational and transactional leadership. They used
the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Form 4 (an earlier version of the
Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Form 5X used in this study and described in detail
in Chapter 3) to measure leadership preference based on the respondents' rating of an
ideal leader. They also had the respondents answer the Affiliation, Achievement, and
Succorance subscales of the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule as well as a
conformity scale. Affiliation was the only factor that correlated significantly ($r = .186, p
< .05$) with the overall transformational score. Conformity was positively and
significantly correlated ($r = .183, p < .05$) with intellectual stimulation (one of the factors
of transformational leadership).

In 1990, Singer and Singer also looked at whether leader satisfaction was predicted
better by actual leadership style or the discrepancy between preferred and actual style as
postulated by Yukl (1971). Singer and Singer (1990) found that leader satisfaction was
predicted slightly better with the actual leadership score versus the discrepancy score:
however, both showed significant correlations with satisfaction ratings. The discrepancy
ratings were: charisma ($r = -.55, p < .01$); individualized consideration ($r = -.40, p < .01$):
and intellectual stimulation \( (r = -0.45, p < .01) \). The negative correlations indicate that as the difference between preferred leadership style and actual leadership style increases the less satisfied the employee is.

In 1994, Tracey and Hinkin compared transformational and transactional leadership and the effects of both on a number of outcomes. They found a positive relationship \( (r = 0.77, p < .01) \) between leadership effectiveness and leadership satisfaction. In 1996, they continued their research using a LISREL VII model and determined that leadership effectiveness (response variable) was related to leader satisfaction (predictor variable) with a path coefficient of 0.32 and a \( p < .01 \).

Judge and Bono (2000) studied the relationship of the five-factor model of personality (Big-Five) to transformational leadership. Their focus was on looking at the personality of leaders and their propensity to choose a leadership style based on their personality. They hypothesized that neuroticism is negatively related to transformational leadership: extraversion, openness, and agreeableness are positively related to transformational leadership; and because of a scarcity of empirical evidence did not offer a hypothesis regarding conscientiousness. Their results showed that neuroticism and conscientiousness are not significantly related to transformational leadership: extraversion \( (r = 0.22, p < .01 \) (two-tailed)): \( \beta = 0.15, p < .05 \) (one-tailed)) and agreeableness \( (r = 0.27, p < .01 \) (two-tailed)): \( \beta = 0.23, p < .01 \) (two-tailed)) are significantly related to transformational leadership: and openness is equivocal \( (r = 0.20, p < .01 \) (two-tailed)) since it was significantly correlated but not significant when entered in the multiple-regression for all personality variables.

This current study combines elements of the aforementioned research to see if employees' personality traits are related to preferred leadership factors and styles and whether subordinates' leadership preferences compared to actual leadership (as perceived
by the employee) predict leader satisfaction and ratings of effectiveness. The hypothesized relationship of personality traits to transformational leadership style were based on the results of Judge and Bono's (2000) results that found positive relationships among extraversion, openness, and agreeableness with transformational leadership and no relationship with neuroticism and conscientiousness. The assumption that followers with similar personality traits to their leaders will prefer the same leadership style is based on Sanford's (1952) study that showed that followers with an authoritarian personality preferred a strong, directive style of leadership, while those with a more equalitarian personality preferred leaders who exhibited a democratic style of leadership. Intuitively, since leaders also play a follower role their preferred leadership style as a follower would likely be the same as the leadership style that he or she uses as a leader. It is the age-old concept that people will do unto others as they desire others to do unto them. In other words, regardless of whether someone is in a leader or follower role, the preference for a specific leadership style for that person will be the same.

The model has four hypotheses. The theoretical model depicting the relationships in the model is in Figure 1.

Hypotheses

Based on previous research, the four research questions described in Chapter 1 were converted into four primary research hypotheses. The first hypothesis is divided into two hypotheses (H1 and H1-A) with sub-parts to each.

H1. Research question 1: How are an employee's personality traits related to the employee's preferred leadership style?
H₀: An employee’s personality traits are not related to his or her preference to be led by a specific leadership style.

Hₐ: An employee’s personality traits are significantly related to his or her preference to be led by a specific leadership style.

a. Neuroticism is related to transformational leadership.

b. Extraversion is positively related to a preference for transformational leadership.

c. Openness is positively related to a preference for transformational leadership.

d. Agreeableness is positively related to a preference for transformational leadership.

e. Conscientiousness is related to transformational leadership.

H₁A. Research question 1A: How are an employee’s personality traits and demographic variables (age, sex, and race) related to the employee’s preferred leadership style?

H₀: An employee’s personality traits and demographic variables (age, sex, and race) are not related to his or her preference to be led by a specific leadership style.

Hₐ: An employee’s personality traits moderated by demographic variables (age, sex, and race) are related to his or her preference to be led by a specific leadership style.

a. Neuroticism is related to transformational leadership.

b. Extraversion is positively related to a preference for transformational leadership.
c. Openness is positively related to a preference for transformational leadership.
d. Agreeableness is positively related to a preference for transformational leadership.
e. Conscientiousness is related to transformational leadership.
f. Age is related to transformational leadership.
g. Sex is related to transformational leadership.
h. Race is related to transformational leadership.

H2. Research question 2: How is the difference between an employee’s preferred leadership style and the employee’s perception of their leader’s actual leadership style related to the employee’s satisfaction with the leader?

H₀: The difference between an employee’s preferred leadership style and his or her perception of his or her leader’s actual leadership style is not related to the employee’s satisfaction with the leader.

H₁: The greater the difference between an employee’s preferred leadership style and his or her perception of his or her leader’s actual leadership style the lower the employee’s satisfaction with the leader.

H3. Research question 3: How is the difference between an employee’s preferred leadership style and the employee’s perception of their leader’s actual leadership style related to the employee’s rating of leader effectiveness?

H₀: The difference between an employee’s preferred leadership style and his or her perception of his or her leader’s actual leadership style is not related to the employee’s rating of leader effectiveness.
\( H_0: \) The greater the difference between an employee's preferred leadership style and his or her perception of his or her leader's actual leadership style the lower the employee's rating of leader effectiveness.

**H4.** Research question 4: How is an employee’s perception of leader effectiveness related to the employee’s satisfaction with the leader?

\( H_0: \) An employee’s satisfaction with his or her leader is not related to the employee’s rating of leader effectiveness.

\( H_1: \) An employee’s satisfaction with his or her leader is positively related to the employee’s rating of leader effectiveness.

**Theoretical Model**

The model depicted in Figure 1 is a graphical representation of the relationships between variables involved in this study. The specific hypotheses in this study are annotated as \( H1 \) (Hypothesis 1), \( H1A \) (Hypothesis 1A), \( H2 \) (Hypothesis 2), \( H3 \) (Hypothesis 3), and \( H4 \) (Hypothesis 4).
Figure 1. Theoretical model for Hypotheses 1, 1A, 2, 3, and 4.
CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

This chapter will describe the research design that has been adopted to test the theoretical model and hypotheses. The population, sampling procedures, research instruments, and data analysis used to collect and evaluate the data will be discussed.

Research Design

This study used surveys to collect primary data. The quantity and nature of data needed made this method cost-effective and time-efficient. The two assessment instruments chosen for this study were the Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaire Form 5X (MLQ) by Bass and Avolio (2000) and the (NEO-FFI) Five-Factor Personality Questionnaire by Costa and McCrae (1991). Copyright permission was obtained for both instruments. The survey was also approved by the University of Nevada, Las Vegas’ Office for the Protection of Research Subjects and given an approval number of OPRS 603S701-059. The United States Air Force also approved the instrument with the survey control Number of USAF SCN 01-083.

Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaire Form 5X

The MLQ is the most frequently used measure of transformational leadership (Judge & Bono, 2000). The MLQ has been revised a number of times. Several authors criticized earlier versions of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ, Form 5R) for
inadequate discriminant validity among the factors comprising the survey (Bass and Avolio, 2000). However, the latest version has attempted to correct this and is now considered valid and reliable. The latest version of the MLQ Form 5X Second Edition (2000) consists of 45 questions. The instrument yields a score for transformational leadership and a score for transactional leadership. It also produces a score for extra effort, leader effectiveness, and leader satisfaction. The questions are rated on a five-point frequency scale from 0 being “Not at all” to 4 being “Frequently, if not always.”

Validity

The new MLQ Form 5X used fourteen samples to validate and cross-validate the questionnaire as opposed to earlier versions that used nine samples with no cross-validation. It is believed that the results generated from the new version can be generalized better than in the past (Bass and Avolio, 2000).

Reliability

All of the scales on the MLQ Form 5X generally showed high reliability (.74-.94) exceeding standard cut-offs for internal consistency. “The reliabilities within each data set generally indicated that the MLQ 5X was reliably measuring each of the leadership factors...with some minor deviations” (Bass and Avolio, 2000, p. 12).

Leadership measurements

Leadership preference and perceived leadership were measured by Bass and Avolio’s (2000) nine factors (Tables 3 & 4) that were collapsed to provide one score for transformational leadership and one score for transactional leadership. This was done twice. The first set of two scores (TA_A, TF_A) is the respondent’s perception of their leader’s actual leadership style and the second set of two scores is the respondent’s
Table 3

**Transactional Leadership Factor Definitions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Contingent reward</td>
<td>Leader clarifies what is expected from followers and what they will receive if they meet expected levels of performance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management-by-exception (active)</td>
<td>Leader focuses on monitoring task execution for problems that might arise and correcting those problems to maintain performance levels.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management-by-exception (passive)</td>
<td>Leader tends to react only after problems have become serious enough to require corrective action and is oftentimes characterized by decision avoidance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laissez-faire</td>
<td>The absence of leadership or management.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The difference between the preferred transformational score \( (TF_P) \) and the preferred transactional score \( (TA_P) \) is the leadership preference score \( (LP) \). It is a number between negative 4 and positive 4. Negative 4 represents someone who prefers a leader that is 100 percent transactional and zero percent transformational and 4 represents someone who prefers a leader who is 100 percent transformational and zero percent transactional. This score is used as a continuous variable for the regression analysis in Hypothesis 1.

The absolute difference between the preferred transactional leadership score \( (TA_P) \) and the perceived actual transactional leadership score \( (TA_A) \) is the transactional difference.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Idealized attributes</td>
<td>Leader provides a model for ethical conduct that builds identification with the leader and his/her articulated vision based on leader attributes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Idealized behaviors</td>
<td>Leader provides a model for ethical conduct that builds identification with the leader and his/her articulated vision based on leader behaviors.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inspirational motivation</td>
<td>Leader provides followers with a clear sense of purpose that is energizing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intellectual stimulation</td>
<td>Leader gets followers to question the tried and true ways of solving problems and encourages them to question the methods they use to improve upon them.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individualized consideration</td>
<td>Leader attends to and supports the individual needs of followers.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Score (TAD). The absolute difference between the preferred transformational leadership score (TF_p) and the perceived actual transformational leadership score (TF_A) is the transformational difference score (TFD). Both TAD and TFD will be used as continuous variables in the regression analysis for Hypotheses 2 and 3. Hypothesis 4 will use the perceived actual satisfaction and perceived actual effectiveness scores from the MLQ. A summary of all variables used in this study is located in Table 5 at the end of this chapter.
Five-Factor Model Personality Questionnaire (NEO-FFI)

The five-factor model has been used since the 1960s as an effective tool to identify and structure personality traits. The five-factor model provides a common basis to compare individual personalities across different fields of study. The most widely accepted survey instrument used to measure the five factors is the NEO PI-R that consists of 240 items assessing the Big Five personality traits. Botwin (1995) says the NEO PI-R exhibits relatively high internal consistency, high test-retest reliability, and strong convergent and discriminant validity. The NEO PI-R has an internal consistency of .86-.95 and has been validated against other personality inventories. The NEO-FFI is the shortened, 60-question version of the NEO PI-R and is used in this study.

Validity

This NEO-FFI questionnaire has a correlation of .77-.92 with the NEO PI-R long form and is considered to be a valid instrument in its own right (Psychological Assessment Resources, 2001).

Reliability

The internal consistency values (.68-.86) for the short form (NEO-FFI) are slightly lower than the long form (.86-.95) but are still quite reliable (Psychological Assessment Resources, 2001).

Personality traits in the five-factor model are: neuroticism, extraversion, openness, conscientiousness, and agreeableness (HRZone, 1998). Each respondent received a total score for each factor from zero to 48. The score is used as a continuous variable.
Demographic Variables

Bass and Avolio (2000) have found that women are more transformational than their male counterparts. Costa and McCrae (1992) report that women tend to score higher on neuroticism and agreeableness than men. They also report that older individuals tend to score slightly lower on neuroticism, extraversion, and openness and higher on agreeableness and conscientiousness than younger adults. Although the literature does not support the possible moderating effects of race, the three demographic variables (sex, age, and race) considered inherent (traits) to the individual are controlled for in the statistical model for Hypothesis 1A.

Population and Sampling Procedures

The population for this study is institutional foodservice workers in the United States Air Force. The sampling frame consisted of a convenience sample of 327 foodservice employees (both military and civilian) from three different bases. The bases represent a good cross section of the Air Force and are from three different geographic locations to eliminate regional bias.

Administration of Research Instruments

An official at each base administered the survey. Respondents were told and provided an invitation letter that informed them that all submissions are strictly confidential. The respondents were given duty time to complete the survey to encourage a greater response rate. The questionnaire asked the respondents to answer the MLQ twice. The first time they were asked to rate their “current” manager. The second time they were asked to rate their “ideal” supervisor. The NEO-FFI was administered between the two MLQ
assessments. In addition, a demographic section was included as the last part of the questionnaire. The demographic questions asked sex, age, race, employee type (military or civilian), employee status (full-time or part-time), years of experience, skill level, primary job, and education level. The data collection period was four weeks. All bases performed a follow-up request for submission to maximize the response rate.

Statistical Data Analysis

Pearson product-moment correlation was used to investigate the intercorrelation of the personality predictor variables to check for multicollinearity. Then each hypothesis was tested with regression models. All hypotheses were tested at the $\alpha = .05$ significance level, the commonly accepted level for Type I error in this field of study. The statistical models are in Appendix A (Figures A1-A7). Table 5 lists the abbreviations used in the analysis.

Hypothesis 1 was analyzed with two regressions. The first regressed leadership preference (LP) against the five predictor variables (neuroticism, extraversion, openness, agreeableness, and conscientiousness) (Figure A1). Hypothesis 1A was the same as the first but added a system of dummy variables for age, race, and sex as predictor variables (Figure A2) to investigate the possible moderating effects of those three demographic variables. Age was used as a continuous variable using respondent’s actual age. The groups for race were collapsed into the five categories (Black, Hispanic, White, Asian, and Other).

Hypothesis 2 was analyzed with two simple linear regression models. The first regressed satisfaction with the leader (LSAT) against the difference (TFD) between preferred (TFP) and perceived actual (TF_A) transformational leadership as the predictor
variable (Figure A3). The second regressed satisfaction with the leader (LSAT) against the difference (TAD) between preferred (TAp) and perceived actual (TAa) transactional leadership as the predictor variable (Figure A4).

Hypothesis 3 was analyzed with two simple linear regression models. The first regressed the rating of leader effectiveness (LEFF) against the difference (TFD) between preferred (TFp) and perceived actual (TFa) transformational leadership as the predictor variable (Figure A5). The second regressed the rating of leader effectiveness (LEFF) against the difference (TAD) between preferred (TAp) and perceived actual (TAa) transactional leadership as the predictor variable (Figure A6).

Hypothesis 4 was analyzed with simple regression that regressed leader effectiveness (LEFF) against leader satisfaction (LSAT) as the predictor variable (Figure A7).

Summary

The methodology used in this study should yield findings that will be useful in either supporting or not supporting the research hypotheses. While all research will have some measure of error, it is hoped that the sample, the assessment instruments, and the statistics chosen will reflect the true population, research objectives, and provide insight into the organizational phenomenon known as leadership.
Table 5

Key to Variables Used in the Data Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Neuroticism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>Extraversion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>O</td>
<td>Openness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Agreeableness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Conscientiousness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TA&lt;sub&gt;P&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>Preferred Transactional Leadership Score</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TA&lt;sub&gt;A&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>Perceived Actual Transactional Leadership Score</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TF&lt;sub&gt;P&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>Preferred Transformational Leadership Score</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TF&lt;sub&gt;A&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>Perceived Actual Transformational Leadership Score</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PL = TF&lt;sub&gt;P&lt;/sub&gt; - TA&lt;sub&gt;P&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>Preferred Leadership Score</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TAD = TA&lt;sub&gt;P&lt;/sub&gt; - TA&lt;sub&gt;A&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>Transactional Leadership Difference Score</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TFD = TF&lt;sub&gt;P&lt;/sub&gt; - TF&lt;sub&gt;A&lt;/sub&gt;</td>
<td>Transformational Leadership Difference Score</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LSAT</td>
<td>Leader Satisfaction Score</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LEFF</td>
<td>Leader Effectiveness Score</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CHAPTER 4

ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF THE DATA

This study investigates the relationship between employee personality traits and employees' preference for transactional and transformational leadership style. It also investigates the relationships between the difference in preferred and perceived actual leadership to the employee's level of satisfaction and rating of leader effectiveness. Last it looks at the effect leader satisfaction has on ratings of leader effectiveness.

Participation

Respondents were surveyed from three United States Air Force bases. Surveys were sent to a total of 327 foodservice workers consisting of both military and civilians. Of the 327, 124 (38%) took the survey. Of those 124, nineteen of the surveys were incomplete and had to be discarded. The overall useable questionnaires were 105 for a 32% effective response rate.

Description of the Sample

The demographic variables collected in the survey included sex, race, age, employee type, employee status, experience, skill level, job, and education level. The results are depicted in Appendix B (Figures B1 to B9).
Data Analysis

The analysis was done using the Minitab Release 13.1 (2000) statistical software package. Each hypothesis was tested individually and significant relationships at the $\alpha = .05$ level are noted. The primary statistical models used are correlation and regression.

The basic assumptions for linear models are met. The samples are randomly selected and independent from each other. The independent and dependent variables are continuous and not categorical. The population from which the samples are selected is normally distributed as confirmed through use of normal probability plots and residuals versus fits plots. Central tendencies for the variables are listed in Table 6 and Table 7.

Table 6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Trait</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Neuroticism</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>17.12</td>
<td>6.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extraversion</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>30.47</td>
<td>5.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Openness</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>26.93</td>
<td>5.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agreeableness</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>30.73</td>
<td>6.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conscientiousness</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>36.64</td>
<td>5.92</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 7

Means and Standard Deviations for Preferred Leadership Style

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Style</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Transformational</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>2.97</td>
<td>0.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transactional</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>1.79</td>
<td>0.52</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 states that an employee’s personality traits are significantly related to his or her preference to be led by a specific leadership style. Specifically:

a. Neuroticism is related to transformational leadership.

b. Extraversion is positively related to a preference for transformational leadership.

c. Openness is positively related to a preference for transformational leadership.

d. Agreeableness is positively related to a preference for transformational leadership.

e. Conscientiousness is related to transformational leadership.

The Pearson product-moment correlation shows the relationship that all five independent personality traits (neuroticism (N), extraversion (E), openness (O), agreeableness (A), and conscientiousness (C)) have with each other. The results are in Table 8. The results indicate that six of the combinations show some intercorrelation; however, none of the correlation coefficients are large enough to indicate multicollinearity. Given the little effect of intercorrelation, multiple regression (without demographics as moderating...
variables) is used to adjust for the influence of the other traits. Table 9 provides the results of the regression. Openness and agreeableness are positively and statistically significant. Neuroticism, extraversion, and conscientiousness are not significantly related.

Table 8

**Pearson Product-moment Correlation Coefficient for Personality Traits**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Trait</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>E</th>
<th>O</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>C</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Neuroticism</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extraversion</td>
<td>-.43***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Openness</td>
<td>-.08</td>
<td>.32***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agreeableness</td>
<td>-.18</td>
<td>.40***</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conscientiousness</td>
<td>-.38***</td>
<td>.37***</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.45***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: *** p ≤ .001*

Table 9

**Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Preference for Transformational Leadership without Demographic Variables**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Trait</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE Coef</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Neuroticism</td>
<td>-.0015</td>
<td>.0120</td>
<td>-0.12</td>
<td>.902</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extraversion</td>
<td>.0022</td>
<td>.0148</td>
<td>0.15</td>
<td>.885</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Openness</td>
<td>.0326</td>
<td>.0135</td>
<td>2.41</td>
<td>.018*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agreeableness</td>
<td>.0277</td>
<td>.0130</td>
<td>2.13</td>
<td>.035*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conscientiousness</td>
<td>-.0003</td>
<td>.0144</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td>.986</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note: R² = 13.7%; * p < .05*
Hypothesis 1A

Hypothesis 1A states that an employee's personality traits moderated by demographic variables (age, sex, and race) are related to his or her preference to be led by a specific leadership style. Specifically:

a. Neuroticism is related to transformational leadership.

b. Extraversion is positively related to a preference for transformational leadership.

c. Openness is positively related to a preference for transformational leadership.

d. Agreeableness is positively related to a preference for transformational leadership.

e. Conscientiousness is related to transformational leadership.

f. Age is related to transformational leadership.

g. Sex is related to transformational leadership.

h. Race is related to transformational leadership.

Table 10 provides the results of the regression.

When demographic variables are included in the regression model openness is no longer statistically significant; however, agreeableness is statistically significant and positively related to leadership preference and age is statistically significant and negatively related to leadership preference. Combined, the two account for 27.5 % (R² = .275) of the variance in leadership preference with age significant at p < .001 and agreeableness significant at p < .005. Neuroticism, extraversion, openness, conscientiousness, sex, and race are not statistically significantly related.
Table 10

Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Preference for Transformational Leadership with Demographic Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Trait</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SE Coef</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Neuroticism</td>
<td>-.0079</td>
<td>.0136</td>
<td>-0.58</td>
<td>.563</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extraversion</td>
<td>.0052</td>
<td>.0143</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>.717</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Openness</td>
<td>.0153</td>
<td>.0128</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>.235</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agreeableness</td>
<td>.0371</td>
<td>.0121</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>.003**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conscientiousness</td>
<td>.0042</td>
<td>.0132</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>.749</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sex</td>
<td>-.2223</td>
<td>.1418</td>
<td>-1.57</td>
<td>.120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-.0300</td>
<td>.0063</td>
<td>-4.76</td>
<td>.000***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black</td>
<td>-.0440</td>
<td>.3159</td>
<td>-0.14</td>
<td>.890</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>.0141</td>
<td>.3598</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>.969</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>.0089</td>
<td>.3006</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>.977</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>.6213</td>
<td>.4290</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>.151</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Asia is highly correlated with other predictor variables and was removed from the equation: $R^2 = 37.1\%$: **$p < .005$; ***$p < .001$

With the demographics included as moderating variables, the results fail to reject the null for Hypotheses 1A.a (neuroticism), 1A.b (extraversion), 1A.c (openness), 1A.e (conscientiousness), 1A.g (sex), and 1A.h (race). The results do support Hypotheses 1A.d (agreeableness) and 1A.f (age).
Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2 states that the greater the difference between an employee’s preferred leadership style and his or her perception of his or her leader’s actual leadership style the lower the employee’s satisfaction with the leader. Two linear regressions test this hypothesis.

The first regression compares the difference in the employee’s perception of the leader’s actual transformational leadership score and the employee’s preferred transformational leadership score to the employee’s leader satisfaction score. The regression result yields a negative regression coefficient of $B = -0.841$, $p < .001$ and a coefficient of determination of $r^2 = 0.423$. In other words, 42.3% of the proportion of variability in employee satisfaction with leadership is accounted for by the difference between his or her difference in perceived and preferred transformational leadership score, i.e., as the transformational leadership score difference increases satisfaction decreases.

The second regression compares the difference in the employee’s perception of the leader’s actual transactional leadership score and the employee’s preferred transactional leadership score to the employee’s leader satisfaction score. The regression result yields a negative regression coefficient of $B = -1.478$, $p < .001$ and an $r^2 = .142$.

Both regressions support Hypothesis 2. Essentially, the greater the difference between an employee’s preferred leadership style and their perception of their leader’s actual leadership style the lower the employee’s satisfaction with the leader.

Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3 states that the greater the difference between an employee’s preferred leadership style and his or her perception of his or her leader’s actual leadership style the
lower the employee's rating of leader effectiveness. Two linear regressions test this hypothesis.

The first regression compares the difference in the employee's perception of the leader's actual transformational leadership score and the employee's preferred transformational leadership score to the employee's rating of leader effectiveness score. The regression result yields a negative regression coefficient of $B = -0.826$, $p < .001$ and an $r^2 = .414$. In other words, 41.4% of the proportion of variability in employee rating of leader effectiveness is accounted for by the difference between his or her difference in perceived and preferred transformational leadership score. i.e., as the transformational leadership difference score increases ratings of leader effectiveness decrease.

The second regression compares the difference in the employee's perception of the leader's actual transactional leadership score and the employee's preferred transactional leadership score to the employee's rating of leader effectiveness. The regression result yields a negative regression coefficient of $B = -1.366$, $p < .001$ and an $r^2 = .123$.

Both regressions support Hypothesis 3 which state that the greater the difference between an employee's preferred leadership style and their perception of their leader's actual leadership style the lower the employee's rating of leader effectiveness.

**Hypothesis 4**

Hypothesis 4 states that an employee's satisfaction with his or her leader is positively related to the employee's rating of leader effectiveness. Linear regression was used to test this hypothesis. Previous research (Tracey & Hinkin, 1996) found a significant path coefficient between measures of leader satisfaction and leader effectiveness using LISREL VII. In response, the regression model in this study used leader satisfaction as the predictor variable and leader effectiveness as the outcome variable.
The regression analysis yields a positive regression coefficient of $B = .859$, $p < .001$ and an $r^2 = .748$. In other words, 74.8% of the proportion of variability in ratings of leader effectiveness is accounted for by employee satisfaction with the leader. The regression analysis supports Hypothesis 4 that states that an employee’s perception of leader effectiveness is positively related to the employee’s satisfaction with the leader.

Summary of Results

The statistical analysis provides support for Hypotheses:

H1.c: Openness is positively related to a preference for transformational leadership.

H1.d: Agreeableness is positively related to a preference for transformational leadership.

H1A.d: Agreeableness is positively related to a preference for transformational leadership.

H1A.f: Age is related to transformational leadership.

H2: The greater the difference between an employee’s preferred leadership style and his or her perception of his or her leader’s actual leadership style the lower the employee’s satisfaction with the leader.

H3: The greater the difference between an employee’s preferred leadership style and his or her perception of his or her leader’s actual leadership style the lower the employee’s rating of leader effectiveness.

H4: An employee’s satisfaction with his or her leader is positively related to the employee’s rating of leader effectiveness.

The analysis fails to reject the null for Hypotheses:

H1.a: Neuroticism is related to transformational leadership.

H1.b: Extraversion positively related to a preference for transformational leadership.
H1.e: Conscientiousness is related to transformational leadership.

H1A.a: Neuroticism is related to transformational leadership.

H1A.b: Extraversion positively related to a preference for transformational leadership.

H1A.c: Openness is positively related to a preference for transformational leadership.

H1A.e: Conscientiousness is related to transformational leadership.

H1A.g: Sex is related to transformational leadership.

H1A.h: Race is related to transformational leadership.
CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, FINDINGS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this study is to examine how employee personality traits relate to a preferred leadership style and how the differences between preferred and actual leadership style relate to employee perceptions of leader satisfaction and effectiveness. The results of the study provide valuable information in regards to the stated purpose.

Findings and Implications

Hypothesis 1

The relationship between employee personality traits as measured by the Big-Five personality taxonomy do not play as important a role in the employee’s preference for a specific leadership style as hypothesized. In fact, the only personality trait that is statistically significant (demographics included) is agreeableness with a regression coefficient of $B = .0371$ and a significance level of $p < .05$.

Initially, a binary logistic regression was run with the five personality traits as predictor variables and a preference for transformational leadership as the response variable. The results indicated that none of the Big-Five personality traits were statistically significant predictors.
Since the sample size was fairly small (n=105) the Statistical Consulting Center at the University of Nevada, Las Vegas recommends using multiple regression with the Big-Five as predictor variables and the difference between preference for transformational leadership and preference for transactional leadership as the response variable. This statistical test results in openness and agreeableness as statistically significant predictors. However, the significance of openness disappears when the same regression is run with the addition of the demographic variables age, sex, and race. This regression reveals that age is statistically significant as well. The moderating affect of age is anticipated. Costa & McCrea (1992) reveal that age sometimes has a slight affect on personality trait scores. Overall, 37.1% of the variability in leadership preference is accounted for by the Big-Five personality traits, age, sex, and race.

As a person becomes more agreeable, his or her preference for transformational leadership increases. This result supports Hypothesis 1.d and 1A.d. Costa, Jr. & McCrae, (1992) identify agreeable individuals as altruistic, sympathetic, and eager to help others. Agreeable people also believe that others will be equally as helpful back. Agreeable individuals possess behaviors of transformational leaders (individual consideration and inspirational motivation) and expect the same in return. Hence, the relationship between agreeableness and preference for transformational leadership makes sense.

The study indicates that as a person gets older, his or her preference for transformational leadership decreases. This may be related to an individual requiring less assurance and challenges as he or she ages. It might be that as people grow older, they become more self-confident and require less approval and inspiration from others. This may have something to do with the observed negative relationship between age and preference for transformational leadership.
Additionally, results of the study show that 93% of the respondents prefer transformational leadership to transactional leadership. The results of a T-test performed on those that preferred transactional leadership and those that preferred transformational leadership indicate that the two groups are significantly different (t = 15.85, p < .001). Previous research (Singer & Singer, 1990) supports this finding that most people prefer transformational leadership.

Like Judge and Bono (2000) this study is unable to relate neuroticism and conscientiousness to a preference for transformational leadership. In many ways, this makes sense and is the reason this study did not hypothesize a positive or negative relationship with these two personality traits. Intuitively, those that score low or high in neuroticism and conscientiousness could easily show a preference for either transformational or transactional leadership. Aspects of both transformational and transactional leadership fit well with specific needs of high and low scorers on neuroticism and conscientiousness; hence, results showing neither as significant predictors for a specific leadership preference is expected.

The main implication from Hypothesis 1A is that aside from agreeableness, personality traits play little, if any role, in predicting a preference for a specific leadership style. However, the data clearly indicates that the majority of all employees prefer transformational leadership to transactional leadership.

**Hypothesis 2**

As expected, as the difference between an employee's preferred leadership style and the employee's actual leadership style increases the less satisfied the employee is with his or her leader. This relationship regresses leader satisfaction to the difference between the perceived actual and preferred transformational scores and the perceived actual and
preferred transactional scores. The difference between the transformational scores ($r^2 = .423$) account for substantially more of the variance in leader satisfaction than the difference between transactional scores ($r^2 = .142$). While both are significant, the difference between preferred and actual transformational scores account for 28.1% more of the variance in leadership satisfaction.

The implication of this finding is that failing to provide transformational leadership to those employees that prefer it significantly reduces the employee's leader satisfaction. As employee satisfaction decreases, employee turnover can increase, customer satisfaction can decrease, and organizational effectiveness can decline (Kotler et al., 1999). This finding is important for all leaders looking to improve overall organizational performance.

**Hypothesis 3**

Also, as expected, as the difference between an employee’s preferred leadership style and the employee’s actual leadership style increases, the less effective the employee considers his or her leader. This relationship also uses regression to predict ratings of leader effectiveness with perceived actual and preferred transformational scores and the perceived actual and preferred transactional scores as predictor variables. The difference between the transformational scores ($r^2 = .414$) accounts for substantially more of the variance in leader effectiveness than the difference between transactional scores ($r^2 = .123$). While both are significant, the difference between preferred and actual transformational scores account for 29.1% more of the variance in leader effectiveness.

The implication of this finding is the same as in Hypothesis 2. A failure to provide transformational leadership to those employees that prefer it significantly reduces the employee’s rating of leader effectiveness. Perceptions of leader effectiveness can impact
morale and has similar consequences to decreased satisfaction. This finding is also important for leaders looking to improve overall organizational performance.

**Hypothesis 4**

The result yields a $B = .8589$ with an $r^2 = .748$ at the $p < .001$ significance level. In other words, leader satisfaction accounts for 74.8% of the variance in ratings of leader effectiveness.

The implication of this finding ties to Hypothesis 2. Since ratings of leader effectiveness are so strongly related to ratings of leader satisfaction, it would benefit a leader to provide a leadership style that boosts satisfaction levels. This study indicates that narrowing the gap between the employees' preferred level of transformational leadership style and the leader's actual transformational leadership style is one way of accomplishing this.

**Recommendations for Future Research**

This study accomplishes its objective of determining the linkage between employee Big-Five personality traits and transformational leadership. Although this study lacks generalizability given the narrow population the sample was taken from, it still provides some insight for managers and leaders. While agreeableness was the only trait (with demographics as moderating variables) statistically significant in predicting a preference for a leadership style, the data clearly shows that most employees (93%) in the study prefer transformational to transactional leadership. The study also establishes strong predictive models linking transformational leadership to leader satisfaction and leader effectiveness and, additionally, leader satisfaction to leader effectiveness. It would appear
that leaders would be wise to emphasize transformational leadership for overall organizational improvement.

While this study attempted to address several suggestions from the literature to relate personal attributes to the leader-follower relationship, it is not without flaws. Future research should:

1. Attempt to replicate the study with a larger sample size.
2. Study the social desirability aspects of the assessment instruments and their impact on the results in regard to transformational leadership preference.
3. Use a more diverse population to make the results more generalizable.
4. Explore other major contributors to leader satisfaction.
5. Investigate the relationship between transformational leadership and employee effort and/or productivity.
6. Investigate the relationship between transformational leadership and turnover, absenteeism, customer satisfaction, and organizational performance.
7. Examine contextual variables and their relationship with transformational leadership (e.g., high cognitive versus low cognitive jobs).

Summary and Implications for Industry

The results of this study indicate that employees overwhelmingly prefer transformational leadership (93%) to transactional leadership. If this is the case, it would behoove organizational leaders and managers to adopt leadership practices that are more transformational in nature. This would include such learnable transformational practices such as providing employees intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, and
inspirational motivation. It would also be beneficial for leaders to incorporate as much idealized influence as possible by setting the example for employees to follow.

While this study involves only foodservice workers, it supports previous research that suggests that the context has little influence on employee leadership preference. The foodservice industry is relatively task oriented and transactional in organizational structure, yet employees still prefer transformational leadership. The environment and its influence on leadership preference is also noted as an area for future research.

Possibly the biggest insight for industry is the fact that personality played little role in the preference for leadership. Hence, people may be more generic in their needs for leadership than expected. As organizations find their workforce more diverse, managers seek the best way to manage that diversity. The solution for leaders may be more simplistic than anticipated—be more transformational. Recognize employees as people instead of labor units. Realize that employees need to be nurtured as well as trained and that they are looking for more than just a tangible reward for their efforts to the organization. It is suggested that leaders (i.e., managers and supervisors) provide for their employees a vision and mission, make their employees an integral part of the team, and offer the employees the opportunity to enrich themselves through their work.

Leadership will continue to tantalize the minds of researchers, as it has in the past, as long as there are leaders and followers. Today's popular management books espouse the benefits of employee empowerment, human capital, and team orientations with subjective references to leadership success. While it only scratches the surface, this study helps bridge the gap between the anecdotal and empirical realities of the leader-follower exchange process known as leadership.
APPENDIX A

REGRESSION MODELS FOR

HYPOTHESIS 1, 1A, 2, 3, AND 4
\[ Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Neuroticism}_{i1} + \beta_2 \text{Extraversion}_{i2} + \beta_3 \text{Openness}_{i3} + \beta_4 \text{Agreeableness}_{i4} + \beta_5 \text{Conscientiousness}_{i5} + \epsilon \]

Where:
- \( Y_i \) = response in the i-th trial
- \( \beta_0 \) = constant
- \( \text{Neuroticism}_{i1} \) = neuroticism response value in the i-th trial
- \( \text{Extraversion}_{i2} \) = extraversion response value in the i-th trial
- \( \text{Openness}_{i3} \) = openness response value in the i-th trial
- \( \text{Agreeableness}_{i4} \) = agreeableness response value in the i-th trial
- \( \text{Conscientiousness}_{i5} \) = conscientiousness response value in the i-th trial
- \( \epsilon \) = error term — all other two-way interactions and higher interactions

**Figure A1.** Multiple Regression Model for Hypothesis 1 with Leadership Preference (LP) as the Response Variable.
\[ Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Neuroticism}_{i1} + \beta_2 \text{Extraversion}_{i2} + \beta_3 \text{Openness}_{i3} + \beta_4 \text{Agreeableness}_{i4} + \beta_5 \text{Conscientiousness}_{i5} + \beta_6 \text{SexA}_{i6} + \beta_7 \text{SexB}_{i7} + \beta_8 \text{Age}_{i8} + \beta_9 \text{RaceA}_{i9} + \beta_{10} \text{RaceB}_{i10} + \beta_{11} \text{RaceC}_{i11} + \beta_{12} \text{RaceD}_{i12} + \beta_{13} \text{RaceE}_{i13} + \varepsilon \]

Where:
- \( Y_i \) = response in the i-th trial
- \( \beta_0 \) = constant
- \( \text{Neuroticism}_{i1} \) = neuroticism response value in the i-th trial
- \( \text{Extraversion}_{i2} \) = extraversion response value in the i-th trial
- \( \text{Openness}_{i3} \) = openness response value in the i-th trial
- \( \text{Agreeableness}_{i4} \) = agreeableness response value in the i-th trial
- \( \text{Conscientiousness}_{i5} \) = conscientiousness response value in the i-th trial
- \( \text{SexA}_{i6} \) = dummy variable response in the i-th trial for sex = male
- \( \text{SexB}_{i7} \) = dummy variable response in the i-th trial for sex = female
- \( \text{Age}_{i8} \) = age response value in the i-th trial
- \( \text{RaceA}_{i9} \) = dummy variable response in the i-th trial for race = black
- \( \text{RaceB}_{i10} \) = dummy variable response in the i-th trial for race = hispanic
- \( \text{RaceC}_{i11} \) = dummy variable response in the i-th trial for race = white
- \( \text{RaceD}_{i12} \) = dummy variable response in the i-th trial for race = asian
- \( \text{RaceE}_{i13} \) = dummy variable response in the i-th trial for race = other
- \( \varepsilon \) = error term – all other two-way interactions and higher interactions

**Figure A2.** Multiple Regression Model for Hypothesis 1A with Leadership Preference (LP) as the Response Variable.
Where:

\[ Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 TFD_{i1} + \varepsilon \]

- \( Y_i \): response in the i-th trial
- \( \beta_0 \): constant
- \( TFD_{i1} \): transformational difference response value in the i-th trial
- \( \varepsilon \): error term – all other two-way interactions and higher interactions

Figure A3. Regression Model for Hypothesis 2 with Leader Satisfaction (LSAT) as the Response Variable (Transformational).

\[ Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 TAD_{i1} + \varepsilon \]

- \( Y_i \): response in the i-th trial
- \( \beta_0 \): constant
- \( TAD_{i1} \): transactional difference response value in the i-th trial
- \( \varepsilon \): error term – all other two-way interactions and higher interactions

Figure A4. Regression Model for Hypothesis 2 with Leader Satisfaction (LSAT) as the Response Variable (Transactional).
Figure A5. Regression Model for Hypothesis 3 with Leader Effectiveness (LEFF) as the Response Variable (Transformational).

\[ Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 TFD_{i1} + \varepsilon \]
Where:
- \( Y_i \) = response in the i-th trial
- \( \beta_0 \) = constant
- \( TFD_{i1} \) = transformational difference response value in the i-th trial
- \( \varepsilon \) = error term – all other two-way interactions and higher interactions

Figure A6. Regression Model for Hypothesis 3 with Leader Effectiveness (LEFF) as the Response Variable (Transactional).

\[ Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 TAD_{i1} + \varepsilon \]
Where:
- \( Y_i \) = response in the i-th trial
- \( \beta_0 \) = constant
- \( TAD_{i1} \) = transactional difference response value in the i-th trial
- \( \varepsilon \) = error term – all other two-way interactions and higher interactions
$Y_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 LSAT_{ii} + \varepsilon$

Where:

$Y_i =$ response in the i-th trial

$\beta_0 =$ constant

$LSAT_{ii} =$ leadership satisfaction response value in the i-th trial

$\varepsilon =$ error term – all other two-way interactions and higher interactions

Figure A7. Regression Model for Hypothesis 4 with Leader Effectiveness (LEFF) as the Response Variable.
APPENDIX B

DEMOGRAPHICS
Figure B1. Respondent Sex

Figure B2. Respondent Age
Figure B3. Respondent Race

Figure B4. Respondent Employee Type
Figure B5. Respondent Employee Status

Figure B6. Respondent Work Experience
Figure B7. Respondent Skill Level

Figure B8. Respondent Job Duty
Figure B9. Respondent Educational Level
DATE: August 7, 2001

TO: Thomas Kuhn, Jr.

FROM: Dr. Fred Preston
UNLV Social/Behavioral Sciences Institutional Review Board

RE: Status on Research Project Entitled: "The Relationship Between Subordinate Personality Traits and Leadership Style in the Food Service Industry"

OPRS Number: 6035701-059

Approval Date: August 3, 2001

This memorandum is official notification that the protocol for the project referenced above has been reviewed by the Office for the Protection of Research Subjects. The protocol has been determined as having met the criteria for exemption from full review by the UNLV Social/Behavioral Sciences Institutional Review Board. In compliance with this determination the protocol has received approval through the expedited review procedure. The protocol is approved for a period of one year from the date of this notification and work on the project may proceed. The approval is effective August 3, 2001 and will continue for a period of one year.

Should the use of human subjects described in the referenced protocol continue beyond a year from the approval date, it will be necessary to request an extension.

If you have questions or require any assistance, please contact the Office for the Protection of Research Subjects at 895-2794.

cc: OPRS File
APPENDIX D

PARTICIPANT INFORMED CONSENT FORM
Title of Project:
The Relationship Between Employee Personality Traits and Preferred Leadership Style in the Foodservice Industry.

Person in Charge:
Primary Investigator
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(702) 895-1795 or andyf@nevada.edu

Introduction:
You are invited to participate in this survey that focuses on how personality traits of foodservice employees may demonstrate a desire for a specific style of leadership.

1. This section provides an explanation of the study in which you will be participating:

   A. The study in which you will be participating is part of research intended to determine how employee personality traits are related to preferences for particular leadership styles. The information obtained from this study will help foodservice providers incorporate appropriate leadership styles to improve employee satisfaction and overall organizational effectiveness.

   B. Your participation in this research will take a total of about thirty minutes and will be authorized during normal duty time. You will not suffer any loss of compensation.

2. This section describes your rights as a research participant:

   A. You may ask any questions about the research procedures and these questions will be answered. Questions should be directed to Thomas Kuhn or Dr. Andrew Feinstein at the numbers above.
B. Your participation in this research is confidential. Only Thomas Kuhn (a graduate research student) and Dr. Andrew Feinstein will have access to information collected in this study in its raw form. Responses from surveys will be compiled to ensure anonymity of participants and all raw materials will be retained in a locked filing cabinet in the office of Dr. Andrew Feinstein (BEH 550) for three years, and then destroyed. In the event of publication of this research, no personally identifying information will be disclosed in any form.

C. Your participation is voluntary. You are free to stop participating in the research at any time or to decline to answer any specific questions without penalty.

D. This study involves minimal risk; that is, no risks to your physical or mental health beyond those encountered in the normal course of everyday life.

E. If you have more questions regarding your rights as a research subject, please contact the UNLV Office of Sponsored Programs at (702) 895-2794.

3. This section indicates that you are giving informed consent to participate in the research:

Participant:

A. I agree to participate in an investigation of how employee personality traits affect their preference for a specific leadership style as an authorized part of the education and research program of the University of Nevada, Las Vegas.

B. I understand the information given to me and I have received answers to any questions I may have had about the research procedure. I understand and agree to the conditions of this study as described.

C. To the best of my knowledge and belief, I have no physical or mental illness or difficulties that would increase the risk of me participating in this study.

D. I understand that I will receive no compensation for participating.

E. I understand that my participation in this research is voluntary and that I may withdraw from this study at any time by notifying the person in charge.

F. I am 18 years of age or older.

Name (Please Print)

____________________________________________________________
Signature Date
APPENDIX E

LETTER GRANTING PERMISSION TO USE THE MULTIFACTOR LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE
From: Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire for Research Web Permission Set Reprint Services
Sent: Friday, August 24, 2001 10:33 AM
To: Thomas M. Kuhn
Commercial Reprint: Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire for Research Web Permission Set Reprint

Dear Thomas M. Kuhn, Jr.: 

We’re pleased to provide you with reprint permission for the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire for Research Web Permission Set document that you requested. Your document is being provided in PDF format, and is attached to this e-mail.

Your permission includes the right to make up to 350 copies of the PDF for your own use.

Please contact us at (650) 261-3500 if you have any questions.

Sincerely,

Mind Garden. Inc.
APPENDIX F

LETTER GRANTING PERMISSION
TO USE THE NEO-FFI
Thomas M. Kuhn, Jr.
19 Tanglewood Drive
Henderson, NV 89012-2113

Dear Mr. Kuhn:

In response to your recent request, permission is hereby granted to you to incorporate NEO-FFI items in your own questionnaire format and reproduce up to 350 copies of the modified form for use in your study entitled "The relationship between subordinate personality traits and preferred leadership style in the food service industry". If additional copies are needed, it will be necessary to write to PAR for further permission.

This Agreement is subject to the following restrictions:

(1) The following credit line will be placed at the bottom of the verso title or similar front page on any and all material used:

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(3) Payment of a royalty/license fee of $.59 per copy ($206.50 for 350 copies). This fee includes a 40% research discount.

(4) One copy of any of the material reproduced will be sent to the Publisher to indicate that the proper credit line has been used.

(5) A copy of a summary of your results of the research conducted under the rights provided by this Permission Agreement will be sent to the Publisher.
BOTH COPIES of this Permission Agreement should be signed and returned to me, along with your check for $206.50 for the royalty/licensing fee, to indicate your agreement with the above restrictions. I will then sign it for PAR and return a fully executed copy to you for your records. Once the Agreement has been signed by both of us, you may proceed with the use or reproduction of the materials as specified above. You will not have permission to reproduce these materials if the Agreement is not signed and returned to PAR within 60 days of the date of this letter.

Sincerely,

Brenda D. VanAntwerp
Executive Assistant
to the Chairman and CEO

ACCEPTED AND AGREED:

BY: THOMAS M. KOHN, JR.  DATE: 7/1/93

ACCEPTED AND AGREED:

BY: BRENDA D. VAN ANTWERP  DATE: 7/1/93

SIGNATURE OF PROFESSOR REQUIRED:

I hereby agree to supervise this student's use of these materials. I also certify that I am qualified to use and interpret the results of these tests as recommended in the Standards for Educational and Psychological Testing, and I assume full responsibility for the proper use of all materials used per this Agreement.

BY:

Printed Name: Andy Hendren

NO LONGER INTERESTED: INITIAL HERE ______, AND RETURN UNSIGNED AGREEMENT.
REFERENCES


VITA

Graduate College
University of Nevada, Las Vegas

Thomas Michael Kuhn, Jr.

Home Address:
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Degrees:
Bachelor of Science, Business Administration, 1990
California State University, Northridge

Thesis Title: The Relationship Between Employee Personality Traits And Preferred Leadership Style

Thesis Examination Committee:
Chairperson, Dr. Andrew Hale Feinstein, Ph.D.
Committee Member, Dr. Seyhmus Baloglu, Ph.D.
Committee Member, Dr. Cheri Young, Ph.D.
Graduate Faculty Representative, Dr. Marta Meana, Ph.D.