

**University of Warsaw**

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**Consequences of compatibility level between employee  
and supervisor characteristics:  
recommendations for HRM**

**Doctoral dissertation  
in the field of Management and Quality Studies**

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## Abstract

The purpose of this empirical doctoral dissertation was to deepen knowledge in the field of HRM on the consequences of degree of the employee-supervisor fit. The degree of employee-supervisor fit was examined at both the surface levels (gender, age) and the deep level (need for dominance, working style).

To accomplish 4 research tasks according with the WiW methodological paradigm, the same hypotheses were tested using different data sets: **5 own studies** in which a total of **1,579 employees** and **561 students** participated and pre-existing data from 6<sup>th</sup> European Working Condition Survey: 2015 (43,850 employees from 35 countries). It was shown, among other things, that the supplementary **compatibility** (similarity) on the working style **dimension** and the **complementary compatibility** (dissimilarity) with respect to the **need for dominance** is preferred. **No impact of gender and age compatibility** was found in the correlational and experimental studies. Quantitative analyses were supported by qualitative analyses of answers given by 582 employees to an optional open-ended question on their opinion on the relationship with their boss. The doctoral dissertation ends with recommendations for HRM.

## Key words

person-supervisor fit, need for dominance, interval working style, age, gender

# **Konsekwencje poziomu zgodności między cechami pracownika i przełożonego: rekomendacje dla zarządzania zasobami ludzkimi**

## **Abstract in Polish**

Celem, mającej charakter empiryczny, rozprawy doktorskiej jest pogłębienie wiedzy z zakresu ZZL na temat konsekwencji stopnia wzajemnego dopasowania pracownika do przełożonego. Stopień dopasowania pracownika i przełożonego badany był na poziomie cech powierzchniowych (płeć, wiek) i głębokich (potrzeba dominacji, przedziałowy styl pracy).

Realizując 4 zadania badawcze zgodnie z paradygmatem metodologicznym WiW te same hipotezy zostały przetestowane na różnych zbiorach danych pochodzących z przeprowadzonych 5 badań własnych, w których uczestniczyło łącznie 1579 pracowników i 561 studentów oraz danych zastanych z 6. edycji Europejskiego Badania Warunków Pracy: 2015 r. (43 850 pracowników z 35 krajów). Wykazano, między innymi, że preferowane jest dopasowanie suplementarne (podobieństwo) pod względem stopnia przedziałowości stylu pracy i dopasowanie komplementarne (odmienność) pod względem potrzeby dominacji. W żadnym z 4 badań (zarówno korelacyjnych, jak i eksperymentalnych) nie stwierdzono wpływu zgodności płci i wieku na satysfakcję relacyjną. Analizy ilościowe zostały poparte jakościowymi analizami odpowiedzi udzielonych przez 582 pracowników na opcjonalne pytanie otwarte dotyczące ich opinii na temat relacji z szefem. Rozprawa doktorska kończy się rekomendacjami dla ZZL.

## **Key words in Polish**

dopasowanie pracownik-przełożony, potrzeba dominacji, przedziałowość stylu pracy, wiek, płeć

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# Introduction

## Justification of the choice of the topic

Misfitting at work has several negative consequences for both the employee and the organization, which is why it has been the subject of scientific research for years. Five types of fit between person and: vocation [PV], job [PJ], organization [PO], group [PG], supervisor [PS] are examined.

Although the role of managers is unquestionable in the ‘shaping’ process of an employee through reward and punishment, they can also influence by modeling behaviors consistent with their values<sup>1</sup>. The compatibility between employee and boss characteristics, called Person-Supervisor Fit [PS fit], is the least studied in the literature. In an extensive review of **172 studies**<sup>2</sup>, PO fit was estimated in 64%, PJ in 36%, PG in 12% and **PS in 10%**<sup>3</sup>. If we compare the number of publications on the general **PE (person–environment) fit** in the SCOPUS database in 2000 to 2020, we will notice an increase of **95%** (from 1671 to 3262). In the case of the PS fit, the increase is almost **150%** (from 830 to 2074).

**Person–Supervisor (PS)** fit is also an important topic of research, because various data confirm the truth of the slogan: ‘Employees leave supervisors not companies.’

Several examples:

- 63% of the 122,000 employees who participated in the Kelly Global Index<sup>4</sup> survey said that their immediate supervisor had a significant impact on their level of satisfaction and commitment;
- 75% of the 1019 Americans asked by the American Psychological Association said that their ‘immediate supervisor is the most stressful part of their job’<sup>5</sup>;
- 50% of the 7272 (U.S.) employees asked by Gallup in 2015 said that they ‘left their jobs at some point in their career to get away from their supervisor’<sup>6</sup>;
- 56% of US employees claim that their supervisor is on average or very toxic<sup>7</sup>.

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1 van Vianen, 2018

2 Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, Johnson, 2005

3 Sum of percentages exceeds 100% because some studies tested more than one type of fit.

4 Kelly Global Workforce Index, 2013

5 Hogan, 2014

6 Gallup, 2015

7 Matos, 2018

Research<sup>8</sup> shows that destructive leadership affects employee behavior in negative ways. Employees who consider the relationship with their supervisor destructive are less satisfied with their work, less involved in the life of the organization, less trusting of coworkers, less willing to perform prosocial behaviors for the benefit of the organization, more stressed, and more resistant to attempts to influence superiors. Poor leadership causes individual employee performance to be worse, more prone to turnover, and even to engage in practices that are harmful to the organization<sup>9</sup>.

Despite the steadily increasing financial investments to improve the quality of management (e.g. an increase of 14% in the USA per year), employees often leave their jobs due to their supervisors<sup>10</sup>.

Therefore, the aim of my work is to enrich the knowledge in the field of HRM about the risk associated with the incompatibility of selected characteristics of the supervisor and the employee.

The first step is to limit the scope of the consideration. The characteristics of employees and leaders can be divided into surface-level and deep-level<sup>11</sup>.

It is impossible to examine all the dimensions in which the degree of (in)compatibility can be analyzed. **Surface level** refers to easily identifiable characteristics such as **gender and age** that allow for a quick, preliminary classification of other people as similar or dissimilar to us. The **deep-level** concerns **personality characteristics**, which are much more difficult to quickly assess but have a greater impact on the relationship between the subordinate and the superior<sup>12</sup>.

For the analysis of the similarity of the superior and the subordinate, two characteristics were chosen that are easily observable and often studied: gender and age, and two unobservable - latent<sup>13</sup>, the severity of which we infer indirectly by analyzing the reactions of the diagnosed person (including his or her self-description).

An employee's goal is first and foremost to achieve the objective set before him. Conflicts may arise if the goal and the way of achieving it are understood differently by the supervisor and the subordinate. Therefore, the subject of interest was the differences and similarities in the degree of

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8 Schyns, Schilling, 2013

9 Schyns, Schilling, 2013

10 Meinert, 2014

11 van Vianen, Chi-Tai, Chuang, 2011

12 Schoon, 2008, Brach 2021

13 Schoon, 2008, Brach 2021

compartmentalization of **the working style**, which determines, among other things, the precision in the formulation of the goal and the manner of its implementation.

When one of employees wants to dominate (becomes an informal leader), there can be conflicts about power during work. As research shows<sup>14</sup>, the distribution of the need for dominance in the population of Polish workers is close to normal and does not depend on the age of an employee. However, the chance for promotion increases with seniority. Thus, we can predict that many young people with strong need for dominance may be at work in a subordinate position, which can reduce their well-being and lead to conflicts in their workplace. The second characteristic chosen to analyze the similarity between a leader and an employee is **the need for dominance**.

## Key terms

The following terms are defined for the purposes of the study:

- **The need for dominance**<sup>15</sup> is defined as the need to dominate, direct, or otherwise control other people. People with a strong need for dominance feel good in a superior position and do not like it very much when someone imposes their opinion on them (strong social reactance). People with a weak need for dominance feel good when someone else takes responsibility for group activities. The need for dominance is measured by the questions contained on two scales of the SSA.
- **POINT vs. INTERVAL working style**<sup>16</sup> is the preferred **cognitive-behavioral activity strategy** for tasks planning and execution at work. The INTERVAL working strategy is associated with **imprecise goals** settings and ways of achieving them, **starting an action without planning**, and **switching between different tasks**. The opposite is the POINT working strategy, which is characterized by high precision focus, precise planning, and sequential, methodical way of tasks execution. When employees keep changing the POINT and INTERVAL strategies depending on the type of a task, we can talk about functional flexibility. Most of the people are losing flexibility and prefer to use POINT or INTERVAL strategies in almost all settings, so that we can talk about working style. If the requirements of the work on how to perform it are inconsistent with the working style preferences of the

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<sup>14</sup> Wieczorkowska, 2022

<sup>15</sup> Murray, n.d.

<sup>16</sup> Wieczorkowska, 1992-2021

employee, then it incurs higher psychophysiological costs to the employee than when they are consistent<sup>17</sup>. The impact of working style can be seen when the employee has high autonomy [high freedom in the way of task execution] at work. The working style is measured by questions contained on three scales of the SSA.

- **Supplementary vs. complementary PO fit.** When examining the fit between an employee and an organization (i.e. two entities of a completely different nature), we can distinguish SUPPLEMENTARY fit [when an employee and an organization have similar and matching attributes] or COMPLEMENTARY fit [when the characteristics of a person or an organization meet each other's needs.
- The **degree of similarity** and the **degree of PS fit**. Analyzing the fit between two persons: an employee and a supervisor, we can find out their similarity (e.g. they both love detailed procedures), which can turn out to be a supplementary fit or their dissimilarity (one person sees the tree, the other sees the forest), which may turn out to be a complementary fit when they work together. In other words, people who are **similar to each other** may or may **not fit** each other in a **supplementary** way. People who **differ** from each other may or may **not fit** each other in a complementary way.
- **Surface vs. deep** level. The similarity of the supervisor and the employee can be studied at different levels. The literature<sup>18</sup> distinguishes between superficial characteristics such as age and gender – identified automatically at first sight, and profound characteristics whose identification requires longer interactions.
- **SSA** - [Sondaż Stylów Aktywności] is an on-line version of the ISA [Inwentarz Stylów Aktywności] developed in 1994<sup>19</sup> to measure individual preferences for goal setting and planning strategies at work. SSA has been used and validated in many research projects. The SSA consists of several blocks of questions (scales). The blocks of questions used to build indicators of different constructs like POINT vs. INTERVAL working style, temperament, psychological needs (affiliation, dominance, achievements), emotional balance at work and in leisure time, etc., must form a unifactorial solution in principal component analysis.

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17 Woźniak 2013, Wieczorkowska, 2011  
18 van Vianen, Chi-Tai, Chuang, 2011

19 Wieczorkowska 1992-2022

- **Leadership and management** are not relevant<sup>20</sup>, so the terms: leader, manager, supervisor, superior, and boss are used interchangeably. Analogically, the terms: **subordinate, employee, person, and team member are used interchangeably, too.**
- **Relational satisfaction** – is the subjective employees' evaluation of their relationship with supervisor.
- **Five types of fits:** person-vocation [PV], person-job [PJ], person-organization [PO], person-group [PG], person-supervisor [PS].
- **PS fit** - Person-supervisor fit means the degree of compatibility between employee and their boss characteristics.

## Dissertation Structure

The empirical dissertation contains of 4 chapters and the Appendix.

**Chapter 1**, titled '**Literature review for hypotheses development**' is organized in 6 sections of different length, because their volume was determined by the number of research that have been identified.

In the third decade of the twenty-first century, when the number of publications on any topic is growing exponentially (cf. e.g. Kowalczyk, 2019), a difficult decision was made to focus the literature review on the classic theory of the person-supervisor fit (PS fit) with particular emphasis on two surface-level characteristics (age, gender) and two deep-level ones (need for dominance, working style).

My first choice was to limit literature studies to the general theory of the person-supervisor fit (PS fit) with particular emphasis on the degree of similarity in terms of the need for dominance, working style, gender, and age. Looking back, I can say that the greatest influence on the theoretical model I adopted had the works of (in alphabetical order): Byrne (1971), Czarnota-Bojarska (2010, 2016), Edwards (1990, 1991), Glomb & Welsh (2005), Grzelak (2001-2009), Karczewski (2019, 2022), Kristof-Brown (2005-2017), Muchinsky & Monahan (1987), Peltokangas (2014), Pietrzak (2020), Schein (2004), Schneider (1987, 1995), van Vianen (2000-2018), Wieczorkowska (1992-2021),

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<sup>20</sup> Stoner, Freeman & Gilbert, 2011

Wojtczuk-Turek (2013, 2018). A full list of the bibliographic items used in the dissertation can be found in the “Bibliography” section.

The literature review consists of 6 sections, the volume of which is determined by the number of studies that have been identified. For this reason, individual sections are of different length.

**Section 1**, titled ‘**FIT Types**’, **addresses the problem of Person-Supervisor [PS] fit in the context of other types of fit:** (1) to job, (2) to position, (3) to organization, and (4) to team. This section discusses the ASA model that predicts homophilia (attraction to similar people) and the concept of complementarity-supplementarity in the context of the PS fit. The chapter ends with the justification for the selection of 4 characteristics to analyze PS fit.

**Section 2**, titled ‘**PS fit in the Working Style dimension**’, discusses Wieczorkowska’s intervality theory. A review of the literature shows that there is almost no research on the consequences of the (in)compatibility of working style, although one can hear many stories on conflicts aroused on the basis of lack of fit in this dimension. Lack of the empirical studies can be considered as an identified research gap.

The section ends with justification of the hypothesis of supplementary PS fit in the working style dimension, which is tested in the empirical part.

**Section 3**, titled ‘**PS fit in the Need for Dominance dimension**’, presents McClelland’s, Grzelak’s, and Leary’s theoretical models. A review of the literature shows not so much research on the consequences of similarity or dissimilarity in the Need for Dominance dimension, although all agree that many organizational conflicts are based on the fight for power. The empirical evidence regarding type of fit in the Need for Dominance is mixed - so the lack of agreement has been identified as a second research gap. The section ends with justification of the hypothesis of complementary PS fit in the Need for Dominance dimension, which was tested in the empirical part.

**Section 4**, titled ‘**PS compatibility in demographic characteristics**’, presents the literature review on PS fit on 2 surface-level characteristics: gender and age. Preferences for the gender and age of supervisor are often examined in large surveys at the level of declarations. The literature shows that preferences inferred from choices may contradict those declared (e.g. experimental

studies<sup>21</sup> have shown that younger men are more often invited to a job interview than older ones, even if they have the same qualifications).

The section concludes by advocating the use of an experimental method to investigate preferences for similarity between demographic characteristics of employees and their supervisors. The section ends with justification of the hypotheses on supplementary PS fit regarding gender and complementary PS fit regarding age, which were tested in the empirical part.

**Section 5**, titled ‘**Job satisfaction, relational satisfaction, emotional balance**’, briefly discusses different operational definitions of the variables that determine the emotional-motivational state of employees (to what extent are they satisfied, stressed, willing to leave) and their correlates.

**Chapter 2**, titled ‘**The methods and the objectives**’, presents the methodological paradigm ‘WiW’ used in the dissertation.

It includes a description of the samples, procedures, and operationalization of the variables. Chapter 2 concludes by identifying the objectives of dissertation and research tasks.

**Chapter 3**, titled ‘**Results**’, contains analyses of data from **6 studies** in which a total of **1579 employees** and **561 students (own research<sup>22</sup>)** and more than 43,000 employees participated (pre-existing data).

**Chapter 4**, titled ‘**Summary**’, contains a discussion of the results of the 6 studies, limitations, directions for further research, and recommendations for HRM.

In the Appendix there are supplementary materials that are not necessary to track the course of the argumentation but are necessary for those who would like to learn about the distributions of variables, details of the analyses carried out, or to replicate the analyses carried out on other data (detailed description of research procedures).

## **General remarks how doctoral dissertation was edited**

In accordance with the supervisor's recommendation, the following standards were used to maintain the transparency of the argumentation and readability of the results:

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21 Bigoness, 1976

22 Research done in the Faculty of Management, Department of Managerial Psychology and Sociology jointly with others.



1. Due to the exponential growth of scientific publications on any topic, literature review is limited to items relevant to the research problem. References to the literature are arranged in the following order: (1) WHAT and how (type of study) was demonstrated? On what sample (year of study, country, sample characteristics)? The lack of information on study type means that these are the most common correlational studies, inherently subject to low internal accuracy, resulting in possibility of obtaining apparent correlations. Unfortunately, at this level of development of management science, experimental studies are rare. From the point of view of knowledge synthesis, the names of study authors are the least relevant information, so instead of being in parentheses - as the 20th century APA standard dictates - they are placed in footnotes. This way of referencing **shortens the entire text by about 20%** and makes it easier to focus on the synthesis of results rather than on the history of research, the analysis of which is left to historians of science.
2. The volume of the first two parts of the doctoral dissertation should not exceed 100 pages. To facilitate perception of the content, the most important concepts are distinguished using SMALL CAPS or **bolding**. New threads are separated in the American style by leaving **free lines**, instead of using uniform line spacing using indentation.
3. We do not avoid repeating the same words – scientific concepts – remembering that the doctoral dissertation is a scientific text, and the precision of the language is important. If we use synonyms, e.g. superior, leader, boss, it should be clearly indicated in the text.
4. When discussing the results of analyses, where there are many variables presented in the tables, we focus only on the factors relevant to the interpretation. We do not enter statistics and significance levels into the text – if they are included in the tables. However, we introduce average values into the text even when they are presented in drawings, because the purpose of drawings is to illustrate the relationships found, so they can exaggerate the differences.
5. If the results of a series of studies are presented in a dissertation, the discussion of the results obtained can be presented together.
6. Unless otherwise indicated under a specific table or drawing, graph, the source of all tables and figures presented in the dissertation is the work and own analysis of the author of the dissertation.

# Chapter 1: Literature review for hypotheses development

## 1.1 Section 1. FIT types

The theory of the employee-environment fit (PE fit) has been the subject of inquiry in the literature for more than 100 years. One of the earliest works in this area is considered to be Frank Parson's achievements from 1909 on the Tripartite Model of vocational selection<sup>23</sup>. His theory assumes that it is possible to measure both individual talents and qualities necessary to achieve success in specific occupations. On this basis, it is assumed that people can be fit to a profession that is suitable for them. The author suggests that when employees work in a profession best suited to their abilities, perform best, and their productivity is at its highest level<sup>24</sup>. Since then, much attention has been paid to the problem of fitting, although there is still no single theoretical basis.

The basis of the fitting theory should be sought in the interactionist perspective approach<sup>25</sup>, since the fit of two entities presupposes an interaction between them. The concept of fitting suits the system approach, as each type of fit is part of a system with individual connections and interactions. PE fit studies are numerous represented in the areas of health and stress<sup>26</sup>, building culture and organizational climate<sup>27</sup>, creating a work environment, and in decision-making in building a professional career<sup>28</sup>.

In a professional context, fit involves a wide range of fit types, such as:

- ***Person-Vocation Fit***

It is characterized by matching the professional choice with the individual interests of the person. Most broadly, this fit approach can be framed as work by vocation<sup>29</sup>.

- ***Person-Job Fit***

A fit in which employees' knowledge, skills, and abilities are relevant to what the job requires of them. Additionally, it is a form of fitting when the needs, desires, or preferences of employees are met by the tasks they perform<sup>30</sup>.

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23 Su, Murdock, Rounds, 2016

24 Su, Murdock, Rounds, 2016

25 Korulczyk, Cooper-Thomas, 2021

26 Edwards & Cooper, 1990, Offermann, Hellmann, 1996

27 Schneider, 1987

28 Graves, Powell, 1995

29 van Vianen, 2018

30 Edwards, 1991

- ***Person-Organization Fit***

A type of fit that focuses primarily on fitting a person to the entire organization, the climate prevailing in the company, and sharing common values<sup>31</sup>.

- ***Person-Team Fit***

Fitting a person to a team refers to fitting a person with their closest colleagues in terms of i.a. demographics, values, goals, personality, and skills<sup>32</sup>.

- ***Person-Supervisor Fit***

The employee-supervisor fit refers to the fitting of the characteristics of employees and their supervisors. Supervisors play an important role for employees, as they can provide rewards and opportunities for their careers. Additionally, supervisors shape the experiences of their employees through their own values and actions<sup>33</sup>.

The PE fit is defined as the correspondence between the characteristics of an employee and the working environment<sup>34</sup>. Organizations want to hire employees who best meet the requirements of the position, adapt to the culture of the organization, remain loyal to their employer, and are committed to their duties. Similarly, employees have an innate need to adapt to their environment and look for an environment that is tailored to their individual preferences. They want to find a company that offers a job that suits their qualifications and satisfies their individual needs.

In the literature, there are differences between theoretical approaches which consist equally in focusing on different areas, but also in a different understanding of the nature of the dimensions that are considered.

The term FIT has a very broad meaning. An employee can be described by her or his values, needs, competences, characteristics, aspirations, etc. Organization as an abstract entity is described in other dimensions.

Fitting can occur on many levels. Depending on which element (e.g. values, goals, personality traits or attitudes<sup>35</sup>) the attention is focused, fit can be assessed as very good, moderate, or none. For example, the literature<sup>36</sup> distinguishes between fitting type ‘**needs**’ – ‘**supplies**’ and ‘**demands**’

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31 Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, Johnson, 2005  
32 van Vianen, 2018  
33 van Vianen, 2018

34 Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, Johnson, 2005, van Vianen, 2018  
35 Caplan, 1987; Edwards, 1991; Kristof, 1996  
36 Edwards, 1991; Czarnota-Bojarska, 2010

– ‘abilities’. The first type concerns the employee's perspective and describes the compatibility of the employee's expectations with the possibilities of their implementation by the employer. The second type concerns the employer's perspective and refers to the employee's fulfillment of the expectations that the employer has towards her/him. In integrating both approaches<sup>37</sup>, it is assumed that the employee and the organization have certain resources that they are willing to offer to the other party. On the other hand, there are expectations that they expect to be met in return. The similarity between the ‘personality’ of the employee and the ‘organizational culture’ is called supplementary fit<sup>38</sup>, while the compatibility of expectations and resources is called complementary fit<sup>39</sup> (when 2 different objects form a whole together, such as a plug and an electrical contact).

Many researchers<sup>40</sup> also emphasize the complementary type of fit for the profession and position. The preferences, needs, and abilities of an employee are supplemented by resources and environmental requirements, or it could work in the opposite way.

### 1.1.1 Supplementary and complementary fit of two people

When analyzing the fit between the boss and the employee (PS fit), we can think about different dimensions – for example, in the literature<sup>41</sup> it is said that when the needs of a subordinate are met by the capabilities of the superior, we are talking about complementary fit. Personality, value, and goal fitting analysis is classified more as a supplement type.

For future analysis, this is an unfortunate approach. Analyzing the fit of two people, e.g. an employee and her/his supervisor, we can talk about their similarity (e.g. they both love procedures that may turn out to be a supplementary fit, or about their dissimilarity (one is characterized by ‘pharmacist’s precision, the other looks at details from the bird’s-eye view), which may turn out to be a complementary fit when they work together. In other words, **similar people** may or may not be **fitted** to each other **supplementarily (supplementary fit)**, and people who are different from each other may or may not be **fitted** to each other **complementarily (complementary fit)**.

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37 Kristof, 1996

38 Czarnota-Bojarska, 2010

39 Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987

40 van Vianen, 2018

41 Czerw & Czarnota-Bojarska, 2016

In conclusion, we can therefore talk about fitting:

**Supplementary** – if the **similarity** of the characteristics of the boss and the employee is beneficial to their relationship.

**Complementary** – if the **lack of similarity** of the characteristics of the boss and the employee is beneficial for their relationship.

An interesting question is to **identify the characteristics for which** we can observe a **supplementary vs. complementary fit**.

### 1.1.2 ASA model in two persons fit

The ASA (**attraction-selection-attrition**)<sup>42</sup> model assumes that similarities attract each other. People like us are more attractive, better evaluated, and liked by us<sup>43</sup>. This may be due, among other things, to easier confirmation of our views in interactions with people similar to us<sup>44</sup>

At the level of the Employee-Organization relationship, the ASA model assumes that the perceived similarity of organizational attributes (e.g. values, organizational culture) leads to attraction of potential candidates for work (values, personality). Candidates whose characteristics are similar to those of the organization have a better chance of being hired (selection). Employees who do not fit the environment around them are more likely to leave the organization (attrition)<sup>45</sup>. These processes can lead to a general similarity among employees employed in an organization.

At the level of the Employee-Supervisor relationship, the ASA model assumes that perceived similarity of values and personalities leads to the attraction of potential candidates for work. Candidates whose characteristics are similar to that supervisor have a better chance of being hired (selection). Employees who do not meet the characteristics of the supervisor may also be more prone to leaving the organization (attrition). But do we always feel attracted to people like us?

An employee may feel fitted if her or his characteristics or competencies add something that others lack<sup>46</sup>. This concept of ‘attracting opposites’ is evident in a graphic design company where one of

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42 Schneider, 1987

43 Byrne, 1971; Youyou, et al. 2017

44 Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, Johnson, 2005

45 Schneider, Goldstein, & Smith, 1995

46 Gurtman, 2001

the owners is a talented visionary graphic designer and the other is a talented financier unfamiliar with design.

An employee may feel fitted if they have characteristics similar to that of others in a given environment<sup>47</sup>. This similarity of ‘pulls his own to his own’ is evident in non/ governmental organizations. People join such initiatives, because they see themselves as having similar values, needs, and interests as current members of the organization and support the values and activities of the charity. They consider themselves ‘fit’, because they are similar to other people with these traits.

The fit between an employee and her or his supervisor can also take place on the surface-level, potentially easy to identify and assess (age and gender). It is worth looking at it in such a way that if we had access to a database in any company containing these data, they would not be burdened with a measurement error. Surface attributes allow to quickly categorize the supervisor as similar or different from us. A preliminary estimation of similarity at the level of personality traits (deep level) requires more time<sup>48</sup>.

### **1.1.3 Selected characteristics of boss and employee for comparisons**

When we look at different employees, we immediately notice differences in height, posture, gender, age, and hair color. All these variables are easily observable and mostly difficult to modify. These are the differences that are visible on the surface, which is why they are referred to in the literature<sup>49</sup> as **the surface level**. Most of these surface level characteristics are easily verbalized – we code height not only in centimeters, but also in terms such as, very tall high – very short.

Much more difficult to analyze scientifically are latent or deep traits, whose manifestations cannot be easily classified, they are categorized according to the network of associations in the minds of observers (called implicit personality theories in the literature<sup>50</sup>). They are referred to in the literature as **the deep level**.

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47 Gurtman, 2001  
48 Harrison et al. 1998

49 van Vianen, Chi-Tai, Chuang, 2011  
50 Wiczorkowska, 2022

The employees behaviors that HRM researchers seek to explain are understood very broadly, because they relate to complex social behaviors as well as to psychological processes and physiological reactions, e.g. cardiovascular reaction to a stressful event<sup>51</sup>.

In terms of each of these characteristics, enormous variation can be shown. Behavioral geneticists<sup>52</sup> clearly state that individuals belonging to a population, whether human or animal, differ from one another in **every** comparable mental and physical characteristics.

No one disputes the fact that the inter-individual variability of reactions in humans is much greater than in animals because it is determined not only by genetic variation, but largely by the activity of the cerebral cortex, which constantly interprets incoming information, using the records of past experience in associative networks<sup>53</sup>.

The degree of this variation is illustrated by the Gaussian curve, but the selection of employees made during the recruitment process limits the variation in many characteristics for example, the range of variation in temperament differentiation of temperamental traits that determines resistance to stress is much lower for managers than in the entire population.

Behavior genetics (behavioral genetics) studies the causes of variation (called variance – in statistical terms) in behavior, and especially the role of genetic and environmental factors and their interactions in the formation of individual differences. Environmental factors can influence gene expression, and the human genotype manifested in genetically determined traits interacts with various elements of the human environment.

The study of individual differences further complicates the so-called epigenetic effect, which explains how the expression of a given gene can be permanently switched off, which means that, for example, genetically identical monozygotic twins may be functionally genetically different<sup>54</sup>.

Leaving the search for the causes of variation to behavior geneticists, HRM focuses on measuring the individual differences that affect behavior in a work situation.

The list of features, needs, motives, and orientation is difficult to give due to the unique work of researchers in this area<sup>55</sup>. New concepts are constantly emerging along with measurement tools

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51 Oniszczenko, Dragan, 2008

52 Oniszczenko, et al., 2008

53 Wieczorkowska, 2022

54 Singh, Murphy & O'Reilly, 2002

55 Wieczorkowska, 2022

that do not precisely define their relation to previous concepts, so they are added to the list of features without removing anything.

Examples of synonymous terms in the literature are motivations, needs, orientations, preferences, e.g. need/ motivation of achievement, need/ motivation for power vs. domination.

To analyze the similarity between a supervisor and his/her subordinate, we chose two easily observable characteristics: gender and age, and two unobservable latent characteristics – we infer their intensity indirectly by analyzing the reactions of the diagnosed person (including his/her self-description).

An employee's goal is first and foremost to achieve the goal set before him or her. Conflicts may arise if the boss and the subordinate have different understandings the goal and how to achieve it. Therefore, the subject of interest was made differences and similarities in the degree of intervality of the **working style**, which determines i.a. precision in the formulation of the goal and the manner of its implementation.

When an employee wants to dominate and becomes an informal leader, this can contribute to the fact that during working time conflicts for power may appear. As research<sup>56</sup> shows, the distribution of the need for dominance in the population of Polish employees is close to normal and does not depend on the age of an employee. However, the chance of promotion increases with age. Thus, we can predict that many young people with a strong need for dominance may be at work in a subordinate position, which can reduce their well-being and lead to conflicts in the workplace. The second characteristics chosen to analyze the similarity between a leader and an employee is **the need for domination**.

The literature review is organized according to these 4 characteristics of the employee and the supervisor: the need for dominance, working style, gender, and age.

## 1.2 Section 2. PS fit in the Working Style dimension

Wieczorkowska's intervality model<sup>57</sup> constitutes the theoretical foundation of this section of the doctoral dissertation, so it will be discussed in detail.

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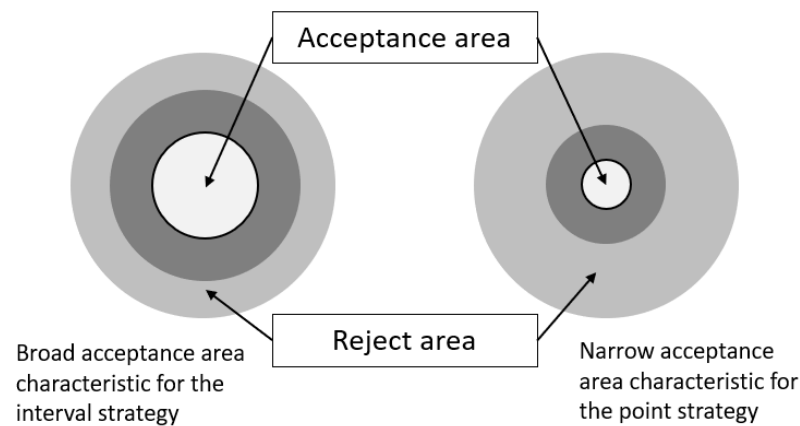
<sup>56</sup> Wieczorkowska, 2022

<sup>57</sup> The text is based on Wieczorkowska's seven publications from 1992-2022



All of our choices are the result of categorization. The options that are the subject of the choice can be categorized based on their descriptive properties or evaluative characteristics. As decision theory assumes<sup>58</sup>, using evaluative categorization, we divide the set of options, e.g. job offers, into at least three parts: (1) an area of acceptance (those that we willing to accept), (2) an area of rejection (those who we will not accept), (3) an area of indifference (those about which we have no opinion or are ambivalent).

Figure 1 Comparison diagram of the size of acceptance and rejection areas after using the interval and point strategy.



Source: own elaboration based on: Wieczorkowska 1998, Nowak, 2021

We observe large individual differences in the size of these areas. Some are very picky (they create very narrow – even pointwise – areas of acceptance), others more accepting (it is their rejection areas that are narrow).

The descriptive categories we create, e.g. when categorizing job offers – in a small company, at a university, at a corporation, may be more or less capacious, depending on how much attention to detail we pay. Many studies have shown individual differences in preferences for the breadth of descriptive categories created<sup>59</sup>. The categorization of evaluations may result in job offers with very different descriptive characteristics in the same category, e.g. work in the company's management board, adjunct work at a university in the 'very attractive' category. If there are many options that we accept, then we have no reason to put effort into their descriptive

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<sup>58</sup> Beach, 1990

<sup>59</sup> Pettigrew, 1982 for: Wieczorkowska, 1992

differentiation. If we do not see subtle differences in job offers, we will judge them as equally desirable, even though they will be objectively different.

The width of acceptance areas can be analyzed not only in the situation of CLOSED choices involving the evaluation of a ready-made set of options, but also in OPEN choices from a set of options generated by a person. An example of the first situation is the choice of a job offer. An example of the second is creating a business based on one's own idea.

The breadth of areas of acceptance in a particular field depends largely on one's situation (experience, resources, and the cost of being picky). However, the research<sup>60</sup> found significant, positive correlations of 0.3-0.4 between the number of objects considered acceptable in different fields. It was also shown that the range of areas in each field determines the time and costs of decision making.

The areas of acceptance are also called the goal category, which can be single-purpose (e.g. we are looking for a purely scientific job) or multi-prototype (e.g. we are ready to accept both business and scientific job), it may also differ in the range of acceptable transformations, which determines how far from the prototype objects will be considered as copies of the category.

The theory of **interval working style** assumes that the way we organize our actions in a freedom of decision situation is analogous to the object's categorization. The area of acceptance: 'This is what I want to do today' contains a list of tasks and ways to achieve them that we want/ need/ should deal with. The area of rejection: 'This, I certainly do not want to do today', contains tasks and ways of their implementation that are unacceptable to us. The indifference area: 'Perhaps' contains a list of tasks and ways to implement them, which can – under the right conditions – go to the acceptance area. For some people, the categorization of planned activities ends with a one-element area of acceptance, e.g. today I am writing a description of the first study and I am not dealing with anything else. For others, the area of acceptance will include several options: I will check the bibliography, repeat the analysis of the third study, describe the limitations, etc.

The conformity assessment in the classic TOTE model: (T=intended goal [standard of adjustment]; O=planned operation to achieve this goal; T=assessment of the compatibility

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<sup>60</sup> Wieczorkowska, 1992

of this operation with the structure of the target; E=termination of action when a positive test result is obtained) is easier when the target is a point than when the target is an interval solid. In the latter case, it is easier to achieve it, but the satisfaction is lower.

With wide areas of acceptance, high dynamics are possible in the process of choosing the best option (there is a lot to choose from), and what is associated with it – the ease of changing the dominant goal.

POINT persons find it more difficult to change the direction of action once taken (very attached to their precise plans, which once formulated become imperatives). INTERVAL persons very easily modify their visions and adapt to the changing environment because, with wide areas of acceptance, they easily change **the dominant goal**.

The basic thesis of intervality theory is that due to the limited possibilities of information processing (limited working memory capacity), mental processes are constantly competing for resources. The more acceptable the goals (wider areas of acceptance):

1. the less precise, and therefore their cognitive representations are interval.
2. the less likely it is that the paths leading to them will be precisely developed.

If the action is preceded by the creation of a precise representation of the desired result, it is conducive to **planning, the performance of preparatory activities**. Lack of a precise representation of the goal and ways to achieve it can make it difficult to mobilize to start and complete the activity. If the goal is very broad and ambitious, it is impossible to achieve, so we work until discouraged, which often leads to fatigue. As a result, we do not have the strength to describe what we have done and to place the materials used back in their place. The result is **a mess** which is created that is sometimes creative, because it leads to original juxtapositions, but in most cases, it steals our energy, increasing the value of stimuli in the environment<sup>61</sup>, and taking our time to look for things that do not lie in place. When the number of tasks we carry out is small, it is easier to maintain order. The POINT person desk may be empty. The INTERVAL person desk is most often messy, but it is sometimes cleaned. Being in a messy environment causes more

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61 Wiczorkowska-Nejtardt, 1995, p. 353-366

discomfort to the POINT person than a pedantically cleaned environment to the INTERVAL person.

To sum up, narrow areas of acceptance are associated with precise planning and involvement in preparatory activities (methodicality), concentration on one task at a time (sequentiality), higher self-discipline, and better estimation of time. Differences are presented in the table below.

Table 1 Differences between point and interval activity strategies

	Point style	Interval Style
Standard for Assessing the Equivalence of Two objects	Exactly the same	‘More or less’ the same
Details	Very important	Not important
Number of tasks carried out in parallel	Small (action take sequentially)	Large (simultaneity of operation)
Preferences in forming goals	NARROW goal-categories	BROAD goal-categories
Planning	Precise	Very broad
Perseverance	Rigidity: persists in attempts to complete an activity before switching to another.	Flexibility: readily gives up an activity before it is completed and switches to another.
Start and finish the task	Easy	Difficult (procrastination, abandonment of activity)
Estimation of the time required to complete a task.	Easy	Difficult

Source: Wieczorkowska, 1998-2022

### 1.2.1 Functional autonomy: when strategy becomes style

**The breadth of the areas of acceptance**, e.g. the number of companies in which we could work for, the number of employees that we could hire in our organization, depends not only on our general tendency to accept and reject, but **also on the specifics of the domain** in which we make the choice. It consists for example of resources, experience in making decisions in our field, and the opportunity cost of rejecting a given option. Theoretically, we can be INTERVAL in choosing how to spend the holiday and POINT when choosing the person with whom we would like to cooperate on our project<sup>62</sup>, when choosing the companies in which we want to work (e.g. only the

<sup>62</sup> Wieczorkowska - Wierzbńska, 2011

so-called Big Four auditing and consulting companies, i.e. EY, Deloitte, KPMG, PwC), and INTERVAL when choosing where to live (for example: center, suburb, block of flat, house, etc.). Theoretically, we may also manifest different styles of organizing activities in different fields, e.g. being precise and methodical at work, not paying attention to details at home. **Flexibility is adaptive** – using INTERVAL strategies at one time, POINT strategies at another, depending on the demands of the situation. Often, however, as has been shown in many studies, strategies acquire **the so-called functional autonomy**: point/ interval strategies awarded in each class of situations become the preferred ways of behavior anytime, anywhere. In this case, it is reasonable to talk about **activity styles** (when the subject of research is **everyday behavior**) or **working styles** (when we analyze the way **work is organized**). Rewarded at work, the creation of precise plans and their persistent implementation can be transferred to precise planning of family life, which may lead to conflicts.

### 1.2.2 Effectiveness of the interval style of activity depending on the characteristics of the environment<sup>63</sup>

The effectiveness of INTERVAL and POINT styles depends to a large extent on the characteristics of the environment. In activities where the employee's main task is to reject or accept (e.g. proposals to perform specific tasks by subordinates or choosing between job candidate applications), the effectiveness of the strategy depends on the resources of the environment (e.g. the number of job applicants, the market situation, the number of people with given skills or able to perform a given type of tasks). It is effective to expand the areas of acceptance when there is a shortage situation (e.g. the number of applicants is low). On the other hand, narrowing the acceptance areas brings results when there is an excess (e.g. the number of available applicants with the skills we are interested in is very large).

In situations of scarcity, when resources are limited, INTERVAL person feel much better than POINT person. The rejection area of INTERVAL people is smaller and, if the situation requires it, they can accept possibilities that differ significantly from their preferences. Strong environmental requirements mean that the differences between the behavior of POINT person and INTERVAL person are no longer visible. In a scarcity situation, both may accept a less attractive offer (as in

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<sup>63</sup> Wieczorkowska & Elias, 2004

the popular saying ‘beggars can't be choosers’). The emotions experienced will be different. POINT person in an unattractive workplace will work with a clear reluctance, in extreme cases they will experience trauma. Meanwhile, the INTERVAL person will very quickly go on to a normal state, often as if they did not care. When resources are abundant (e.g. a lot of job offers), POINT person will immediately reject a large number of options and focus on a small number of others while making a choice. The process can be compared to the phenomenon of limiting the number of hypotheses that we want to test. In an identical situation, the area of acceptance of the INTERVAL person is much larger. This results in a large comparison and choice burden.

The effectiveness of INTERVAL strategies depends on the characteristics of the environment in which they are applied. This was tested by comparing the level of planning detail and business results. For 27 operating companies the dependence was positive<sup>64</sup>, for 38 companies it was negative<sup>65</sup>. What differed between these companies was the level of predictability of the business environment. Precise planning is only effective in a predictable environment.

In summary: **INTERVAL style** – involves the parallel implementation of multiple goals, which in moderate form leads to flexibility, and in the extreme to chaos. This is associated with extensive scanning, lack of attention to detail, imprecise planning, problems with finalizing work, and putting things off. The plans created are often unrealistic due to underestimation of the time needed to complete a single task, but they help to adapt quickly to changing conditions.

**POINT style** – involves the implementation of only one goal at a time. It is characterized by detailed planning, in a moderate form by perseverance, closing cases, and refining details. Under favorable circumstances, it leads to mastery. In its extreme form, it takes the form of rigid behavior and striving for perfectionism.

### 1.2.3 Problems in the cooperation of point person with interval person

The cooperation between POINT person and INTERVAL person can lead to several misunderstandings. It is difficult to describe multi-prototype acceptance areas. This problem primarily affects employees creative professionals. For example, if an INTERVAL professor equally accepts both short, brilliant works, and extensive laborious studies or reviews from foreign literature (so she/he has multi-prototype areas of acceptance), then determining what a seminar

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64 Frederickson & Michel, 1984

65 Beach & Mitchel, 1987

paper should look like may cause her or him a problem. Knowing that she or he accepts very different things, avoids formulating precise expectations, which can make life very difficult for POINT students.

In a real estate agency, it is difficult to explain to an INTERVAL person that a small apartment in the center is equally attractive to him (because it saves commuting time) as well as a large one in a suburb with a garden (he wastes time on commuting but gains space and greenery). Meanwhile, people who are asked to describe their preferences usually assume that the prototype of the dream apartment is one. Hearing the answer 'IT DEPENDS' to the agent's question: 'Are you interested in a large or small apartment in the center or in the suburbs?' you might think that the client has no preference. The truth is that although they do not have single-prototype preferences, they do have multi-prototype preferences. A boss expecting an employee to define their task themselves can be a major source of stress for point employees.

A POINT boss will expect that the task performed is to be EXACTLY as agreed. An INTERVAL boss who no pay attention to details will be satisfied that it is MORE OR LESS as it was supposed to be. POINT person will insist that no new project is started until the first one is completed. INTERVAL person will persuade that it is much more effective to start a new project, since the delivery of materials or the visit of a specialist are delayed. The INTERVAL boss will also insist on starting and then seeing if the project succeeds. Sometimes it works, so an INTERVAL strategy can lead to success that POINT person would never experience.

In response to unexpected events, INTERVAL person will quickly reorganize his or her day. One meeting will be cancelled, two postponed. For a POINT person, the calendar is his 'defensive shield'. 'I would love to see a new client, but please, look, I don't have time'. A POINT person is not willing, like an INTERVAL person, to make an appointment with a client outside of business hours. By arranging an appointment with him for the following week, you can be sure that the meeting will take place exactly at the time agreed upon in advance. By arranging a meeting with an INTERVAL person, you can be sure that the date of the meeting may be changed. In the case of arranging that a given task is to be completed by a specific day, e.g. by Tuesday, for the POINT person it will mean that the date falls exactly on Tuesday, in the case of an INTERVAL person 'more or less by Tuesday'.

The subdimensions included in the INTERVAL syndrome (precision, methodicality, sequentiality, routinization) differ in the possibility of modifying their intensity. The easiest way is to modify the level of own methodicality – it is easier for nonmethodical people to impose on themselves the introduction of the obligation to perform preparatory activities than vice versa, just as it is easier to persuade a messy person to clean up than a pedant to mess up. The same is true for sequencing – it is easier to convince a ‘simultaneous person’ to refrain from starting subsequent tasks until they finish the first than the ‘sequential person’ to deal with 5 projects in parallel.

**Literature review is supported by statements of my respondents**, who in most cases were consistent with the words of St. Augustine: ‘In necessariis unitas, in dubiis libertas, in omnibus caritas’ (In the most important matters – unity, in doubtful matters – freedom, in everything – love). Emphasizing that on fundamental issues such as values, approach to responsibilities, worldviews, or life priorities, similarity will be more valuable. The professional and private spheres (e.g. marriage) were often distinguished as an area of life that differed from each other. Differences are valuable in terms of competencies, perspectives, and individual characteristics. The length of the relationship and the changes that occur with its duration were emphasized: first, similarity is important (it is worth “finding common ground”), and then using complementarity (building more and more complex and complementary teams).

Participants pointed out such aspects as:

- (MBA, Male) ‘There are many qualities of an employee that are objectively positive, such as diligence, ambition, responsibility, approach to work. When recruiting, when we are looking for employees, we are looking for people who are similar to each other on these fundamental issues.’
- (MBA, Female) ‘I always decide to work with people who share my fundamental values regarding the approach to work, in terms of diligence (I hate flannelling), dedication to a larger cause (e.g. thinking about the scope of shaping, for example, supervisory policy in the insurance sector – whether to just mark boxes or delve into work), honesty of action and civil courage. I have been working with my elected directors and managers for over 22 years, with a break of almost 3 years. Thanks to sharing e.g. common values, after my return to the organization, it was possible to create an efficient team of about 200 people (3 complementary departments). Previously conflicted, non/ cooperative, guarding the boundaries of their tasks inscribed in the regulations.’

More examples of participants statements supporting the above conclusions are provided in the appendix.



Theoretically, the work of POINT person with POINT person should be simpler, but it can lead to conflicts if their POINT visions do not match. Then it will be easier for a POINT person to work with an INTERVAL person. Both styles of functioning complement each other, and mixed teams will be most effective at work, if their members understand and accept their differences.

Environmental requirements favor POINT persons. An INTERVAL person must comply and, for example, pay attention to the smallest details in grant applications – nonchalance in dealing with details results in the loss of the chance winning a bid. As previous research has shown<sup>66</sup>, INTERVALITY is associated with greater flexibility than the POINT working style.

Therefore, we predict that the characteristics of the boss will be less important for an INTERVAL person who can adapt more easily than for a POINT person.

In the empirical part, the following hypothesis will be tested:

Due to the different ways of performing tasks, it should be easier for people with a similar working style to work. POINT person should prefer to work with POINT person, INTERVAL person with INTERVAL person – and these preferences should be stronger for POINT person than for INTERVAL person.

### **1.3 Section 3. PS fit in the Need for Dominance dimension**

#### **1.3.1 The Need for Dominance**

Three theories provide the basis for considering differences in the Need for Dominance: (1) McClelland's Three Needs Model, (2) Grzelak's Control Orientation Model, and (3) Leary's Interpersonal Personality Diagnosis Model, which I briefly discuss below.

##### **McClelland's Three Needs Model<sup>67</sup>**

The model assumes that for each employee, it is possible to determine a characteristic configuration of the intensity of 3 needs affecting her or his preferences.

- need for **affiliation** is manifested in the desire to maintain conflict-free, cordial, and close relationships with other people;

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<sup>66</sup> Wieczorkowska, Karczewski, 2019

<sup>67</sup> Spielman, Jenkins, Lovett, Czarnota-Bojarska, 2020

- need for **power**/ need for **dominance** is manifested in forcing one's beliefs and decisions, engaging in dispute resolution, instructing, directing, and supervising the actions of others, striving to be a formal or actual group leader and an influential person;
- need for **achievement** is manifested in the pursuit of being the best, to achieve success, preference for tasks in which success is determined primarily by the effort and competences put in, readiness to solve difficult situations, and perfectionism in everyday activities.

Employees differ from each other in terms of the intensity and need for dominance, manifested in behavior as relatively constant dispositions. For example, Nowacka likes to work with people and cannot tolerate remote work. Kownacka, on the other hand, is happy that during the pandemic she does not have to meet with people. Kowalski is not interested in promotion to a managerial position, he wants to have a lot of free time. Unlike Zawacki, who dreams of power.

The boss should remember that depending on the configuration of their needs, employees would prefer different types of tasks.

When the **need for affiliation** is high, employees would prefer teamwork that gives multiple opportunities for contacts with people and to establish long-term relationships.

With a high intensity of the **need for power/ need for dominance**, it will be important to be an authority for others, to influence their way of working or making decisions.

With a high intensity of the **need for achievement**, it will be important that the tasks performed give a sense of personal fulfillment, development of competences, and achievement of goals.

The intensity of basic needs in the population depends on cultural values and norms. Need for achievement is stronger among people living in countries where values and norms of Protestant ethics predominate, and weaker among people living in countries of the Eastern/ Asian cultures.

### **Grzelak's Control Orientation Model<sup>68</sup>**

Evolutionists recognize cooperation between humans as an adaptive mechanism for the survival of species, because in evolution, the collaborators achieved better results than the competing ones.

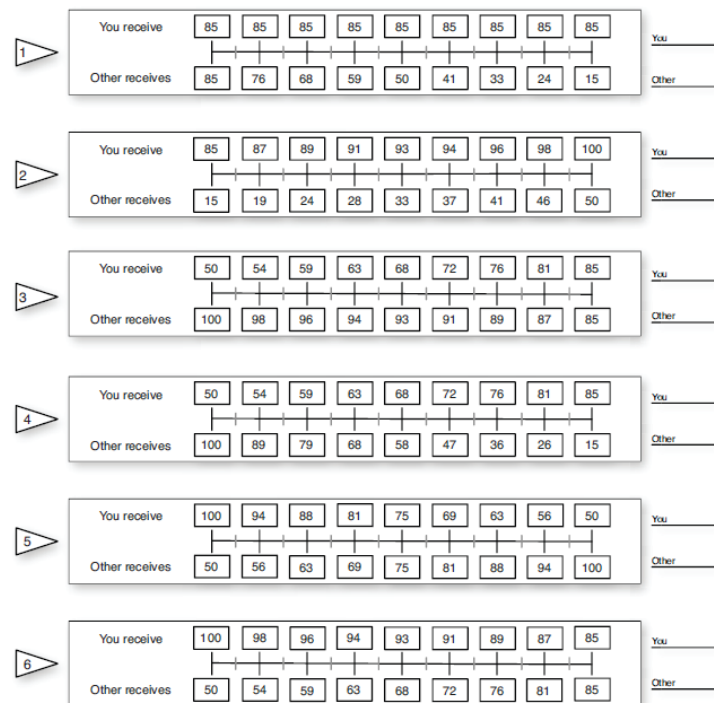
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<sup>68</sup> Grzelak, 2002

Successful collaboration requires making complex decisions about how to divide the resources gained from working together between co-workers.

Decades of research have shown that people have a stable preference for distribution called social value orientation, although they are not necessarily guided by the principle of maximizing their own profit. For many of them, what their partner gains (or loses) is also important. Therefore, to measure these orientations<sup>69</sup>, the diagnosed person is presented with options in the form of pairs of results, as in the table below. Having a choice of payouts: <85 for me, 85 for my partner> vs. <85 for me, 85 for my partner> the competitive person will choose the second option.

Figure 2 Example sets of selection options for SVO measurement



Source: Murphy, Ackermann, Handgraaf, 2011

Several different social orientations have been described and studied:

1. **Individualists** are focused solely on their own results – the results of others do not interest them at all.

<sup>69</sup> Wieczorkowska, 1982, 1983; Grzelak, 1989

2. **Altruists** choose options that give maximum results to a co-worker – this can happen if he or she is perceived as requiring immediate help.
3. **Cooperators** maximize the sum of results – this happens, for example, in a marriage with a joint budget – no matter who earns the money that the couple will spend together.
4. **Competitors** maximize the advantage over the partner, prefer to get less in absolute values but much more than the other person.
5. **Equalists** – they like equal payouts, the advantage of one of the parties – no matter what makes them uncomfortable. They adhere to the principle that we all have ‘the same stomachs’.

These preferences have been called ‘social orientations’ – although they should be precisely called orientations to the distribution of the ‘spoils’.

Grzelak<sup>70</sup> pointed out that what matters at work is not only the paycheck, but also control over what happens. There are those who desire power more than wealth.

An employee may prefer (see table below) situations in which only he or she exercises control over own performance (preference for self-control, or autonomy), when the other partner has control over their common performance (preference for dependence), when an employee exercises control over the other partner's performance (preference for power), when the other partner has control over the her or his own performance (preferring respect), and when an employee along with the partner control their own and partner’s performance (preferring cooperation).

Table 2 A variational model of Control Orientation

Source of the control	The object of the control	
	My results	Partner results
Me	self-control	power
Partner	dependency	partner control (respect)
Me x Partner	partnership – coordinating control (own performance)	partnership – coordinating control (partner's performance)

Source: Zinserling, Winiewski, 2011

The questionnaire based on the theoretical model of Grzelak's control orientation (2002, 2001) contains 6 scales named as follows:

1. proactive autonomy (personal control over one's own performance);
2. reactive autonomy (strong negative reaction to attempts by others to control my results);
3. power/ dominance (willing to take control of the results of others);

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<sup>70</sup> Grzelak, 1989

4. dependence/ subordination (willing to give others control over one's own results);
5. respect for the autonomy of the partner (clear boundaries, everyone should control themselves);
6. cooperation (together we control our results).

The results of many studies<sup>71</sup> confirm the independence of preferences for the distribution of results and preferences for the distribution of control. Both types of orientation (as to the distribution of results and the division of control) independently predict decisions in situations of social dilemmas.

In my dissertation, the main focus was on one element of Grzelak's model – the desire to **control partners (power)**, which we will call the **need for dominance** in order to make it consistent with the McClelland's model.

Studying the differences in the need for dominance between an employee and a supervisor is extremely important in an organization because, by definition, the boss has a hierarchical advantage over the subordinate party. Having control over the environment is a meta-need.

A high level of control allows to achieve the desired results. Social situations that prevent the exercise of some kind of control can be judged as unpleasant and contribute to their abandonment<sup>72</sup>. Some people prefer to be under the control of others, reducing level of own responsibility<sup>73</sup>. Studies<sup>74</sup> on control orientations show that from 1 to 9% of the surveyed people prefer submission, that is relying on the control of others, so control is not attractive to all people.

Control orientations predict: (1) people's interest in staying or exiting a particular relationship or situation<sup>75</sup>; (2) career choices and work-related values<sup>76</sup>.

Some people feel comfortable at work, which allows them to exercise control over other employees. Others see control over other people as adding unwanted responsibility and prefer to work alone – without the influence of others and without influencing others. Still, others like to give control of their own results to a competent boss. Such a strategy is especially likely in situations of uncertainty, since getting rid of personal control transfers responsibility to another person and protects self-esteem<sup>77</sup>.

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71 Zinserling, Winiewski, 2011

72 Grzelak, 2002

73 Kuźmińska, Schulze, Koval, 2018

74 Grzelak, 2002

75 Grzelak, Kuhlman, Yeagley, & Joireman, 2009

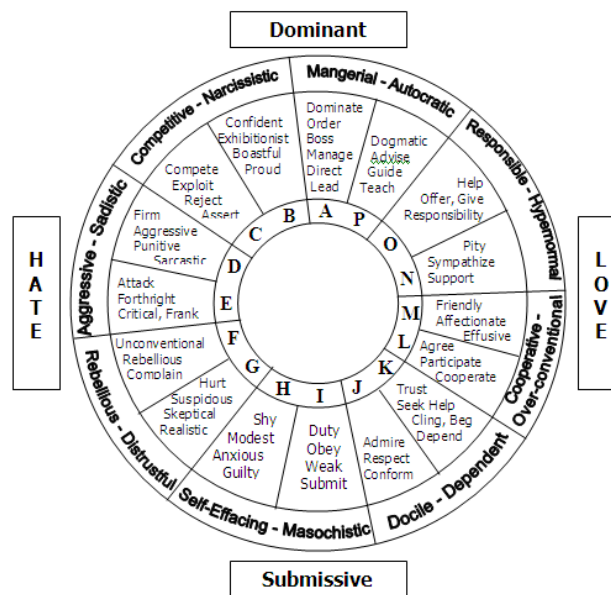
76 Modrzejewska, 2004

77 Doliński, 1993

## Leary's Interpersonal Personality Diagnosis Model<sup>78</sup>

Leary's classic model of Leary's Interpersonal Personality Diagnosis assumes that each person can be described by their position on a two-dimensional circle stretched on the axis of dominance (dominant vs. subordinate) and affiliation (friendly vs. hostile). This model predicts that similarity in the affiliation dimension is desired in the interaction, while difference in the dominance dimension is preferred because both parties (the one who likes to dominate and the one who likes to subordinate) have their needs met.

Figure 3 Timothy Leary's Interpersonal Behavior Circle



Source: Psychometrics and Artificial Intelligence, Retrieved from: <https://home.agorama.org.uk/education/2019/02/25/psychometrics-workshop.html> (25.08.2019)

### 1.3.2 Studies on the correlates of the need for dominance in the work situation

An extensive review of the literature<sup>79</sup> cites research findings indicating in a comprehensive way, that dominant individuals exert a stronger influence on the course of teamwork, speak more often, and take control of the decision-making process more often than other group members<sup>80</sup>.

<sup>78</sup> Leary, 1957

<sup>79</sup> Jurek, Olech, 2017

<sup>80</sup> Judge, Bono, Illies & Gerhardt, 2002

- dominance is a stronger predictor than other qualities of taking on the role of a leader in a team<sup>81</sup> not only because of greater assertiveness and motivation, but also because of the management of impressions.

Dominant people behave as if they are experts in a particular field, and their self-confidence inspires trust, making co-workers more willing to submit to them and give them the task of leading the group. It has been shown<sup>82</sup> that people with *A STRONG TENDENCY TO DOMINATE* are perceived by others *AS HIGHLY COMPETENT* regardless of their actual level of competence. However, it may turn out that for some employees the dominant leader is perceived as a threat to their aspirations, hence the hypothesis of complementary adjustment on the dimension of the need for dominance has been put forward.

### **1.3.3 Studies on correlations of (in)compatibility of the intensification of the need for dominance in task relations**

Research on employee characteristics has been dominated by the BIG 5 model, which itself does not contain the need for dominance per se. On the other hand, the need for dominance was taken into account in the 7-factor model<sup>83</sup>.

Studies have shown<sup>84</sup> that extroversion is a strong correlate of the need for dominance. Therefore, studies on (in)compatibility correlates on the extroversion dimension were included in the review.

In the following I will list the most important results of the research.

In experiments<sup>85</sup> conducted in 1969, in which couples differing in the level of need for dominance (measured by a questionnaire) performed tasks together. The results revealed that:

- In gender homogeneous couples (two women or two men), the role of a leader was taken over by a person with a higher need for dominance.
- in gender heterogeneous couples, the role of a leader was taken over by a man, even if it was the woman who had a higher need for dominance than him.

It can be assumed that due to generational changes, the results of this study would be difficult to replicate in the twenty-first century.

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81 Lord, de Vader & Alliger, 1986

82 Anderson & Kilduff, 2009

83 Jurek, Olech, 2017

84 Wieczorkowska, 2022

85 Megargee, 1969

In a study<sup>86</sup> of 748 male students, pairs with high and low levels of need for dominance were formed. Their task was to control the models of railway trains. The highest scores were obtained by complementary pairs (a dominant person working with a person with a low need for dominance).

The results of the survey of 217 employees (23% of men)<sup>87</sup> showed that subordinate satisfaction was higher when leaders and subordinates differed in their preferences for control when superiors had a stronger need for control than subordinates. Subordinates' satisfaction was lower when superiors showed a weaker preference for control than their subordinates.

A U.S. study<sup>88</sup> on 259 pairs consisting of an employee and his or her supervisor analyzed power distance - the degree of acceptance of hierarchical relationships at work. It was shown that:

- Conflict between supervisor and subordinate increased when the former showed a strong need to control what the latter was to do, while the employee expected a high degree of autonomy.
- The level of conflict grew much slower in the case of relationships in which the level of dominance of the boss was lower than the employee's expectations.

The results of a study<sup>89</sup> in which two samples of project teams (324 MBA students forming 64 teams and 217 employees forming 26 teams) were analyzed to assess extraversion for the attractiveness of being a team member showed that complementary fit on the extraversion dimension (i.e., high individual and low team level and low individual and high team level) was associated with greater attractiveness of collaboration.

A U.S. study<sup>90</sup> of 286 restaurant employees found that inter- employee differences in the intensity of extraversion (temperamental variation) increased employee satisfaction and decreased the frequency of antisocial behavior ('unfounded accusations by co-workers').

Extroversion level variation has been shown to 'maintain balance' between an employee and his or her supervisor. High levels of extraversion are associated with a high preference for the role of leader, low - for the role of subordinate<sup>91</sup>.

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86 Smelser, 1961

87 Glomb, Welsh, 2005

88 Graham, Dust, Ziegert, 2018; 96 supervisors, 57% male and 499 employees, 24% male

89 Kristof-Brown, Barrick, Stevens, 2005

90 Liao, Joshi, Chuang, 2004

91 Neuman, Wagner, & Christiansen, 1999



An extroversion-homogeneous team may be ineffective because of:

- (a) conflict due to the need for power in the case of equally high levels of extraversion;
- (b) lack of leadership in the case of equally low levels of extraversion.

The results of a study conducted in a Finnish factory<sup>92</sup> [52 supervisors and 203 employees (95% male)] indicate that the more different the personalities of the supervisor and the employee, the higher the employee's performance is rated.

The results of a study of 175<sup>93</sup> workers and its subsequent replication<sup>94</sup> showed that groups heterogeneous in their level of extraversion were not only more productive (generated more solutions), but also reported higher satisfaction than group members with comparable levels of extraversion.

Studies have shown that lack of hierarchy causes a struggle for dominance<sup>95</sup>, which compromises group effectiveness and performance for example, it turned out that *fashion houses with two creative directors were rated less creative than those that had one director*. The effect of the excess of talent, which has been shown in basketball teams, in a group of Wall Street stock market analysts<sup>96,97</sup> means that after *exceeding a certain threshold, increasing the number of stars/ talents brings negative effects and begins to degrade the performance*.

This means that many dominating people in a group reduce the effectiveness of the action.

Divided into groups of three, study<sup>98</sup> participants performed a task that required joint effort (creating sentences). Work effectiveness of groups differing in an activated sense of dominance or lack of it was compared by ordering to recall and describe a situation from the past in which they had power or did not have it (previous studies have shown effectiveness of such manipulation).

- In group 1 – all 3 people had an activated sense of dominance.
- In group 2 – all 3 people had an activated sense of LACK of dominance – they described situations in which they did NOT have power.
- In group 3 – only one of 3 people had an activated sense of dominance, two had an activated sense of its absence.

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92 Peltokangas, 2014

93 Hoffman, 1959

94 Hoffman, Maier, 1961

95 Bendersky, Hays, 2012, p. 323–340 for Galinski, Schweitzer, 2018

96 Anicich, Swaab, Galinsky, 2015 p. 1338–1343

97 Groysberg, 2012; Groysberg, Polzer, Elfenbein 2011 p. 722–737

98 Galinsky, Schweitzer, 2018

In Group 1, in which all three members had an activated sense of power, there was a fierce struggle for status, and thus – they achieved poor results. Group number 2, in which no one had a sense of power, did not do better at all. In this case, all members of the group lacked a sense of agency, everyone was hanging around in search of a leader. The most effective was group 3, in which only one person had an activated sense of dominance.

A review of the research allows to formulate the hypothesis about the complementary nature of the fit in terms of the need for dominance.

The hypothesis is that **dominant employees like to work with an affiliative (nondominant) boss. Employees with a low need for dominance like to work with a dominant boss.**

Although, there is a hierarchy in the work situation, an employee with a strong need for dominance may try to take informal control if a nondominant leader allows it.

#### **1.4 Section 4. PS compatibility in demographic characteristics**

Since both demographic characteristics: age and gender, occur in studies together, these will also be discussed together. A lot of research has been done on the gender preferences of a boss. A comprehensive review of literature was carried out in Kamila Pietrzak's doctoral dissertation. Here, I will present only a few results.

A series of 4 American studies have examined demographic similarities in the employee-supervisor relationship:

1. In the study<sup>99</sup> (1989; 272 supervisor-employee pairs were surveyed, superiors N=261; 96% of men, employees N=344; 74% of men) it was shown that **demographic similarity between a supervisor and an employee had a positive effect on mutual sympathy**, this effect was particularly visible in the relationship between a female supervisor/ a female employee, in case of a male supervisor/ a male employee relations such a relationship was not observed.
2. A study<sup>100</sup> (1993; N=166) of a group of newly hired employees in the first 6 months of working together with their supervisor did not show a significant impact of demographic

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99 Tsui, O'Reilly, 1989

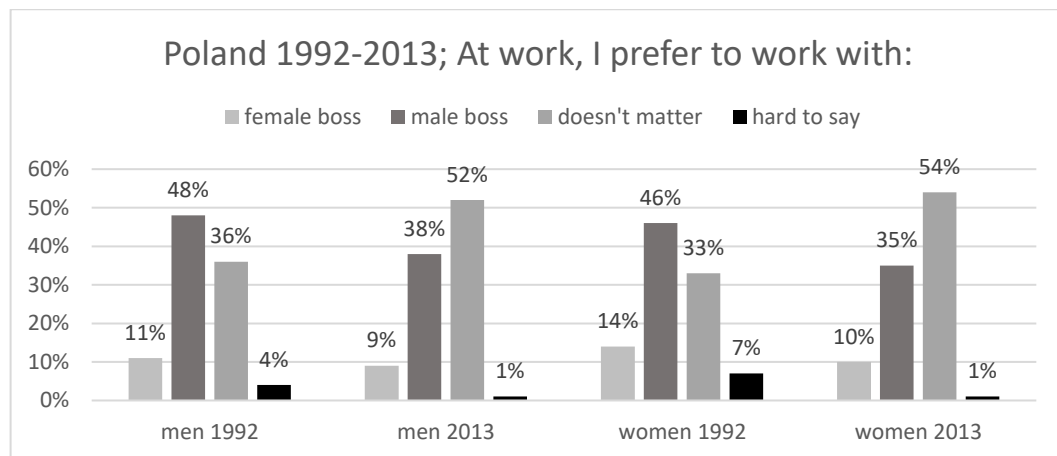
100 Liden, Sandy, Stilwell, 1993

similarity between a supervisor and an employee on the quality of the relationship between them.

3. The results of the study<sup>101</sup>, which involved 94 men (1974), confirmed discrimination against women in personnel decisions by their male superiors regarding promotion, development, or care.
4. The study<sup>102</sup> (1976; N=60; 100% of men) found no difference in employment preferences of men and women as store employees when employees were low-skilled. If employees were more qualified, women were chosen more often than men. As part of the survey, respondents were to act as a store manager. They selected an employee based on 3-minute video presenting employee's skills.

Polish research was conducted by the Centre for Social Opinion Research. Analysis of the results over 21 years (from 1992 to 2013) showed that Poles demonstrate a growing (men +16%; women +21%) lack of preference as to the gender of a boss. People who declared preferences regarding gender of a boss were almost four times more likely to choose a male boss than a female boss.

Figure 4 Preference to Work for a Man or a Woman in Poland, 1992-2013



Source: own elaboration based on CBOS, 2013

Similar data were collected in the US<sup>103</sup> between 1953 and 2017. The results also allow to observe a growing lack of gender preferences of a boss (about +47% men and +15% women) in America.

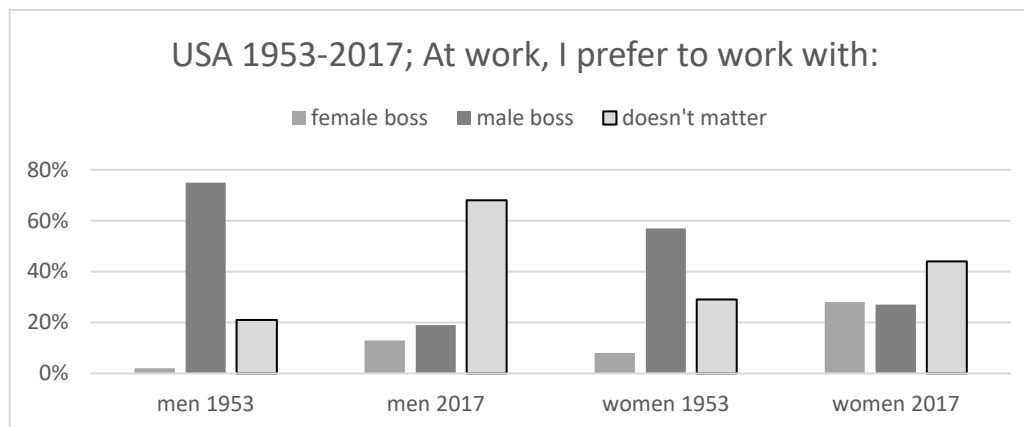
101 Rosen, Jerdee, 1974

102 Bigoness, 1976

103 Gallup, 2017

It is worth noting that among respondents who declared preference for gender of a boss, women are more likely to choose a woman than a man in this role (28% vs. 27%).

Figure 5 The Preference to Work for a Man or a Woman in USA, 1953-2017



Source: own elaboration based on Gallup 2017; N=1082 (\*Data does not add up to 100%, due to missing information).

In a study conducted by Deloitte (2018), which included 5711 people aged 18 to 30 (69% of women), all of whom were students or graduates of leading universities from Central Europe, they were asked whether they would prefer to work with a man or a woman. The results show that **72.3%** of people considered that **gender does not matter**, **22%** would choose a man, while **5.7%** of respondents prefer a woman in this role<sup>104</sup>. The male group of respondents was more likely to choose a woman as their boss than a man.

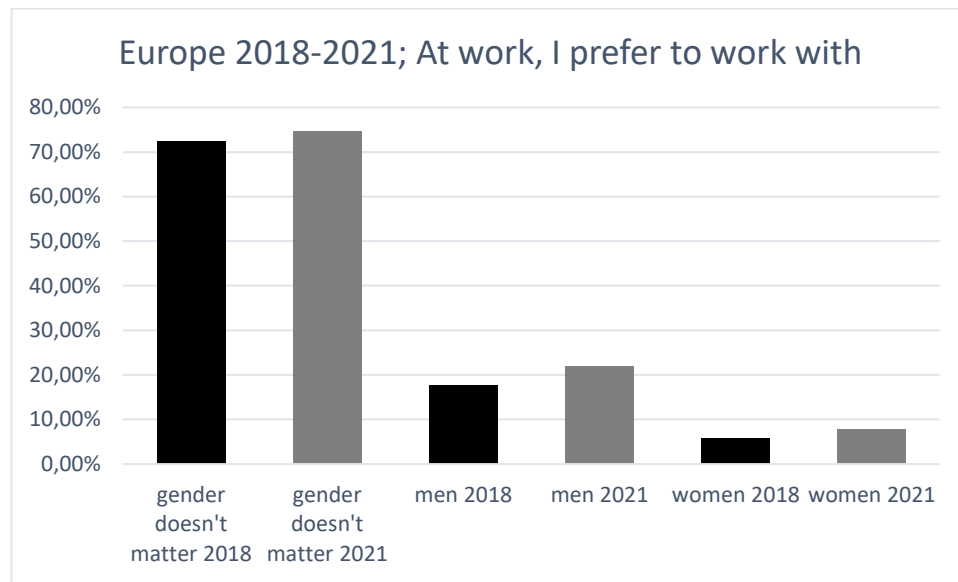
After 3 years, small changes (but moving in the same direction) could have been observed. In a 2021 survey of 9,000 people, **74.7%** of respondents said gender did not matter, **17.7%** said they would like a man in that role, and **7.7%** would prefer a woman<sup>105</sup>.

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104 Deloitte, 2018

105 Deloitte, 2021

Figure 6 The Preference to Work for a Man or a Woman in Europe, 2018-2021



Source: own elaboration based on Deloitte 2018-2021; N=5711; N=9000

**Literature review is supported by statements of my respondents**, who pointed out that the personality, competences, and approach of a supervisor to duties performed are more important than gender. Participants emphasized such features as:

- **Matter-of-factness**

(W, 50-year-old) *'Gender doesn't matter if the boss is honest and matter-of-fact, can determine exactly what he or she expects, and is understanding in cases of emergencies that sometimes complicate things.'*

- **Concreteness**

(M, 64-year-old) *'Gender does not matter. I like a boss who is specific, who does not change her or his mind, who knows what I want.'*

At the same time, experience of the respondents indicates that **differences between genders may be significant**.

(W, 44-year-old) *'Yes, a guy is more specific, and a woman is often jealous, and therefore the relationship is more often unhealthy. Age doesn't always matter.'*

In the statements of people who prefer men as a boss, there are arguments that men are more substantive in performing the duties of a boss, while women show greater emotionality and unpredictability.

(M, 39-year-old) *'The best boss is a substantive and experienced person. It is best if he or she comes from an institution and knows the work from scratch. He or she shouldn't be a 'born manager' who only gives orders, even if they don't make sense. Unfortunately, men are better bosses than women, because they are more professional and do not succumb to emotions. The age rather doesn't matter.'*

Respondents prefer to work with male bosses because relationships with them are simpler – it is believed that it is easier to communicate with them.

(W, 40-year-old) *'As a woman, I definitely prefer male bosses. Age is irrelevant. Female bosses have always been unfair and mean.'*

In the statements of people who prefer women as bosses, there are signals that women in the role of a boss are distinguished by the way of communication and a fresh look and a different approach to tasks.

(W, 38-year-old) *'Two of my best bosses were **women, not much older than me**. First of all, they had excellent substantive knowledge and soft skills that allowed them to flexibly manage the team so that you wanted the work to be well done (in their case, these skills were innate). But I also had a really good boss, a man who was a bit angular in personality, but also a good job of working together.'*

More examples of statements of respondents supporting the above conclusions have been provided in the appendix.

In the past, older workers supervised the work of younger workers, age was closely related to social status. Older people were positioned as leaders due to their experience and knowledge that came with years. This usual pattern has changed over the decades, because of many trends. To increase productivity, many companies have abandoned seniority-based promotion systems in favor

of merit-based systems that encourage ambitious young workers to compete and stay ahead of their older colleagues in their careers<sup>106</sup>.

Developments in technological innovation, among other things, have prompted companies to change their HR strategies, promoting the fresh and creative ideas of younger workers and promoting them into management positions promote fresh and creative ideas of younger employees, and promote them to managerial positions.

The trend toward promoting younger people to positions that require them to manage older employees is also a consequence of demographic change<sup>107</sup>, which makes companies retain older employees for longer. With an increasing number of aging people whose careers have stalled or declined, the likelihood that their supervisors will be younger increases.

In industrialized countries, age is considered irrelevant when deciding on promotion<sup>108</sup>. However, empirical evidence points at the alleged benefits of this policy as mixed in effects<sup>109</sup>.

At the same time, as companies learn their organizations and age differences become blurred in workgroups, managers often face questions about the consequences of combining older employees with younger ones. Entrepreneurs can assess the consequences of variables such as team composition in terms of age, using heuristics based on the manager's working assumptions. One of such assumptions is that we will assess work of older employees as worse than of their younger colleagues.

Evidence of such practices was found in a meta-analysis devoted to the relationship between age difference and employee productivity. A weak tendency was shown to underestimate the productivity of older workers in the assessment of superiors<sup>110</sup>. Similar results were obtained in a later study in which supervisors rated older workers not only as less productive, but also as less likeable<sup>111</sup>. Furthermore, it was found that subordinates of different ages – both younger and older than their superiors – declared a higher level in ambiguity of their roles in the team than **subordinates of the same age as their bosses**.

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106 Chiang, Birtch, 2007

107 Peeters, Groot, 2011

108 Castilla, 2008

109 Phelan, Lin, 2000

110 Waldman & Avolio, 1986

111 Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989

Many studies show a positive correlation between age and job satisfaction<sup>112</sup>. A review of more than 185 studies<sup>113</sup> found that age is positively correlated with job satisfaction. A meta-analysis of more than 800 articles showed that age is positively correlated with overall job satisfaction ( $r=0.18$ ), salary satisfaction (0.11), relationships satisfaction with colleagues (0.12), relationships satisfaction with superiors (0.10) and negatively correlated with satisfaction with promotions (-0.31).

A study<sup>114</sup> of 61 companies found that **the greater the age difference** between an employee and a supervisor, the **more often** employees experience **negative emotions** such as anger, fear, and disgust. A predictor of better coping in age-diverse groups is the ability to suppress emotions at work.

According to the report ‘First Steps into the Labour Market 2021’ created by Deloitte, which was attended by European students and young university graduates (more than 9,000 people)<sup>115</sup>, more than half (55%) of the respondents considered that any generational differences are related more to the way of thinking than to the actual age. Furthermore:

- for 35% of respondents, **age of a supervisor does not matter** (an increase of 4% compared to 2018),
- 39% declare that they would like to have a supervisor aged 36 to 50 years (a decrease of 4% compared to 2018),
- only **2%** would like their boss to be **over 50 years old** (a decrease of 1% compared to 2018).

From the reports<sup>116</sup> we learn that students speak positively about cooperation with older colleagues, 93% see them as a valuable source of knowledge, while 88% are convinced that they would be able to find common ‘ground’ of understanding between different generations. There were also voices that older generations do not understand the needs of younger generations.

In an American study of 180 managers (85% men) and 290 employees (80% men)<sup>117</sup>, it was shown that **employees older than their superiors** are **rated lower** on the dimensions of chance for

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112 Moyes, Shao, Newsome, 2008; Andersen, Kjeldsen, 2013; Taylor, 2008; Srivastava, Mishra, 2019  
113 Rhodes 1983

114 Kunze & Menges, 2017

115 Deloitte, 2021

116 Deloitte 2018, 2021

117 Shore, Cleveland, Golberg, 2003



promotion, managerial skills, and opportunities for further personal development. Younger managers rated younger employees better than older ones. Senior managers treated older and younger employees similarly.

An Italian study<sup>118</sup> (N=155; 17% of men) comparing the perception of younger (24-34 years old) and older (55-65 years old) employees, showed that compared to younger ones, **older** employees are perceived as **more conscientious, more emotionally stable, and more accepting of overtime**. Further analyses showed that respondents favored their own age group, e.g. the older group perceived their own group higher on the level of conscientiousness than would result from the assessment made by younger employees.

Differences in perception are an important element, as demonstrated, i.e. in the 2019 Randstad Employer Brand Research. All generations highly value a good atmosphere in the workplace, with the difference that a good atmosphere for the elderly means peace, for the younger ones, no boredom in a dynamically changing environment.

#### **1.4.1 Hypothesis on supplementary gender fit and complementary age fit of a boss and an employee**

Based on surveys in which employee declarations were requested, we can conclude that the prevailing view is that gender of a boss is irrelevant. Respondents in Poland who have preferences are more likely to choose men. According to an extensive review of research<sup>119</sup>, most people on their social network (about 150 people) own about 70% of people of the same gender as them. Men feel better in relationships with other men, women with other women. Many studies<sup>120</sup> have shown that people misidentify factors that influence their behavior – they may not realize that age and gender influence their choices<sup>121</sup>.

The impact of demographic variables can be hidden from the consciousness. Therefore, the hypothesis being tested assumes that employees will show a preference for a **supplementary fit in terms of gender**.

Based on surveys in which people were asked about employees' declarations, the prevailing view is that boss's competences are more important than age. However, it can be assumed that with age,

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118 Bertolino, Truxillo, Fraccaroli, 2013  
119 Dunbar, 2020

120 Nisbett, Wilson, 1977  
121 Carlsson, Eriksson, 2017

the competences of a boss should grow. A peer boss may have more trouble maintaining authority, so it was hypothesized that employees would feel better with their older boss and show a preference for **an asymmetrical age complementarity fit in their preferences**.

## **1.5 Section 5. Job satisfaction, relational satisfaction, emotional balance**

### **1.5.1 Job satisfaction**

Job satisfaction is one of the best studied concepts in HRM<sup>122</sup>. It is defined as:

- a pleasant, positive emotional state resulting from the evaluation of work experiences or a characteristic of work<sup>123</sup>;
- an assessment of the extent to which the work experienced is beneficial or unfavorable to the person, which is expressed in affective reactions and cognitive evaluations<sup>124</sup>.

Employee satisfaction is recognized as one of the important performance indicators, because it is related to employee engagement, which translates directly into the organization's results. For example, high job satisfaction has been associated with reduced burnout, lower employee turnover, greater engagement, and increased efficiency<sup>125</sup>.

The level of job satisfaction is usually assessed on the basis of the employee's answer to one general question (e.g. **'How satisfied are you with your work?'**) or many specific questions about individual aspects related to work.

Researchers disagree on whether to analyze individual dimensions separately or to create a single general indicator<sup>126</sup>. The importance of operational definitions is clearly visible. Employee well-being, or satisfaction is what a given measurement tool measures.

An example of a tool for measuring job satisfaction is the Work Description Inventory<sup>127</sup>, which was built from 8 dimensions of work. Each dimension contains several or a dozen detailed statements to which the employee responds on the scale of the degree of consent. In addition, each dimension is also assessed on a graphic scale. The tool depicts the figures of seven schematic

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122 Rainey, 2009

123 Bajcar et al., 2011; Celik, 2011

124 Zalewska, 2003, p. 50

125 Haley-Lock, 2007

126 Zalewska, 2003

127 Neuberger & Allerbeck, 1978, in the Polish adaptation Zalewska, 2001

drawings of a face (from very dissatisfied to very satisfied). This questionnaire is considered one of the most comprehensive tools for measuring job satisfaction.

Another tool is the Job Satisfaction Scale<sup>128</sup> used in our research, which requires respondents to assess 7 partial satisfactions: 1. Colleagues, 2. Direct supervisors, 3. Type of tasks performed at work, 4. Working conditions, 5. Professional development, 6. Financial rewards 7. Work time.

A comprehensive review of the literature<sup>129</sup> shows that job satisfaction is an important predictor of employee behavior that can have a significant impact on the functioning of an organization. Research provides following examples of satisfaction relationships with:

- job performance<sup>130</sup> (positive), further research shows that the relationship was even higher for occupations with a high degree of complexity<sup>131</sup>;
- the intention to quit job (employee turnover)<sup>132</sup> (negative);
- Work-Unit Absenteeism (negative)<sup>133</sup>;
- participating in initiatives for the benefit of the organization (positive)<sup>134</sup>;
- felt stress and conflicts between work and family<sup>135</sup> (negative);
- organizational citizenship behavior<sup>136</sup> (positive), which translates into greater employee's loyalty and implementation of the set results and goals<sup>137</sup>;
- counterproductive behavior, which negatively affects functioning of a company, e.g. sabotage or theft<sup>138</sup> (negative).

The challenges of ensuring an adequate level of employee satisfaction vary depending on the nature of the employees and the organization<sup>139</sup>. Contextual variables are also shown to be important because the independent impact of satisfaction on employee behavior is usually not very significant<sup>140</sup>.

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128 Bajcar et al., 2011

129 Pietrzak, 2020

130 Gerald, 1999; Keaveney & Nelson, 1993; Kluger & Tikochinsky, 2001; Noruzy, Hayat, Rezazadeh, Najafi, Hatami-Shirkouhi, 2011; Shore & Martin, 1989; Barry, Staw & Barsade, 1993; Judge et al., 2001

131 Judge et al., 2001

132 Tett & Meyer, 1993; Tziner, Ben-David, Oren, & Sharoni, 2014; Verquer et al., 2003; Zhao et al., 2007

133 Diestel, Wegge & Schmidt, 2014

134 García-Almeida et al., 2015; Grobelna et al., 2016; Lee, Park, & Kang, 2018

135 Meyer, Stanley, Herscovitch, & Topolnytsky, 2002

136 Nielsen, Hrivnak, & Shaw, 2009

137 Sarala, 2017

138 Chen & Spector, 1992

139 Wilczyńska, Batorski, & Sellens, 2016

140 Jachnis, 2008

## Emotional balance of an employee during work

The question of job satisfaction is addressed directly to the conscious analytical system of the employee's mind<sup>141</sup>. One can ask a holistic system, which records experiences, a question about the frequency of experiencing emotions during work. Below are some selected examples of tools<sup>142</sup>:

- *The Job Affect Scale (JAS)*<sup>143</sup> contains a list of 20 emotions, based on positive affect (pleasant engagement, energy arousal) and negative affect (unpleasant engagement, tension arousal). The subject assesses the intensity of feelings felt at work during the last two weeks at work.
- *The Job-related Affective Well-being Scale (JAWS)*<sup>144</sup> is designed to assess people's emotional responses to their work. In it, the subject indicates, for each of the 30 emotions (in case of the shortened version, 20 emotions), how often they have experienced them in the last 30 days. The scale was used in one of our studies.
- *The Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS)*<sup>145</sup> consists of 60 different emotions, which are divided into two general scales: *General Negative Affect* and *General Positive Affect*.

It is worth emphasizing that from the point of view of the influence of emotions on the level of arousal (activation), we divide emotions<sup>146</sup> into sthenic (mobilizing, such as anger) and asthenic (demobilizing, such as sadness).

Research indicates that positive emotions affect:

1. employee health<sup>147</sup> (not only joy, but also more complex emotions such as pride);
2. objective indicators of better work, such as a positive assessment from the supervisor<sup>148</sup> or even a salary increase<sup>149</sup>;

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141 Wieczorkowska, 2022

142 Czerw, 2017

143 Burke, Brief, George, Roberson & Webster, 1998, in the Polish adaptation Anna Zalewska, 2002

144 Van Katwyk, Fox, Spector, & Kelloway, 2000

145 Watson & Clark, 1997, Polish tool version: Skala Uczuć Pozytywnych i Negatywnych (SUPIN; Brzozowski, 2010) with fewer items

146 Wieczorkowska, 2022

147 Wärnl, Lindholm & Eriksson, 2007; Czerw, 2017

148 Staw, Sutton & Pelled, 1994; Wright, 2014

149 Staw et al., 1994

3. achieving assumed professional goals, especially when their implementation depends on contacts with superiors<sup>150</sup> (especially when emotions are shown);
4. pro-social behavior toward other employees and customers<sup>151</sup>.

### 1.5.2 Relational satisfaction

Relationship satisfaction with a supervisor, called relational satisfaction, is an important predictor of many variables.

As I wrote in the introduction:

- 63% of the 122,000 employees surveyed in the Kelly Global Index survey<sup>152</sup> said that their immediate supervisor had a significant impact on their level of satisfaction and commitment;
- 75% of the 1,019 Americans surveyed by the American Psychological Association said their 'line manager is the most stressful part of their job'<sup>153</sup>;
- 50% of the 7,272 (U.S.) employees surveyed by Gallup in 2015 said they 'left their jobs at some point in their career to get away from their supervisor'<sup>154</sup>;
- 56% of U.S. workers (N=1,000) say that their supervisor is moderately or highly toxic<sup>155</sup>.

Research<sup>156</sup> shows that destructive leadership affects employee behavior in negative ways. Employees who consider the relationship with their supervisor to be destructive are less satisfied with their work, less involved in the life of an organization, less trusting toward coworkers, more stressed, more resistant to attempts to influence superiors, and less willing to perform prosocial behavior for the benefit of their organization. Poor leadership causes individual employee performance to be worse, more prone to turnover, and even engages in practices that are harmful to the organization<sup>157</sup>.

Despite the steadily increasing financial outlays to improve the quality of management (e.g. an increase of 14% in the USA), employees often leave their jobs due to their supervisor<sup>158</sup>.

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150 Wong, Tschan, Messerli & Semmer, 2013

151 Wright, 2014

152 Kelly Global Workforce Index, 2013

153 Hogan, 2014

154 Gallup, 2015

155 Matos, 2018

156 Schyns, Schilling, 2013

157 Schyns, Schilling, 2013

158 Meinert, 2014

## 1.6 Section 6. Selected results of research on person-supervisor fit

Leaders play a key role in shaping environment of their organization. Their duties include, i.a. shaping and transmitting company's values<sup>159</sup>. The results of the American study<sup>160</sup> (2005; N=32 leaders, N=467 employees, 55% of men), partially confirmed the operation of the ASA model. **Leaders were more likely to surround themselves with people similar to themselves.** Thus, they created an intra-organizational homogenization of both personality and values among employees. Similarity was analyzed using the Big Five personality inventory and the compatibility of the 10 values.

Three subsequent South Korean studies<sup>161</sup> (2007; N1=3.534; N2=2.912; N3=1.353) showed progressive homogenization of 'personality' within the same organization. Over time (comparing new hires with people with longer work experience – with several years of experience), employees 'personality' became more and more similar to each other. It is interesting that the greatest homogenization occurred in terms of biologically conditioned extroversion rather than in terms of other personality traits. Employee personality traits were measured using the Big Five and the Hogan Personality Inventory.

Studies<sup>162</sup> show that people with a similar style of communication are more effective in predicting their partners' behavior. Mutual attraction resulting from a similar style of communication (increased interpersonal attractiveness of employees) can be explained by reduced uncertainty.

Similarity in communication is strongly associated with attracting people to each other, but sometimes differences can help achieve desired outcomes and even result in a stronger relationship<sup>163</sup>.

Superiors<sup>164</sup> are more likely to initiate interactions with subordinates than vice versa. They are also usually less positive and less satisfied with contacts with their subordinates than with contacts with their own superiors.

The Dutch survey<sup>165</sup> (2000; 154 new hires and 101 supervisors from 68 organizations) analyzed the declared level of concern for others and commitment. It was found that high and consistent

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159 Schein, 2004

160 Giberson, Dickson, Resick, 2005

161 Oh, Han, Holtz, Kim, & Kim, 2018

162 Berger, Calabrese, 1975

163 Berger, Calabrese, 1975

164 Jablin, 1979

165 Van Vianen, 2000

performance of a boss and an employee in terms of concern for others coexisted with a high level of work commitment. In other cases (a consistent low level of concern for others or disagreement on this dimension between a boss and an employee) was associated with a low level of commitment. When the supervisor's declaration regarding her or his concern for others was higher than that of an employee, an employee was not willing to change jobs.

The results of the Polish study<sup>166</sup> (2016; N=321; 37% of men) showed that supplementary fit (perceived by an employee as similar to a boss) is positively (but weakly) related to proactive employee behavior. Perceived similarity between supervisor and subordinate does not translate into a reduction in unethical employee behavior, whereas complementary matching on the needs and resources dimensions is negatively (but weakly) related to unethical behavior.

A meta-analysis<sup>167</sup> of the fit results revealed a very weak relationship between PS and other types of fit. The level of supervisor-employee fit correlates as much with job satisfaction (.44) as with relational satisfaction (.46).

The Leader-Exchange Model<sup>168</sup> [LMX] assumes that, due to limited energy resources, time, and attention, leaders devote their attention to individual employees to varying degrees.

For each leader, one can identify subordinates who have better relationships with her or him [high-quality relationships] and worse relationships [low-quality LMX relationships] focused on performing tasks<sup>169</sup>. It has been shown that in case of **high quality LMX, subordinates receive better ratings regardless of the results achieved**<sup>170,171</sup>, **low quality LMX subordinates** may feel treated unfairly<sup>172</sup>.

A leader's behavior style, which differs from individual subordinates, may result from the nature of their relationships. Closer relationships are usually maintained with people who have the competences, qualities, or behaviors desired by a leader. Such employees may be treated differently, receive greater autonomy and support, or be more appreciated<sup>173</sup>. Building a good relationship means more loyalty, supporting each other's actions, and expressing more sympathy. The results of the study indicate that the emotional relationship is crucial in the creative activity of

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166 Korulczyk, Cooper-Thomas, 2021  
167 Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, Johnson, 2005  
168 Dansereau, Graen, Haga, 1975  
169 Mueller & Lee, 2002, Koval, 2021  
170 Duarte et al., 1994, Koval, 2021

171 Dienesch & Liden, 1986, Koval, 2021  
172 Yukl, 1994, as cited in as cited in Mueller & Lee, 2002, Koval, 2021  
173 Wojtczuk-Turek. 2018, Duarte et al., 1994, Dienesch & Liden, 1986, Koval, 2021

employees. However, for the generation and implementation of ideas by employees, the dimension of the loyalty relationship will be important<sup>174</sup>.

Positive feedback from leaders about their employees can increase their motivation and performance, while negative feedback has a demobilizing effect on employees.

A study of 116 couples consisting of a supervisor and her or his subordinate<sup>175</sup> showed that **compatibility** with the dimension of **social cynicism** (the belief that the social world is an unfair place ruled by competition and exploitation) predicts greater involvement in taking on additional tasks (extra role behaviors) and more frequent proactive behaviors of employees. Cynical leaders do not trust the skills and motivations of their subordinates. The exception is the attitude of cynical leaders towards cynical employees.

Referring to LMX theory, it is worth noting that a closer relationship between a supervisor and a subordinate exchange increases the sense of mutual fitting, which is associated with a positive affective reaction (liking each other), resulting from a sense of influence on the goals and interests of others (we like people who help us and are favorable to us).

A U.S. study of 2,564 managers<sup>176</sup> conducted by the Gallup Institute (2015) found that:

1. Employees supervised by **highly engaged managers** are 59% more likely to be more engaged than employees overseen by managers with low level of engagement.
2. Managers are responsible in 70% for the results of employee engagement in individual business units.

A Bangladeshi survey<sup>177</sup> of insurance company employees (2010; N=99; 57.5% of men) confirmed that employees who rate their relationship with their supervisors (e.g. trust, help, feedback) and job satisfaction (e.g. training, interesting tasks, challenges) have a higher level of emotional well-being at work.

Employees who consider themselves to fit the organizational culture are more likely to be influenced by a supervisor who is responsible for transmitting cultural values in their daily work.

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174 Wojtczuk-Turek, 2013  
175 Byza, et al., 2017

176 Gallup, 2015  
177 Zaman, Newaz, 2010



A U.S. study<sup>178</sup> of five organizations (1998; N=979) found that employees who did not share the values and priorities of their supervisors were rated as those who performed worse than those who shared their supervisors' priorities.

A performance analysis<sup>179</sup> of 100 leaders and 583 employees in two public hospitals in China showed the impact of proactive **fit personalities of bosses and employees** on employee engagement. Employees are more engaged at work when the level of proactivity of employees is higher than the level of proactivity of their leaders than in the opposite situation.

A study of 131 supervisors and 467 subordinates analyzed<sup>180</sup> the 'impact' of the supervisors' personality and showed that the higher the boss's agreeableness and emotional stability, the greater the employee's satisfaction with monitoring of her or his progress. Supervisor's extroversion was negatively related to the intentions of leaving organization, and the conscientiousness of a supervisor was negatively related to the employee's emotional attachment to the organization.

In a study<sup>181</sup> conducted in England and Wales, in which 267 and 82 employee-supervisor pairs participated respectively, it was shown that as similarity of personality of an employee and a supervisor increase, the subordinate's satisfaction with work increases. Furthermore, in Wales, it was found that as job satisfaction increases, the caution of subordinates decreases, resulting in more mistakes made at work.

Studies<sup>182</sup> have shown that fit is a beneficial phenomenon resulting from the attraction of 'matching' people. Achieving and maintaining a sense of fit is a process that requires effort and strategy changes. Failure in that respect causes a sense of discomfort, strangeness, or misfit<sup>183</sup>.

The study<sup>184</sup> (USA and GB; 2018; N=81) showed that the feeling of misfit is unpleasant for employees (it causes withdrawal, stress and is a direct cause of leaving work).

The deterioration of satisfaction resulting from the misfit can be triggered by increased discomfort at work associated with an unwanted change or its announcement. The process of dealing with feelings of misfit has 3 stages. In the first stage, an employee tries to solve the problem of misfit,

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178 Witt, 1998

179 Yang et al., 2017

180 Smith, Canger, 2004

181 Ahmad, 2008

182 Colbert, Kristof-Brown, Bradley, Barrick, 2008; Kristof-Brown, Barrick, Stevens, 2005; Schaubroeck, Lam, 2002; Witt, 1998, Bretz and Judge, 1994

183 Follmer, Talbot, Kristof-Brown, Astrove, & Billsberry, 2017

184 Follmer, et al, 2017

in the second stage, he or she tries to reduce emotional discomfort and increase the comfort of work. If the first two stages fail, the third stage occurs, that is – resigning from work. In the event of a misfit, the ASA model predicts that employees who are not fit would voluntarily want to leave the workplace<sup>185</sup>. Therefore, studying the factors that affect the feeling of being misfit is of an utmost importance to the HRM field and overall functioning of contemporary organizations.

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<sup>185</sup> Schneider, 1987

## Chapter 2. The methods and the objectives

In Chapter 2 first, methodological assumptions, objectives of the study, descriptions of the samples and operationalization of the variables will be presented. After this introduction, the research tasks and hypotheses tested in the empirical part will be formulated.

All research and analyses were carried out within the Wieczorkowska-Wierzbńska framework of the methodological paradigm (WiW), which I am presenting below<sup>186</sup>.

### 2.1 The WiW methodological paradigm for HRM research<sup>187</sup>

The results of research in HRM do not lead to the construction of absolute laws, but only remain SOCIALLY, CULTURALLY, and HISTORICALLY limited generalizations<sup>188</sup>. The formulation of a research program requires not only determining the area of research, but also specifying the problem itself and the purpose of this research<sup>189</sup>. What research instruments one will use in their case will result from the adopted research goal and the possibility of its implementation.

We study what is observable, measurable, and susceptible to experimentation. Science is based on empirical evidence.

#### 2.1.1 Terminological findings

All data obtained by asking employees questions are called **survey** data. Everyone, regardless of whether they took part in surveys, experiments, or interviews, is called **respondents**, because the subject of analysis is their reactions (answers).

Data from the measurement of people can be **numbers**, and then we are talking about quantitative research/ analysis, or **words** that are most often a component of qualitative research/ analysis.

Quantitative data are sets of numbers that are subjected to statistical analysis. Qualitative data are collections of words that are an attempt to describe different visions of the studied phenomenon (reality is in the eye of the beholder) subjected to the interpretative analysis of the researcher, which

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186 This part of the text is quoted after Wieczorkowska, 2022

187 by Wieczorkowska 2022

188 Sułkowski, 2011

189 Niemczyk, 2011

may contain elements objectifying the classification of statements by independent judges, counting the frequency of using different wording.

Quantitative research differs from qualitative research in the degree of proceduralization of analysis methods. The aim of **quantitative** research is most often to objectively test hypotheses assuming relations between variables. On the other hand, the goal of **qualitative** research is most often to recognize individual ways of perceiving reality.

### 2.1.2 Methodological pluralism/ eclecticism and pragmatism in the choice of problem

The WiW paradigm rejects both **anarchism** (which accepts any methods and techniques taken even from individual experience) and methodological **fundamentalism**, in which different research methods cannot be mixed. It is consistent with the postulate that research methods in HRM should be used reflectively because they are heuristic in nature, preventing algorithmization. Therefore, she advocates **pluralism** and even **methodological eclecticism** accepting the use of methods taken from different disciplines and theoretical approaches to solve the research problem<sup>190</sup>.

At the stage of selecting a research problem, it is recommended to use a **pragmatic** approach assuming that if the analyzed research problem does not have important practical consequences, then it is not worth dealing with it, leaving this type of consideration to the fundamental science.

### 2.1.3 The specificity of the test object

Methodologists forget that the study of inanimate objects is governed by different laws than the study of people. What is worse, we are dealing with the study of 'people by people'<sup>191</sup>. The specificity of HRM research lies in the fact that the object of measurement is people who create meanings, that is, their reactions to stimuli are mediated by their expectations, interpretations determined to a large extent by the record of their previous experiences. Therefore, unlike exact sciences in HRM, each replication of the study is a success, because the group of employees studied, their experience, cultural context, etc. always changes.

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190 Sułkowski, 2011.

191 Niemczyk, 2011

The object of analysis in HRM research is psychological facts, i.e. most often people's answers (verbal or categorized on numerical scales) to the questions asked. It should be noted that this type of quantitative data is almost always distorted, as has been shown in many studies<sup>192</sup>.

The model of the process of answering questions<sup>193</sup> shows why there is such a great diversity of responses from respondents.

Answering a question about assessment, e.g. job satisfaction, requires activating various information contained in long-term memory – in its semantic part (e.g. what it means to be satisfied) and episodic (e.g. recalling various emotional states). The information invoked, according to the concept of consciousness called **the multiple sketch model**, is subject to constant editing. At no point in this process can it be said that the editing is complete, and its final outcome is consciously experienced. At a given moment we remember the worst episodes, and in an hour, we can recall information that radically changes our judgment. In a good mood, we are looking for positive aspects of working in this company, while in a bad mood, we tend to ‘drive a coach and horses.’ Respondents, when completing a survey, extremely rarely have ready-made satisfaction ratings ‘in their heads’. The assumption that we are constantly archiving different opinions is not very convincing. An alternative assumption is that we construct them on an ongoing basis when they are needed. Specific goals, standards, assessments, and attitudes with a high capacity to generate further information. We have encoded in our mind various general opinions, goals, standards, and attitudes that allow us to generate the next. They are necessary for the development of emotions because without them it is impossible to give any meaning to the events encountered. Most of the cognitive representations (e.g., views on the role of work in life) that we ask about are not represented in the mind before the assessment is initiated. Such representations can be described as virtual (because they do not exist before the question is asked). Our approach differs significantly from the traditional approach of measurement theory, in which it is assumed that the subject already has a fixed ‘true’ answer – one that they would give themselves, so the basic problem is to minimize the measurement error caused by the form of the question, the social context.

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192 See Wieczorkowska, Wierzbński 2011

193 See Wieczorkowska, Wierzbński 2011

Any assessment requires the ability to focus attention on selecting information, omitting, or at least blocking those that are of secondary importance. In the process of transforming thoughts into a statement, a chain of associations appears in the mind. Each word, especially ambiguous, triggers sequences of associations that often run in different, even very divergent directions. There are many persistently encoded cognitive schemes 'ready' to interpret such a word. The mind usually sifts through associations and chooses only those that have to do with the thought we want to express. The more accurate this sifting of information is, the more effectively the next stage of processing associated with conscious attention can proceed. Only a modest fraction of the course of this process can be made aware, which does not mean, however, that we cannot take control and draw our attention to various aspects of the issue. In this way, consciousness modifies the operation of the filter. We can call up information from long-term memory and it will filter the incoming information. To sum up, we must know that **respondents very often do not have a ready answer and create it only when questions are asked**. Very often they do not reproduce their opinions but construct them. What opinion they formulate depends on which of the four strategies for formulating a judgment we use: 1) reproducing ready-made assessments, 2) motivated processing, 3) heuristic (simplified) processing, and 4) analytical (detailed) processing.

What information processing strategy will be chosen is determined by the respondent's cognitive abilities (e.g. level of reflexivity), the state of the body (overload, mood), and goals determining the degree of involvement. The choice is also influenced by the characteristics of the subject of assessment (degree of familiarity and complexity) and the features of the situation (time pressure, social approval, how costly mistakes are). In surveys, respondents, due to time constraints and the lack of costs of formulating an inaccurate judgment, extremely rarely use an analytical strategy. Therefore, we should remember about:

1. psychological realism of research<sup>194</sup> – questions should arouse interest. The questioned person wants to understand, not only WHAT they are asked, but also WHAT FOR? It is very important to take care of the right level of motivation – offering personalized feedback where possible.
2. The respondents do not have ready answers in their heads and must have the right to give a meaningless answer – I do NOT know, does not apply or to omit the answer. Forcing them to answer can lead to irritation and random answers to the next questions.

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194 See Wieczorkowska, Aronson, 2001

3. The respondent avoids effort if they can – they willingly use the middle options, so this should be avoided by offering the option. It is difficult to say beyond the scale of the answer. Studies<sup>195</sup> have shown that the absence of a middle option does not cause a significant increase in the number of contentless responses.

In conclusion: the respondent's answers, which we subject to further analysis, have different cognitive value. Sophisticated methods of data analysis will be no use if these data are distorted in a random way.

#### **2.1.4 Scientific concepts and operational definitions**

In science, we use *the language of observation* and *the language of theory* in parallel. In the language of theory, we use scientific concepts (theoretical constructs, latent variables), e.g. leadership style, need for dominance, emotional well-being of the employee, etc., which must be translated into the language of observation.

In the WiW paradigm, it is recognized that the studied theoretical constructs are natural concepts that cannot be defined in a classic way by necessary and sufficient conditions, so the solution to the problem is operationalism<sup>196</sup>, which assumes that scientific concepts do not capture the essence of things, but only give the actions of the scientist, his psychophysical operations needed to determine the subject of study.

We use various measurement tools to build indicators. An example would be sets of questions built to measure the characteristics of an employee. Such sets of questions are called scales (e.g., the Anxiety Scale) or psychological tests, which can be thought of as a variation of *calibrated tools*<sup>197</sup>.

For the analysis of quantitative research, a positivist approach<sup>198</sup> is used, assuming that the subject of research are facts that we present in the language of variable values. In scientific investigations of HRM, in which the object of research are people (individually or collectively), hundreds of variables and their operationalization have been described. One gets the impression that the introduction of another scientific concept into the description of a person is overly accepted. Therefore, the researcher must select the variables that are the subject of their investigation,

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195 Wiczorkowska, Wierzbinski, 2011

196 Bernstein, 1949 by Tatarkiewicz, 1950.

197 Brzeziński, 2019.

198 Tatarkiewicz, 1950

describing the theoretical model of the described phenomenon and the model of measurement of theoretical constructs.

The task of the researcher is not limited to recording facts and laws regulating facts but consists in ordering them in theoretical models in such a way to be able to predict subsequent facts on their basis.

### **2.1.5 Theoretical models**

In HRM, cognition is done mainly through testing models, not observations<sup>199</sup>. Therefore, the first step is to select them based on a literature review of theoretical variables (scientific concepts), which will be used to model the phenomenon of interest to the researcher.

The theoretical model should:

- be characterized by simplicity — the fact that reality is complicated does not mean that the model should be complicated<sup>200</sup>,
- not contradict the available scientific facts – if it is not intended to present an alternative interpretation of them,
- be logical, internally consistent<sup>201</sup>,
- give the possibility of prediction,
- be empirically verifiable.

A theoretical model that has been confirmed in many studies can be called a theory.

Each model in HRM consists of an a priori part – the assumption that the selected variables are important and relevant, and a set of hypothetical relationships between the variables that are subjected to precise empirical tests. In addition to the theoretical model, it is necessary to specify the measurement model – that is, the method of operationalization of all variables.

Hypotheses are falsifiable sentences about the relations between variables specified in the theoretical model.

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199 McKelvey, 2002; Czakon, 2011

200 As Prof. Robert Zajonc used to say – an outstanding psychologist who carefully cares about the methodological value of research

201 Burniewicz, 2021



### 2.1.6 Triangulation

The WiW paradigm recommends 5 types of triangulations: (1) methods, (2) data, (3) operationalization, (4) methods of analysis, and (5) researcher.

**Triangulation of methods:** Even in online surveys, we can combine correlational, experimental, and qualitative methods. We analyze numerical answers to closed questions using quantitative methods, verbal answers to open questions are analyzed using qualitative methods.

**Data triangulation:** The availability of population-representative random samples is very limited in the social sciences, because people can be drawn but cannot be forced to participate in research. Therefore, in most cases, the research is conducted on *CONVENIENT SAMPLES*, consisting of people who agreed to participate in the study. We increase external accuracy by replicating research on various convenient samples. This means that we should **test the same hypotheses on different data sets**.

**Operationalization triangulation:** There are no standard operationalizations of variables in HRM. The Operationalization of the variables should be carefully selected taking into account the specifics of the sample, e.g. the item *'I make decisions more easily under time pressure'* is a good indicator of low reactivity in a group of young employees, but not among managers. Even if we use ready-made standardized measuring tools, their psychometric properties should be checked on the tested sample.

**Triangulation of methods of analysis:** Although quantitative analyses assume the axiological neutrality of science and the non/ interference of the researcher, even in transgressive, objectified statistical analyses, the researcher must decide on how to 'clean' the data set, build indicators, choose assumptions about the level of measurement, choose statistical tests. Deciding whether to treat the result in the questionnaire as a continuous or ordinal variable (e.g. after median division) may lead to different conclusions. Therefore, the WiW paradigm recommends **triangulation of quantitative methods** for dataset analysis.

When analyzing qualitative data, words, recommendation is to use the researcher triangulation, the data should be encoded by at least two people independently of each other.

### 2.1.7 External and internal validity of research

We increase external validity by using different types of triangulations – in particular, by testing the same hypotheses on different data sets.

Where possible, we should take care of the INTERNAL RELEVANCE of the study. Even in surveys, we can **manipulate independent variables** – that is, conduct experimental studies by assigning volunteers randomly to different experimental conditions.

Where possible, both in surveys and in interviews, we introduce DESCRIPTIONS of objects whose assessment we want to know. For example, when asking employees for opinions about their boss, we are not able to determine to what extent it results from the perception of the employee and to what extent from the objective characteristics of the boss. By asking for an assessment of a model description, e.g. a dominant or affiliative (nondominant) boss, we can examine individual differences in the assessment of various features that were the basis for the construction of these descriptions.

An internally accurate study ensures that the measured changes in the explainable variable are not the result of interfering variables omitted from the theoretical model. The only type of research that ensures high internal accuracy is well-conducted experimental research. Correlation studies are never free from the threat of detecting apparent correlations. The WiW methodological paradigm promotes experimental comparative research using Mill's method of difference, while accepting that experimental research is often impossible due to the inability to manipulate the values of variables, and the inability to study phenomena stretched over time.

### 2.1.8 Data quality

Before proceeding with the analysis, the data sets should be carefully cleaned of ‘false’<sup>202</sup> respondents who, for example, gave random responses. Standard measuring tools used in the tests should be checked for psychometric properties/ adaptations in the surveyed group of respondents.

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<sup>202</sup> Wieczorkowska, Wierzbński 2011, Kabut, 2021

## **2.2 Work objectives, research tasks, hypotheses**

**The main objective of the dissertation** is to enrich the knowledge in the field of HRM about the risk factors resulting from the (in)compatibility of the superior and subordinate characteristics translating into the feeling of fit or lack thereof.

### **2.2.1 The operational objective of the work is to carry out 4 research tasks**

The research tasks were organized around 4 hypotheses tested in 6 studies.

**Task #1** Examine the relationship between relational satisfaction and emotional balance, job satisfaction, and employee health.

**Task #2** Examine the dependence of the expected relational satisfaction on the similarity of the employee to the boss on the dimension of the intervality of the working style.

**Task #3** Examine the dependence of the expected relational satisfaction on the similarity of the employee to the boss on the dimension of the need for dominance.

**Task #4** Examine in an experimental study the employee's preference for gender and age of a boss and the relationship between gender and age of a boss with job satisfaction.

## **2.3 Hypotheses**

In addition to the H1 hypothesis of relational satisfaction correlates, two hypotheses (H2 and H3) on deep-level fit and 2 hypotheses on surface-level fit in terms of gender (H4a) and age (H4b) were tested.

**H1.** Satisfaction with the relationship with the supervisor is a predictor of a positive emotional balance, job satisfaction, and employee health. The detailed hypotheses H1a, H1b, and H1c result from the division into separate tests for 3 correlates of relational satisfaction.

**H2.** Employees prefer a supplementary fit to the boss on the dimension of the working style. Point workers have stronger preferences than interval workers.

**H3.** Employees prefer a complementary fit with the boss in terms of the need for dominance.

**H4.** The similarity of the demographic characteristics (gender, age) of the boss and the employee is associated with the expected relational satisfaction.

**H4a.** Men will prefer men as bosses, women will prefer women (supplementary model of fit).

**H4b.** Employees prefer older people as bosses (complementary model of fit).

## **2.4 Conducted research**

Due to the Covid-19 pandemic, it was impossible to invite subjects to the laboratory to conduct experimental research, we had to limit ourselves to the analysis of pre-existing data and our own research carried out via the Internet.

**Study #1 (B#1)** – experimental; SSA21vii – **1233** employees (42.7% men) with at least secondary education and at least 3 years of work experience from the Mazovia macro-region. Age varied ( $M=43.25$ ;  $Me=42$ ;  $SD=10.94$ ) and belonging to three generations: 15.8% Baby Boomers, 37.9% Generation X, 46.3% Generation Y. Participants were randomly divided into 2 groups. Group 1 answered, i.a. questions about the need for dominance and preferences for working with a dominant vs. more affiliative boss (experimental manipulation). Group 2 answered, i.a. questions about the working style and preferences for working with a point or interval boss (experimental manipulation).

**Study #2 (B#2)** – experimental; SSA21v – **384** students (49% men) with at least secondary education. Age varied ( $M=22.09$ ;  $SD=2.95$ ;  $Me=21$  years) and belonging to four generations: 1% Baby Boomers, 1% Generation X, 40.6% Generation Y, 58.4% Generation Z. Participants were randomly divided into 4 experimental groups.

**Study #3 (B#3)** – experimental; SSA20 – **169** employees (42% men); in 97% education at least secondary and at least 3 years of work experience. Age varied ( $M=36.2$ ;  $SD=12.9$ ;  $Me=35$  years) and belonging to four generation: 10.4% Baby Boomers, 31.2% Generation X, 40.4% Generation Y, 16.9% Generation Z.

**Study #4 (B#4)** – experimental; SSA21i – **177** students (34% men); with at least secondary education. Age varied ( $M=22$ ;  $SD=2.93$ ;  $Me=21$  years) and belonging to two generations: 34.5% Generation Y, 65.5% Generation Z. Participants were randomly divided into 2 experimental groups.

**Study #5 (B#5)** – correlational; MTurk – **177** American employees (65% men); 93.1% full-time employees. Age varies ( $M=33.46$ ;  $SD=0.993$ ,  $Me=30$  years) and belonging to three generations: 6.8% Baby Boomers, 16.4% Generation X, 76.8% Generation Y.

**Study #6 (B#6)** – correlational; EWCS (European Working Conditions Survey) – **43,850** participants from 35 European countries. In detailed analyses I used 3 countries (Poland, Turkey, Sweden). Poland – **1115** people (50.4% men), 52.1% with at least secondary education. Age varied (M=43.37; SD=12.75; Me=44 years) and belonging to three generations: 28.3% Baby Boomers, 37.9% Generation X, 33.7% Generation Y. Sweden – **990** people (49.8% men), 47.1% with at least secondary education. Age differentiated (M=44.86; SD=12.5; Me=45 years) and belonging to three generations: 36.5% Baby Boomers, 38.3% Generation X, 25.3% Generation Y. Turkey – **1975** people (71.9% men), 19% with at least secondary education. Age varied (M=36.82; SD=11.64; Me=35 years) and belonging to three generations: 13.7% Baby Boomers, 34.6% Generation X, 51.7% Generation Y.

In the dissertation, I also describe the analyses of the respondents' answers to open-ended questions about their opinions about the desired qualities of a leader and their similarity collected as part of the SSA via survey (**N = 582**) and separately in the group for undergraduate students (**N=88**) and MBA (**N=22**).

As a measurement tool, 4 out of 6 studies used the Activity Style Survey (SSA), which I will discuss in the next section.

## **2.5 SSA – Activity styles survey<sup>203</sup>**

The main goal of creating the Inventory of Style Activity (ISA) in 1994 was to provide measurement tools for various theoretical variables describing numerous aspects of the way of organizing activities. Its online version is called the Survey of Style Activity – SSA.

As I wrote about it in the literature review, research on employee characteristics has been dominated by the NEO-FFI Questionnaire, which has several flaws<sup>204</sup>:

1. It consists of declarative sentences, formulated in the first person singular, which may give rise to problems regarding the respondent's lack of experience. For example, the sentence 'I often try new and exotic dishes' can be negated by both people who do not like novelty and those who would like to experiment with food, but do not have such an opportunity. To get the maximum score, e.g. on the scale of openness to experience, a respondent would

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203 See Wieczorkowska, 1998, 2014, 2022

204 I cite the arguments for Wieczorkowska, 2014, 2022

have to agree with 5 items and disagree with the others. Different cognitive processes triggered by consent and denial (cf. e.g. research on asymmetry<sup>205</sup>) very often cause that positive (requiring consent) and negative (requiring denial) items in factor analysis are separated into separate factors.

2. However, the biggest problem is the **heterogeneity of both theoretical constructs**. In openness to experience, up to ¼ of the questions concern interest in art/ poetry. Conscientiousness includes both the need for achievement, responsibility, and pedantry. This heterogeneity makes it difficult to imagine a person who has scored high/ low on the scale. The results obtained in this way can be used in nomothetic studies when we are interested in the relationships between variables – statistical abstracts, and not the personality of a particular person. Proponents of this method of measurement argue that scales NEO\_FFI have high homogeneity rates calculated with Cronbach  $\alpha$ , forgetting that this does not guarantee the univariateness of the scales<sup>206</sup>. It is rather easy to get high  $\alpha$  if we take a sufficiently large number of non/ negatively correlated questions.

In contrast to the 5-Factor Personality Model<sup>207</sup>, which was created based on lexical research, the Inventory of Activity Styles<sup>208</sup> founded in 1994 was created based on observation of various ways of organizing ways of completing tasks. Jurek and Olech (2017) used a similar approach, distinguishing the dimensions of their questionnaire based on the opinions of practitioners.

The main psychometric requirement of ISA/ SSA is that the scales created meet the assumptions of the measurement model (as it is understood in structural modeling), i.e. above all that they should be **unifactorial**. ISA consists of positions consisting of opposing descriptions of the behavior of two people: A and B and the question: ‘Would your behavior/ feelings in this situation be more similar than A, rather to A, to B, or rather to B?’. The respondent can also select the ‘Hard to Say’ option, which is always outside of the response scale.

This way of formulating questions has undeniable advantages: the respondent does not have to have experiences related to the specific situation we are asking about, and moreover, the information about someone, i.e. person A or person B, behaving in a certain way somehow legitimizes this behavior, thereby weakening the influence of variable social approval.

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205 Wanke & Schwarz, 1995

206 See Wierzchowska & Wierzbński, 2011

207 Costa & McCrae, by Siuta, 2006

208 Wierzchowska, 1998

It is important that the questions are about different reactions to the same situation, so it is very easy to imagine how a person who scores high/ low on the scale behaves. The difficulty in constructing questions that contain binary choices is that not all interesting aspects can be presented in the form of a simple alternative.

The SSA consists of **several blocks of questions**. Each block consists of 5-6 questions that are indicators of a specific feature. This set of questions is called a **scale/ dimension**. In the construction of a set of questions, the aim is that the number of diagnostic questions requiring the indication of person A is equal to the number of questions requiring the indication of person B, which eliminates the influence of the tendency to nod<sup>209</sup>. SSA editions used in research in subsequent years are modified depending on the purpose of the study and the sample being studied. In recent years, i.a. scales to measure three needs (affiliation, dominance, achievements) have been added to the scales describing the activity/ working style; temperament (reactivity, extroversion, emotional balance at work and in leisure time).

Answers to SSA questions are subjected to a **procedure of detecting fake respondents**<sup>210</sup>. The first step is to check the number of contentless responses HARD TO SAY [HTS], which is analyzed not only as a feature of the question, but also as a feature of the respondent. In a single question, the HTS answer, if it is additionally associated with a longer response time, may be an indicator of the respondent's flexibility because due to the context not sufficiently specified in the question, the respondent may believe that once he or she behaves like person A, and in another situation like person B. In such cases, the HTS answers are recoded to the middle of the response scale. First, however, you need to count the number of HTS answers given by the respondent – if there are a lot of them (e.g. more than 50%), it is an indicator of cognitive laziness or disregard for the study, and such a respondent must be removed from further analyses.

In my research, 4 SSA scales were used to measure the intervality of the working style – **the names of the dimensions describe the left end of the dimension, i.e. pointiness**.

### **Scale: Methodicality**

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<sup>209</sup> The tendency to nod, first described by Cronbach, means the tendency of respondents to answer 'truth', 'I agree', 'yes' regardless of the content of the question. This is the result of

the mind's automatic tendency to search for confirmatory information.

<sup>210</sup> See Kabut, 2021; Wieczorkowska, Wierzbński, 2013

High scores are given to a person who thinks about what is to be done. He or she divides the task into parts, plans it in time, and begins to carry out the task when he or she has figured out exactly how to do it. He or she believes that decision making should be a methodical (structured and sequential) process.

Low scores are given to a person who starts tasks without knowing how to perform them, thinking that somehow it will all be okay, and does not analyze how much there is to do and how much time it will take them. They believe that in making decisions it is important not to use repetitive schemes, but to leave yourself full freedom.

**Scale: Sequentiality**

High scores are given to a person who gets nervous when they must think about several different things in parallel. A low-simultaneous person likes to focus on only one task at a time. When different tasks compete as to their importance, the low-simultaneous person tries to finish what they started first.

Low scores are given to a person who tries to have several things started at the same time in order to 'switch' from one to the other. When different tasks compete in importance, a highly simultaneous person somehow tries to carry them out in parallel. They often interrupt important work when something interesting comes up, though not related to what they are doing.

**Scale: Precision**

High scores are given to a person who cares about details, likes tasks requiring attention to details. Their knowledge is very accurate, if they know something, it is with details.

Low scores are given to a person who skips details, looking for an overall picture of the problem. They care more about the overall outcome than the details of the task they must perform. Their knowledge is inaccurate, they know a lot, but not very accurately.

**Scale: Routinization**

High scores are given to a person who likes to perform tasks according to a clearly defined procedure. They like work that requires strict application of the received guidelines how to implement it. They are tired of chaos and the excess of information.



Low scores are given to a person who likes to have freedom as to how to perform tasks. They like work that allows them to complete tasks differently each time. They are tired of monotony.

It is worth noting that studies have shown positive correlations of these dimensions with self-control (lack of procrastination and completion of started tasks), pedantry, and good estimation of time. Especially the latter dimension is important in working conditions.

Indicators for individual scales are unifactorial and close to the level of observation – it is easy to imagine the behavior of, for example, a low-methodical person. The dimensions of methodicality, precision, sequentiality, and routine correlate with each other, but not high enough to remove one of them. In individual diagnoses of employees, there are, for example, highly methodical and imprecise people, although there are definitely fewer of them than precise and methodical people. For the purposes of psychological diagnosis, an employee receives results on partial dimensions because they show the areas necessary/ worth modifying.

For the purposes of aggregate analyses (as in the studies described in the dissertation), theoretically and empirically correlated dimensions are aggregated into second-order indicators. Second-degree factors do not translate as easily into the level of observation as first-degree factors, but they do allow hypotheses to be tested.

For comparative analyses, a median division of the index is often used, separating a group of point people and interval people.

## 2.6 Operationalizations of variables

### 2.6.1 Choice of the operationalization of the degree of similarity between employee and boss

The biggest challenge in studying the person-supervisor (PS) fit is measurement, because it is difficult to invite employees and their bosses to the study at the same time. If this is successful, there will be a problem of data nesting – several employees will describe the same boss.

The degree of (PS) fit can be measured directly and indirectly<sup>211</sup>. The literature lists 3 ways to operationalize fit<sup>212</sup>:

1. Perceived fit – calculation based on a comparison of attributes assessed separately by an employee – self-assessment and assessment of a supervisor. This method of operationalization was used by us in the MTurk study when employees assessed themselves and their boss on the same scales.
2. Subjective fit, when an employee is asked directly about the fit assessment<sup>213</sup> (e.g., ‘**Assess how satisfied you are with your relationship with your boss compared to your ideal boss?**’). This way of operationalizing of the fit is difficult to distinguish from the operationalization of relational satisfaction.
3. Objective fit – calculated based on a comparison of objectified measurements of the attributes of an employee and a supervisor. This way of operationalization requires the participation of both superiors and employees in the study.

Method 1 (comparing an employee's judgments about a boss with her or his self-esteem on the same dimension) was used by us in study #1: MTurk. The basic problem turned out to be correlating the self-esteem and self-descriptions of the boss. When choosing such a method of operationalization, we do not know to what extent, for example, the need for dominance of a boss described by an employee is a projection of her or his qualities and to what extent an accurate reflection of this characteristic of their boss. To avoid this problem, in subsequent surveys, we asked respondents to evaluate their reactions in relation to the stimulus descriptions of various bosses.

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211 Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, Johnson, 2005  
212 Kristof-Brown, et al, 2005

213 van Vianen, 2018

It can be said that the introduction of stimulus descriptions of bosses in accordance with the WiW paradigm is a methodological novelty in relation to the previously used operationalizations fit.

In the SSA20 study, we asked for an assessment of the similarity of the current supervisor to the stimulus description. We also asked for an assessment of relational satisfaction, which allowed us to determine to what extent the boss is, for example, an interval. In this way, it turned out that at the point employees rate their immediate supervisor worse if he or she is similar to the description of an interval boss. We did not have to ask about the intervality of the superior because it was presented by the similarity to the stimulus description. This is the 4th way of examining the fit to the immediate superior, which has not been described in the literature so far. The employee is asked to accept the target description. Other studies<sup>214</sup> have shown that willingness to work for Manager X measured using a scale from 1 to 5 (where 1-under no circumstances, 2-only if there was no other option, 3-I could, but without enthusiasm, 4-gladly, and 5-with great pleasure) highly correlates with the predicted emotional balance during the collaboration<sup>215</sup> and anticipated trust<sup>216</sup>.

In this study, the correlations between these three variables were very high (all above 0.8 for  $df=241$ ), so in my research we only asked about a willingness to cooperate with the described boss.

## **2.6.2 Point vs Interval Working style – operationalization**

### ***2.6.2.1 Operationalization of the employee's working style***

In all studies, the operationalization of the employee/ student working style was similar. According to the SSA methodology (described in ‘SSA – Activity styles survey’ chapter), the second-order factor results were counted from 3 scales that make up the intervality syndrome. Due to the lack of questions in one of the studies on the passion for precision – the precision scale was replaced by a highly correlated methodicality scale. For the purposes of the analysis, the median division of employees on the dimension of the intervality of the working style was made, distinguishing a group of point people and interval ones.

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214 Koval, 2021

215 composed of 10 emotions taken from the Job-related Affective Well-being scale: enthusiastic, content, angry, depressed, anxious, inspired, energetic, at ease, bored, discouraged.

216 Expected trust towards Manager X measured with one item: “To what extent do you think you would trust Manager X?” (response scale from 1: not at all, and 5: to a large extent)

## Operationalization of WS #1<sup>217</sup>

The working style was operationalized using indicators built from responses to SSA questions.

In all cases, the intervality index of the working style was built as a second-degree factor from the intervality components defined by the theory.

1. In study **B** [SSA21vii], there were 3 scales (methodicality, sequentiality, precision).
2. In study **E** [SSA20], there were 3 scales (methodicality, sequentiality, routinization).
3. In study **C** [SSA21v], there were 3 scales (methodicality, sequentiality, precision).

The description of the scales is given in the SSA description. For a full list of questions, see Appendix 1: Operationalization of variables.

Figure 7 Comparison of distribution of working style

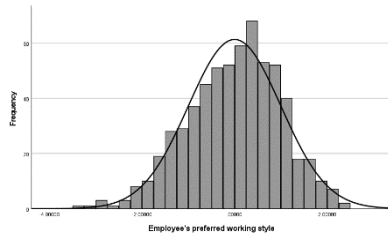


Figure 8. Distribution of working style in group of 615 Employees, min=-3.33; max=2.29; M=0; SD=1.0  
Source: own elaboration based on dataset B [SSA21vii]

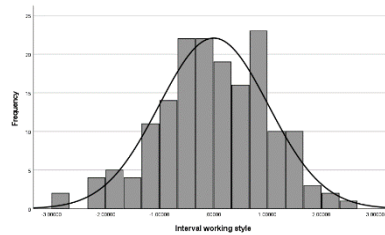


Figure 9. Distribution of working style in group of 168 Employees, min=-2.79; max=2.40; M=0.006; SD=1.01  
Source: own elaboration based on dataset E [SSA20]

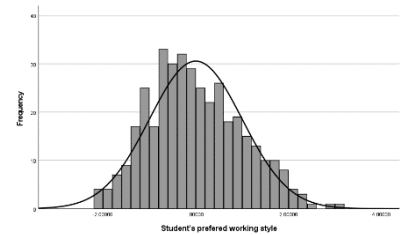


Figure 10. Distribution of working style in group of 383 Students, min=-2.16; max=3.07, M=0; SD=1  
Source: own elaboration based on dataset C [SSA21v]

### 2.6.2.2 *Manipulating the information about the boss's working style*

In 3 studies (SSA21vii, SSA21v, SSA20), **the working style of a potential boss** was manipulated using descriptions of stimulus people. The nominal variable took two values (**Point** vs. **Interval**). The descriptions of the stimulus persons along with acceptance distributions are presented below.

### Operationalization WS #2a<sup>218</sup>: Point vs Interval Boss

Respondents, after reading the description, assessed how much they would like to work with a particular supervisor.

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217 dataset SSA20, SSA21v, SSA21vii

218 Y1: Working Style B#2. SSA21vii, 616 employees, with at least 3 years of work experience

Table 3 Description of the point and interval supervisor

<b>POINT supervisor</b>	<b>INTERVAL supervisor</b>
The P3 Boss always <b>starts meetings on time</b> . Meetings are factual, without digressions, and substantively planned. He or she <b>carefully chooses words</b> , cares about precision, and a clear message. Working with the P3 Boss it is <b>easy to notice the methodically of the procedure</b> . Some people love working with the P3 Boss for an orderly approach that brings systematically measurable business results, others complain about an overly orthodox approach to the adopted procedures.	The P4 Boss always <b>looks at the wider context</b> – he approaches the problem holistically. He or she <b>does not like to go into detail</b> . You never know what you are going to talk about or how long the meeting will last, but it is not boring. Some people <b>love the P4 Boss for its creative and unconventional approach</b> , which gives the company an advantage in the market and employees constant stimulation, others complain about the constant variability of arrangements and lack of predictability.

The distribution of the responses in the table below (the answer ‘It’s hard to say’ was presented as the last option and was converted to the middle of the scale in analyses).

Table 4 Willingness to work with Point vs Interval Supervisor

	<b>POINT supervisor</b>		<b>INTERVAL supervisor</b>	
	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>%</b>
1 – As a last resort, if there was no other choice	25	4.1	103	16.7
2 – Unenthusiastic	113	18.4	245	39.8
3 – It's hard to say	27	4.4	36	5.9
4 – Gladly	324	52.7	200	32.5
5 – With the greatest pleasure	126	20.5	31	5
Total	615	100.0	615	100.0

### **Operationalization WS #2b<sup>219</sup>: Point vs Interval Boss**

Respondents, after reading the description, assessed how much they would like to work with a particular supervisor.

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219 Y2: Working Style B#4. SSA20, 169 employees, with at least 3 years of work experience

Table 5 Description of the point and interval supervisor

POINT supervisor	INTERVAL supervisor
The X2 Boss believes that <b>decision-making should be a methodical (structured and sequential) process</b> . Emotions can only disturb him. He always starts meetings punctually with the presentation of the agenda, which he hangs on a piece of paper in a visible place along with the expected effects. <b>Meetings are always short and factual</b> . Leaving the meeting, <b>everyone knows what to do and what they are responsible for</b> . Some people love working with the X2 Boss because of the orderly and systematic approach, others complain about the too orthodox approach to the adopted procedures.	The X3 Boss always <b>looks at the wider context</b> – he or she approaches the problem holistically. In his opinion, a <b>disordered, ‘non/ linear’ way of thinking increases creativity</b> . Talking to him/her is <b>jumping from topic to topic</b> . He or She is willing to <b>challenge his employees</b> instead of defining precise tasks. <b>More important for him is the overall vision</b> than precisely planned action step by step. Some adore the X3 Boss for his <b>creative and unconventional approach</b> , others complain about the lack of specific arrangements.

Table 6 Willingness to work with Point vs Interval Supervisor.

	POINT supervisor		INTERVAL supervisor	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
1 – As a last resort, if there was no other choice	5	3	18	10.7
2 – Unenthusiastic	17	10.1	34	20.1
3 – It's hard to say	52	30.8	63	37.3
4 – Gladly	82	48.5	46	27.2
5 – With the greatest pleasure	13	7.7	8	4.7
Total	169	100	169	100

### Operationalization WS #2c<sup>220</sup>: Point vs Interval Supervisor

Students, after reading the description of the supervisors, assessed to what extent they would like to write their graduate work under their supervision.

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220 Y3: Working Style B#3. SSA2lv, 384 Students chose supervisor

Table 7 Description of the point and interval supervisor

POINT Supervisor	INTERVAL Supervisor
<p>The supervisor (P3) always <b>starts the meeting on time</b>. Seminars are factual, without unnecessary digressions, and substantively planned. Writing a work under the supervision of P3 is a <b>structured and sequential process</b>. Speaking to students, P3 carefully chooses words, cares about precision and matter-of-factness. Looking through the works created under the supervision of P3, it is easy to see that they all have the same structure and concern related issues.</p> <p>Some people love working with P3 because of their orderly and systematic approach; others complain about the overly orthodox approach to the adopted procedures.</p>	<p>Your supervisor (P4) always <b>looks at the wider context</b> – they approach the problem holistically. Meetings with P4 can be about things that were not previously planned. <b>You never know what they are going to talk about</b> with students and how long it is going to last, but <b>it is not boring</b>. When determining the topic of work, students have a lot of freedom to choose the topic and form of work. Looking through the works created under the supervision of P4, it is easy to see that they have a different structure and concern very different issues.</p> <p>Some love P4 for its creative and unconventional approach, others complain about the constant variability of the findings.</p>

Distributions of answers to the question about the willingness to work with a point vs interval supervisor in the table below:

Table 8 Willingness to work with Point Supervisor

	POINT supervisor		INTERVAL supervisor	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
1 – As a last resort, if there was no other choice	5	1.3	11	2.9
2 – Unenthusiastic	40	10.4	39	10.2
3 – It's hard to say	105	27.3	103	26.8
4 – Gladly	189	49.2	171	44.5
5 – With the greatest pleasure	45	11.7	60	15.6
Total	384	100	384	100

### 2.6.2.3 Similarity of the current boss to the model bosses – SSA20

#### Operationalization StS #1<sup>221</sup>: Your Boss

The similarity of the current boss to the bosses described in the study arose from the answer to the question: How similar is the X2(Point)/ X3(Interval) boss to your boss? The scale of responses took the following values:

1-Completely dissimilar, 2-Rather dissimilar, 3-Rather similar, 4-Very similar

Table 9 Distributions of similarity ratings of your supervisor to the POINT person.

	POINT supervisor		INTERVAL supervisor	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
1 – Completely dissimilar	37	21.9	51	30.2
2 – Rather dissimilar	60	35.5	64	37.9
3 – Rather similar	62	36.7	40	23.7
4 – Very similar	10	5.9	14	8.3
Total	169	100	169	100

### 2.6.3 Operationalization of the need for dominance

#### Operationalization DN #1<sup>222</sup>; Inventory of Likes and Opinions (IUiO)<sup>223</sup>

The Need for Dominance was measured using the J. Grzelak's IUiO. The 28-item questionnaire consists of five subscales (Dominance, Cooperation, Proactive Autonomy, Reactive Autonomy, Respect for Autonomy, and Submission). To build the Need for Dominance index, answers to 5 questions were used, e.g.: 'I like making decisions for others'. Cronbach's alpha for the 5 questions was: 0.856. A full list of the tool's questions can be found in the appendix.

The subordinate's perceived Need for Dominance of the boss <Supervisor Need for Dominance> was measured using the same items (IUiO). Respondents were asked to think about their immediate boss and describe him by answering reformulated questions (e.g., 'My boss has leadership tendencies'). Cronbach's alpha for the 5 questions was 0.766.

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221 Y3: Working Style B#3. SSA21v, 384 Students chose supervisor

222 dataset A [Mturk 2018]

223 developed by Grzelak, 2001



Respondents answered the questions using the following rating scale: 1- Strongly disagree, 2- disagree, 3-neutral (neither agree nor disagree), 4-agree, 5-strongly agree.

Table 10 Comparison of the demand distribution Need for Dominance index

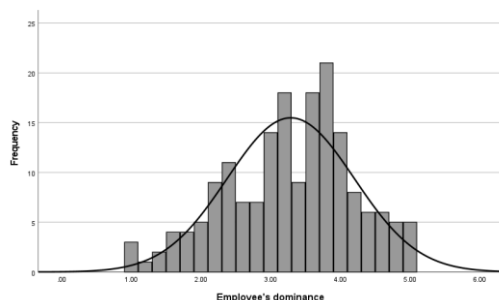


Figure 11. Distribution of Need for Dominance index in group of 177 employees, min=1; max=5; M=3.29; SD=0.91  
Source: own elaboration based on dataset A [MTurk 2018].

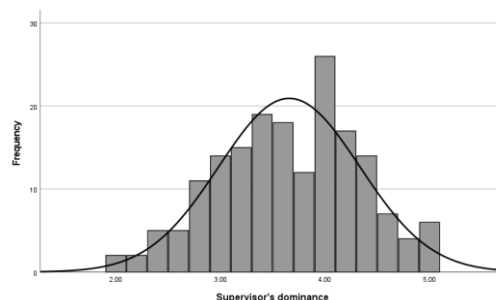


Figure 12. Distribution of Need for Dominance index – Supervisor's perceived Dominance, N=177; min=1; max=5, M=3.66, SD=0.68  
Source: own elaboration based on dataset A [MTurk 2018].

### ***Operationalization DN #2<sup>224</sup>; SSA***

The indicator of **the employee's need for dominance** <Need for Dominance> was built from the answers to the SSA questions. Two one-factor scales were used to create it (a need for dominance and psychological reactance, understood as an aversion to others managing us). Because the questions in different editions of the SSA changed, the operationalizations of the need for dominance could not be identical.

1. In the dataset B study [SSA21vii] In total there were 6 questions.
2. In the dataset C study [SSA21v] In total there were 8 questions.

Below are two sample questions; the full list can be found in the appendix.

- Person A does not like it very much when someone imposes their opinion on them. Such a situation does not arouse strong emotions in person B.
- Person A does not like to supervise the work of others. Person B be like 'a kid in a candy store' being able to manage others.

In the students' research, the items were fitted to the studied group, e.g.

- In group classes, A is very reluctant to speak up if they aren't asked anything. B usually talks a lot, often directs the course of the conversation.

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224 Z2: Dominance, B#2. SSA21vii, 617 employees, with at least 3 years of work experience



Figure 13. Distribution of need for dominance index in group of 617 employees, min=-2.77; max=2.4; M=0; SD=1.0  
Source: own elaboration based on dataset B [SSA21vii].

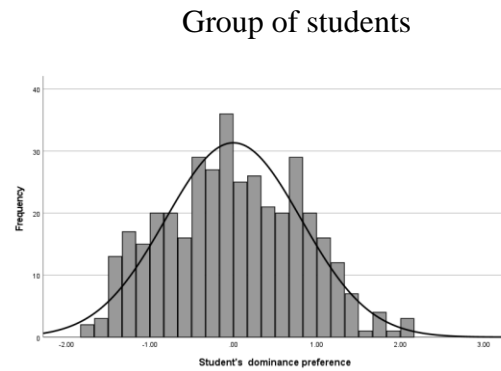


Figure 14. Distribution of need for dominance index in group of 383 students, min=-1.69; max=2.15; M=0, SD=0.81  
Source: own elaboration based on dataset C [SSA21v].

### 2.6.3.1 Manipulation of information about the need for dominance of the boss

In 2 studies (SSA21vii, SSA21v), the need for dominance of a potential boss was manipulated using stimuli descriptions of people. The nominal variable took two values (dominant vs. **affiliative**). The stimuli descriptions are presented below.

#### *Operationalization SDN #2a<sup>225</sup>: Dominant vs. Affiliative (nondominant) Boss*

After reading the description, respondents assessed how much they would like to work with a particular supervisor.

Table 11 Description of the dominant and affiliative supervisor

Dominant Supervisor	Affiliative Supervisor
<p><b>The P1 boss</b> likes to have control over what the employees do. She/He makes decisions quickly and are firm in what they do. She/He fairly and scrupulously accounts for employees for the implementation of tasks.</p> <p>Some people love working with <b>P1</b> for their specific and directive attitude, you know exactly what and how to do it. Others complain about despotism and the lack of interest in the ideas that are inconsistent with their concept.</p>	<p><b>The P2 boss</b> likes it when the employees are engaged. She/He carefully listens to what the employees have to say. She/He can be persuaded to their ideas even when they deviate from the adopted concept. She/He leaves freedom in action, and the results are important.</p> <p>Some people love to work with <b>P2</b> because they can work ‘on their own terms’. Others complain about blaming employees for the results they have achieved.</p>

225 Z2: Dominance, B#2. SSA21vii, 617 employees, with at least 3 years of work experience

Response distributions in the table below:

Table 12 Distributions of willingness to cooperate with dominant and affiliative supervisor

	Dominant Supervisor (P3)		Affiliative Supervisor (P4)	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
1 – As a last resort, if there was no other choice	141	23.0	141	23.0
2 – Unenthusiastic	278	45.4	278	45.4
3 – It's hard to say	30	4.9	30	4.9
4 – Gladly	145	23.7	145	23.7
5 – With the greatest pleasure	19	3.1	19	3.1
Total	613	100.0	613	100.0

**Operationalization SDN #2b<sup>226</sup>: Dominant vs Target Person description**

After reading the description, respondents assessed how much they would like to work with a particular supervisor.

Table 13 Description of the dominant and affiliative supervisor

Dominant Supervisor	Affiliative Supervisor
<p>Your supervisor (<b>P1</b>) wants to have <b>full control</b> over the student's work throughout the year. Attendance at seminars is mandatory. Seminars often take the form of lectures. <b>P1</b> is firm, immediately interrupts if someone strays from the topic, or begins to repeat itself. The topic and structure of <b>the work is most often imposed</b> by the supervisor.</p> <p>Some people love working with <b>P1</b> for its <b>specific and directive attitude</b>; you know exactly what and how to do it. Others complain about despotism and lack of interest in students' ideas that are incompatible with his concept.</p>	<p>Your supervisor (<b>P2</b>) likes it when students take writing a thesis '<b>into their own hands</b>' and make their own decisions. They carefully listen to what the students are saying. They are <b>easily persuaded by their ideas</b> and leave them full freedom of action. <b>P2</b> does not require attendance at seminars, it is up to you to decide the pace, intensity, and structure of writing a job.</p> <p>Some people love working with <b>P2</b> because they allow students to <b>freely choose the topic</b>, how to implement it, set the pace of execution (they work on 'their own' terms), others complain about blaming the effect and quality of work on students.</p>

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226 Z3: Dominance, B#3. SSA2lv, 384 Students chose supervisor

Table 14 Willingness to cooperate with Dominant Supervisor.

	Dominant Supervisor (P3)		Affiliative Supervisor (P4)	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
1 – As a last resort, if there was no other choice	52	13.5	10	2.6
2 – Unenthusiastic	157	40.9	44	11.5
3 – It's hard to say	112	29.2	124	32.3
4 – Gladly	61	15.9	171	44.5
5 – With the greatest pleasure	2	0.5	35	9.1
Total	384	100.0	384	100.0

#### 2.6.4 Age and Gender – operationalization

The gender fit was tested in 3 out of 6 studies.

##### *Operationalization GEN #1<sup>227</sup> – Respondent's gender*

Gender of a respondent was measured by the answer to the question. 'Your gender is:'. The scale of the answer included 3 elements: 1-man, 2-woman, 3-other/ prefer not to say.

##### *Operationalization GEN #2 – Supervisor's gender*

Gender of a boss in the EWCS 2015 study was determined by the answer to the question. 'Is your immediate boss a man or a woman?' 1-A man, 2-A woman, 3-Refusal

In the remaining 2 studies, the gender of the boss was manipulated in stimulus descriptions.

##### *Operationalization GEN #3 – Supervisor's gender*

In the SSA21v study, half of the students reported that they read psychological descriptions of women (they also saw a woman in the photo), who are potential supervisors of their bachelor's theses, and the other part of the student's received information that their potential supervisors were men (they also saw a man in the photo).

In the SSA21i study, 3 people out of 7 potential bosses were women (as evidenced by the photo and the name of the person).

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<sup>227</sup> EWCS, SSA20, SSA21i, SSA21v

Attitudes towards women and men were compared (correcting, of course, inequality 3:4).

#### **2.6.4.1 Age-based FIT was tested in 3 of the 6 studies**

##### ***Operationalization AGE #1a<sup>228, 229</sup>- Respondent generation***

Respondent age was determined by answering **the year of birth** question and then recoded into 4 generations (BB, X, Y, Z). This information was compiled with the response to an additional question:

- Which generation, according to the given range, do you belong to?

The rating scale was described as follows:

1-Baby Boomers, 2-Generation X, 3-Generation Y/ Millennials, 4-Generation Z/ Gen Z, 5-Other, not mentioned above.

##### ***Operationalization AGE #1b<sup>230</sup>- Supervisor generation***

The age of the supervisor was determined by the answer to a question about the generation the boss is from. Here is the question:

- Are you able to say which of these generations your boss belongs to?

Respondents answered this question using the following rating scale:

1-It is hard for me to say how old my boss is, 2-Baby Boomers, 3-Generation X, 4-Generation Y/ Millennials, 5-Generation Z/ Gen Z, 6-Other, not mentioned above.

To analyze **the generational differences between employee and supervisor**, the variables were recoded so that the values assigned to them represented the same generational group.

Responses of 'it's hard for me to tell how old my boss is' were classified as no response.

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228 X4: Gender and Age B#4 SSA21v, 384 Students chose supervisor

229 X2: Gender and Age B#4, SSA20, 161 employees, with at least 3 years of work experience

230 X2: Gender and Age B#4, SSA20, 161 employees, with at least 3 years of work experience

Table 15 Distribution of the age classification of respondents and their bosses.

	Peer	Older	Total
Baby boomers	10	0	10
Generation X	33	14	47
Generation Y	25	49	74
Generation Z	3	27	30
<b>Total</b>	71	90	161

***Operationalization AGE #2<sup>231</sup> – manipulation of age and gender of a potential supervisor***

Two studies (SSA21i, SSA21v) manipulated an age of a potential boss using image stimuli. Set of photos and a description of the procedure in Appendix 1: Operationalization of variables

***Operationalization AGE #3<sup>232</sup> – manipulation of the age and gender of a potential supervisor***

As a result of manipulation of 2 characteristics (gender and age of a supervisor between objects), 4 experimental groups were created. Students received descriptions of 6 potential supervisors and learned that they were all, depending on the group drawn, either (1) men born before 1965, or (2) men born after 1980, or (3) women born before 1965, or women born after 1980 – in each case a potential supervisor was having a lot of experience in promoting. This information was reinforced by a photo (available in the appendix), which remained the same.

## **2.6.5 Operationalization of explanatory variables**

### ***2.6.5.1 Operationalization of Relational Satisfaction***

Relational satisfaction understood as employee's perceived satisfaction with his or her boss was operationalized according to the following examples.

***Operationalization RS #1<sup>233</sup> – Relational Satisfaction***

**Job Satisfaction** was measured using a scale translated into English developed by Bajcar, Borkowska, Czerw, and Gąsiorowska (2011), which concerns 9 spheres (e.g. co-workers, direct supervisor, tasks performed – the full list available in the appendix), in which respondents are asked

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231 X3: Gender and Age B#3 SSA21i, 177 Individuals:  
Experimental manipulation of the leader's gender and age

232 X4: Gender and Age B#4 SSA21v, 384 Students chose  
supervisor  
233 Z1: Dominance, B#1. Mturk, 177 American employees

to assess their overall job satisfaction. Participants answered questions on a 6-point scale (from 1-very dissatisfied to 6-very satisfied). Cronbach's alpha for the entire scale was 0.93.

For the purposes of this work, only one component of the job satisfaction index will be of interest: satisfaction with the relationship with the direct supervisor (**Relational satisfaction**).

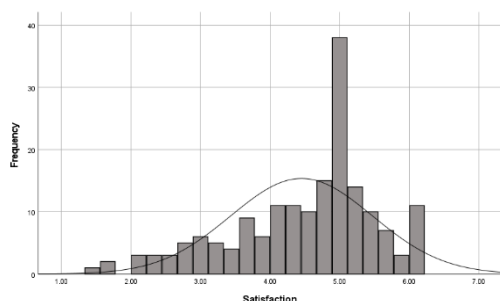


Figure 15. Distribution of JOB SATISFACTION index, N=177; min=1.44; max=6.0; M=4.45; Me=4.78; SD=1.02  
Source: own elaboration based on dataset A [MTurk 2018].

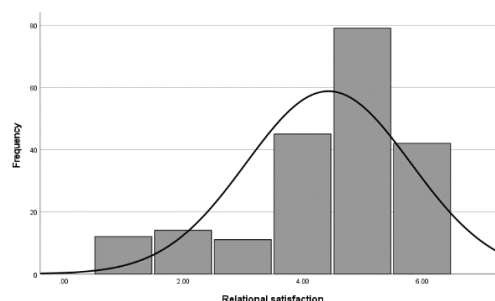


Figure 16. Distribution of RELATIONAL SATISFACTION index, N=177; min=1; max=6; M=4.55; SD=1.27  
Source: own elaboration based on dataset A [MTurk 2018].

### ***Operationalization RS #2<sup>234</sup> – Relational Satisfaction***

**The Relational Satisfaction** Index was built on a factor score of answers to 7 questions.

- How do you like working with your boss?
- Would you recommend working with your boss to your friends?
- I know what my boss expects from me at work.
- I really like talking to my boss.
- I feel that my boss is interested in my opinion on various topics.
- I feel that my boss appreciates me.
- I trust that my boss wants to support me.

Respondents answered questions using a rating scale for the following questions: PS4: 1–Very good, 2–Rather good, 3–Rather bad, 4–Very bad, 5–Hard to say, for PS5: 1–Yes, 2–No, 3–Hard to say, PS6–PS10: 1–Very often or always, 2–Often, 3–Rarely, 4–Very rarely or never, 5–Hard to say.

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234 Y2: Working style B#4. SSA20, 169 employees, with at least 3 years of work experience

Responses were recoded so that the highest value was also the highest value of the indicator/question. "Hard to say" responses were placed in the middle of the scale. Cronbach's alpha coefficient was 0.908.

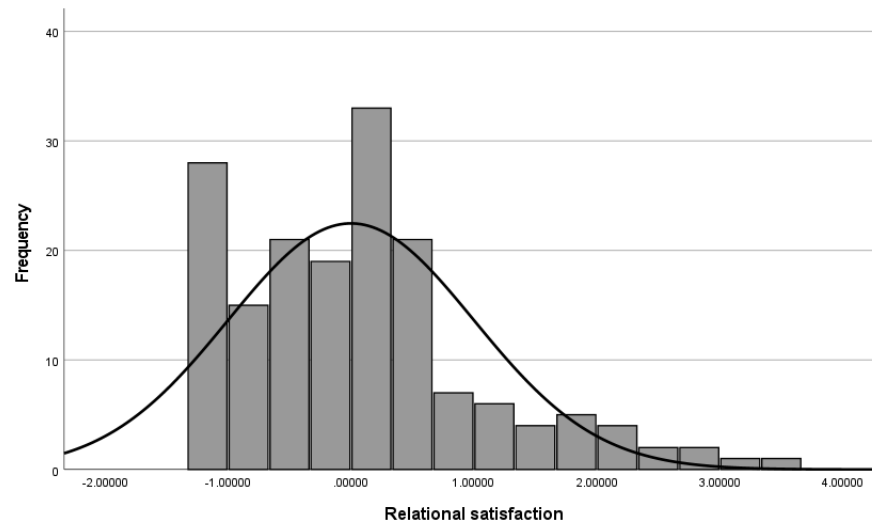


Figure 17. Distribution of Relational Satisfaction Index, N=169; min=-1.24, max=3.47; M=0; SD=1;  
Source: own elaboration based on dataset E [SSA20 2020].

### ***Operationalization RS #3<sup>235</sup> – Relational Satisfaction***

***Relational satisfaction*** was operationalized by answering 6 questions.

- Q63a – Your immediate boss... – Respects you as a person
- Q63b – Your immediate boss... – Gives you praise and recognition when you do a good job
- Q63c – Your immediate boss... – Is successful in getting people to work together
- Q63d – Your immediate boss... – Is helpful in getting the job done
- Q63e – Your immediate boss... – Provides useful feedback on your work
- Q63f – Your immediate boss... – Encourages and supports your development

Respondents answered questions using the rating scale described as follows: 1-Strongly agree, 2-Agree, 3-Neither agree nor disagree, 4-Disagree, 5-Strongly disagree. Responses were recoded so that the highest value was also the highest value of the indicator/question. Cronbach's alpha for this indicator=0.92.

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235 XI: Gender and Age B#6 EWCS, 43 850 respondents



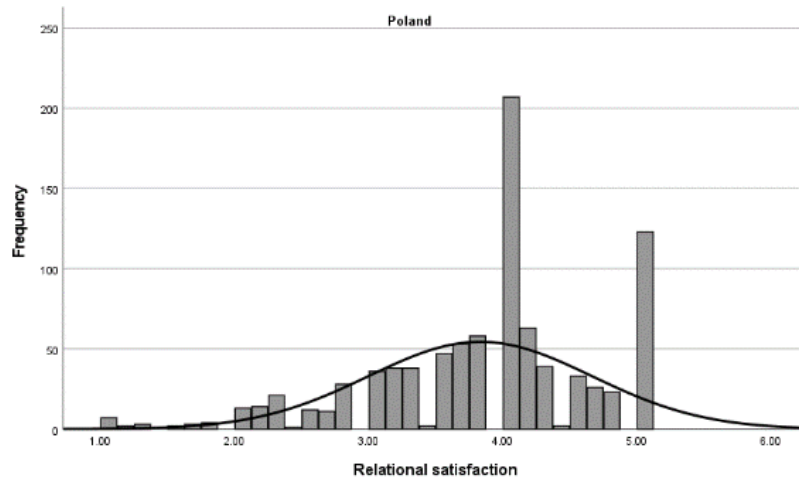


Figure 18. Distribution of Relational satisfaction index, Country [Poland], N=909; min=1; max=5; M=3.83; SD=0.83  
Source: own elaboration based on dataset F [EWCS 2015].

### 2.6.5.2 Emotional balance

#### *Operationalization EB #1<sup>236</sup> – Emotional balance*

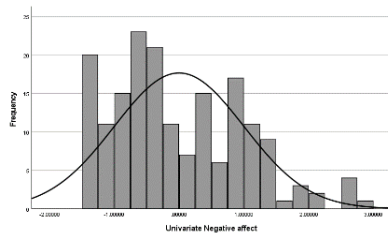
**Emotional Balance** was measured by estimating the frequency of experiencing 29 emotions at work. Participants were asked to use a 7-point scale from (from 1-never to 7-always) to describe how they felt at work in the last 30 days. The full list of emotions can be found in the appendix. The factor analysis showed the one-factor structure of negative emotions and the two-factor structure of positive emotions. The first factor was highly loaded by sthenic emotions (e.g., excited, energized), the second by asthenic emotions (e.g., calm, satisfied, proud). Factor scores from this analysis were recorded as indicators of the frequency of experiencing emotions:

- 1) Negative M=6.94; SD=1.00; min=-1.34; max=2.88 (see figure A: Univariate Negative Affect)
- 2) Positive asthenic M=-1.80; SD=1.00; min=-2.61; max=3.05 (see figure B: Positive asthenic affect)
- 3) Positive sthenic M=2.90; SD=1.00; min=-3.09; max=1.71 (see figure C: Positive sthenic affect)

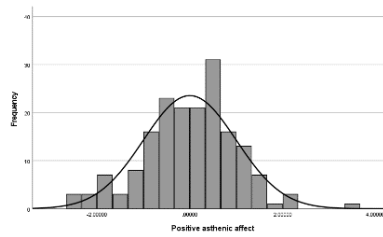
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236 Z1: Dominance, B#1. Mturk, 177 American employees

A: Univariate Negative Affect



B: Positive asthenic affect



C: Positive sthenic affect

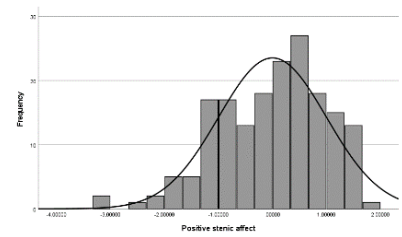


Table 16. Emotional balance in three charts, depending on structure of emotions [A: Univariate Negative Affect, N=177; M=6.94; SD=1, B: Positive asthenic affect, N=177; M=-1.8; SD=1, C: Positive sthenic affect, N=177; M=2.90; SD=1] Source: own elaboration based on dataset A [MTurk 2018].

### 2.6.5.3 Emotional well-being

#### *Operationalization EWB #1<sup>237</sup> – Emotional well-being*

The emotional well-being data set F [EWCS 2015] at work has been operationalized by answers to 5 questions.

[Please tell me how often you feel this way...]

- Q90a – At my work I feel full of energy
- Q90b – I am enthusiastic about my job
- Q90c – Time flies when I am working
- Q90d – I feel exhausted at the end of the working day
- Q90e – I doubt the importance of my work

Respondents answered questions using the following rating scale: 1-Always, 2-Almost always, 3-Sometimes, 4-Rarely, 5-Never. For 3 questions: Q90a, Q90b, Q90c, responses were recoded so that the highest value was also the highest value of the indicator/question. Cronbach's alpha for the indicator=0.62.

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237 XI: Gender and Age B#6 EWCS, 43 850 respondents

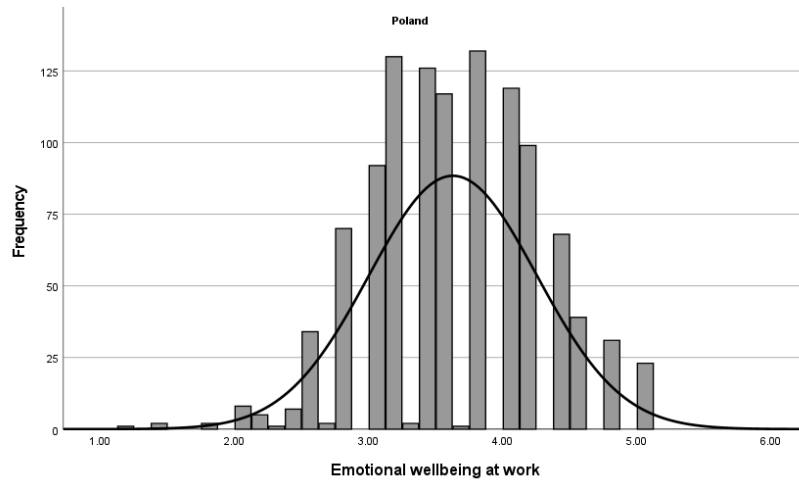


Figure 19. Distribution of Emotional wellbeing at work index, Country [Poland], N=1111; min=1.2; max=5; M=3.63; SD=0.63

Source: own elaboration based on dataset F [EWCS 2015].

#### 2.6.5.4 Employee health

##### *Operationalization EH #1<sup>238</sup> – Employee health*

**The Employee Health Index was derived** from a factor score of responses to 2 questions

Q74 – Does your work affect your health?

Q75 – Employee health in general.

Respondents answered questions using a rating scale for the following questions: Q74: 1-yes, mainly positively, 2-yes, mainly negatively, 3-no, for Q75: 1-very good, 2- good, 3-fair, 4-bad, 5-very bad. Responses were recoded so that the highest value was also the highest value of the indicator/question. The Cronbach's alpha coefficient was 0.403.

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238 XI: Gender and Age B#6 EWCS, 43 850 respondents

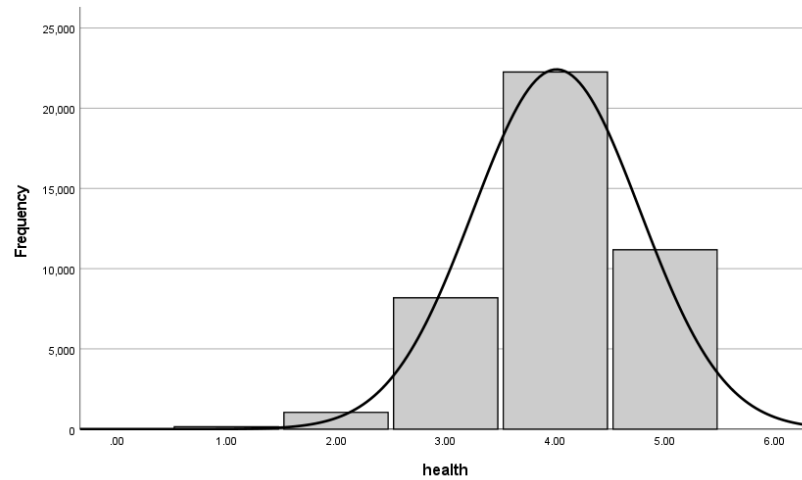


Figure 20 Distribution of Employee Health Index, Country [Poland], N=1113; min=1; max=5; M=3.92; SD=0.76  
Source: own elaboration based on dataset F [EWCS 2015]

#### 2.6.6 Used statistical techniques:

- Positional measures (medians, quartiles), classical measures (mean, standard deviation)
- Relationship measures (Pearson correlation coefficient, Chi square)
- Multivariate analysis of covariance with repeated measures
- Multiple regression analysis

## Chapter 3. Results

The empirical part is organized around the research tasks formulated in the previous chapter.

### 3.1 Task #1 Examines the relationship between relational satisfaction and emotional balance, job satisfaction, and employee health.

For this purpose, data from two own studies (MTurk and SSA20) and data from the European Working Conditions Survey – EWCS were analyzed.

Operationalization is presented in the chapter **Operationalizations of variables**.

**T1:** Results of the test of the relational satisfaction correlation hypothesis: **H1a.** ‘**Relational satisfaction** is **positively** related to employee **emotional well-being** in the job’.

#### 3.1.1 On the MTurk database

To test the hypothesis determining the relationship between relational satisfaction and emotional balance, the correlation coefficient between relational satisfaction and emotional balance of employees (indexed on the basis of the frequency of experiencing particular emotions) was calculated. Age of the respondents was controlled.

		Univariate	Positive	Positive
		Negative	Asthenic	Sthenic
		Affect	Affect	Affect
Relational Satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	-0.348***	0.533***	0.151**
Age	Pearson Correlation	-0.141	0.088	-0.103

Table 17 Correlations between RELATIONAL SATISFACTION index and EMOTIONAL BALANCE [Univariate Negative Affect, Positive Asthenic emotions, Positive Sthenic Affect].

Simple correlation analyses have shown that the higher the relational satisfaction, the more frequent the positive emotions (especially asthenic), and the less frequent the negative emotions. The correlation of age with emotional balance was insignificant.

### 3.1.2 H1a and H1b were re-tested in the EWCS set ‘Relational satisfaction is an important predictor of employee health self-assessment’.

The simple correlation between emotional well-being and relational satisfaction in the 35 countries was positive and statistically significant. The value of the correlation coefficient ranged from 0.29 to 0.57 on large samples (average correlation coefficient=0.4, SD=0.07; in Poland  $r=0.393$ , in Sweden  $r=0.293$ , in Turkey  $r=0.379$ ).

It was also checked whether self-assessment of health is associated with relational satisfaction when other variables were controlled.

The analysis was carried out on a sample of 34,520 employees from different countries.

The regression analysis of health self-assessment was explained 18% [ $F(4, 34516) = 1878.09$ ] by 5 predictors.

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3.531	0.028		124.060	0.000
	sex Gender	-0.052	0.007	-0.035	-7.109	0.000
	age	-0.019	0.000	-0.318	-64.786	0.000
	boss relational satisfaction	0.072	0.004	0.087	16.433	0.000
	em emotional balance	0.300	0.006	0.247	46.611	0.000

a. Dependent Variable: health

Table 18 Results of regression analysis for Health and employee's age, emotional balance, satisfaction to work with supervisor, and gender.

The strongest predictor of health self-assessment is age of an employee (the older employee the worse health self-assessment), then emotional balance (the better emotional balance, the better health self-assessment), satisfaction with the relationship with the supervisor (the larger satisfaction with the relationship, the better health self-assessment), and gender (women assess their health worse).

### 3.1.3 H1a and H1c were tested on the SSA20 set ‘Relational satisfaction correlates positively with job satisfaction’.

Low relational satisfaction is significantly predicted by [ $R^2=0.15$ ;  $F(5,156)=5.38$ ;  $p<0.0001$ ] negative emotional balance at work (but not at home). Relational satisfaction also correlates positively with job satisfaction ( $r=0.48$ ,  $df=154$ ) when controlling age, education, and gender.

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.258	0.435		2.889	0.004
	epre emotional balans et work	-0.305	0.068	-0.358	-4.450	0.000
	ereel emotional balans at home	-0.051	0.067	-0.062	-0.769	0.443
	age	0.002	0.005	0.042	0.538	0.591
	sex Płeć	0.010	0.117	0.006	0.084	0.933
	edu Ile lat kształcenia (formalnej edukacji) otrzymałeś?	0.011	0.046	0.018	0.228	0.820

a. Dependent Variable: szef relational satisfaction (low)

Table 19 Results of regression analysis for relational satisfaction and emotional balance at work and at home, age, gender, and education

Discussion of the results is presented in Chapter 4.

### 3.2 Task. #2 Examining the dependence of the expected relational satisfaction on the similarity of an employee to a boss on the dimension of working style

As part of this task, the following hypothesis was tested:

**H2.** Employees prefer a supplementary fit to the boss on the dimension of the working style. POINT employees have stronger preferences than INTERVAL employees.

The analyses were carried out on data from 3 own studies:

**B#3.** SSA20 – **169** employees, **B#2.** SSA21v – **384** students, **B#1.** SSA21vii – **615** employees.

A description of the sample can be found in appendix.

Figure 21 Graphical presentation of the hypothesis H2: Leader-Employee Working Style (In)congruence Matrix.

	POINT supervisor	INTERVAL supervisor
POINT employee	Fit	Misfit
INTERVAL employee	Misfit	Fit

### 3.2.1 Y1: S B#4 Working style. SSA20, 169 employees, with at least 3 years work of experience

In study 4, in addition to the employee's working style, relational satisfaction in working with the current supervisor and the similarity of this supervisor to two model supervisors were examined: POINT and INTERVAL.

The current boss's working style was measured indirectly by the similarity to the pattern.

Therefore, 2 hypotheses regarding the supplementary fit on the dimension of the working style were tested:

**H2a** applies to relational satisfaction and says that the more the current boss is similar to the model of a POINT person, and less similar to the model of an INTERVAL person, the higher the satisfaction with relationships in POINT employees, and the lower in the INTERVAL ones. At the same time, the expected relationship should be stronger in the group of POINT employees.

**H2b** refers to a higher readiness to work with a POINT supervisor than with an INTERVAL supervisor for a POINT person and the lack of strong preferences in an INTERVAL person.

**To test H2a**, the correlation coefficient was calculated between the degree of similarity of the current boss to the descriptions of the POINT and INTERVAL Supervisors separately in the group of POINT and INTERVAL employees.

Analyzed Variables:

- Employee's working style – variable taking 2 values: POINT vs INTERVAL - [Operationalization WS #1]
- The similarity of the current and TARGET boss – [Operationalization StS #1]
- Relational satisfaction - [Operationalization RS #2]

	Degree of similarity of my current to the description of:	
	Point Supervisor	Interval Supervisor
Point Employee	-0.225*	0.299**
Interval Employee	-0.059	0.013

Table 20 Correlations between RELATIONAL SATISFACTION and the similarity of the current and described supervisor in the group of POINT vs INTERVAL employees.



From the contents of the table above it follows that relational satisfaction based on the boss's working style can be predicted only in a group of POINT employees. The more the boss is similar to the 'POINT' and the less to the 'INTERVAL' description, the higher the relational satisfaction of the POINT employees. For INTERVAL employees, no relationship was detected between the similarity of the working style and their relational satisfaction.

In order to test H2b for a higher readiness to work with a POINT supervisor than with an INTERVAL one in a POINT person and the lack of strong preferences in an INTERVAL person, a variance analysis was performed.

#### Predictors:

- Employee working style – variable taking 2 values: point vs interval – [Operationalization WS #1]
- Working style of the MODEL boss <Supervisor working style> – variable taking 2 values: point vs interval – [Operationalization WS #2b]

**Explained variable:** Willingness to cooperate with the MODEL boss <Willingness to Cooperate> [Operationalization WS #2b]

After reviewing the exemplary descriptions of the X2 POINT boss and the X3 INTERVAL boss, employees determined their willingness to cooperate with them.

POINT supervisor (X2)	INTERVAL Supervisor (X3)
The X2 Boss believes that <b>decision-making should be a methodical (structured and sequential) process</b> . Emotions can only disturb him. She/He always starts meetings punctually with the presentation of the agenda, which she/he hangs on a piece of paper in a visible place along with the expected effects. <b>Meetings are always short and factual</b> . Leaving the meeting, <b>everyone knows what to do and what they are responsible for</b> . Some people love working with the X2 Boss, because of the orderly and systematic approach, others complain about the too orthodox approach to the adopted procedures.	The X3 Boss always <b>looks at the wider context</b> – she/he approaches the problem holistically. In her/his opinion, a <b>disordered, 'non/ linear' way of thinking increases creativity</b> . Talking to him/her is <b>jumping from topic to topic</b> . She/He is willing to <b>challenge her/his employees</b> instead of defining precise tasks. <b>More important for her/him is the overall vision</b> than precisely planned action step by step. Some adore the X3 Boss for her/his <b>creative and unconventional approach</b> , others complain about the lack of specific arrangements.

In order to test the H2b hypothesis, a two-factor analysis (employee style, boss style) of the variance of the desire to cooperate with the boss was performed with a repeated measurement on the latter factor (see table below).

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects.					
Tests of Significance for T1 using UNIQUE sums of squares					
Source of Variation	SS	DF	MS	F	Sig of F
WITHIN CELLS	148.38	164	0.90		
REGRESSION	7.08	1	7.08	7.83	0.006
x72	0.85	1	0.85	0.94	0.334
Tests involving 'TYP' Within-Subject Effect.					
Tests of Significance for T2 using UNIQUE sums of squares					
Source of Variation	SS	DF	MS	F	Sig of F
WITHIN CELLS	134.68	165	0.82		
TYP	24.47	1	24.47	29.98	0.000
x72 BY TYP	14.07	1	14.07	17.23	0.000

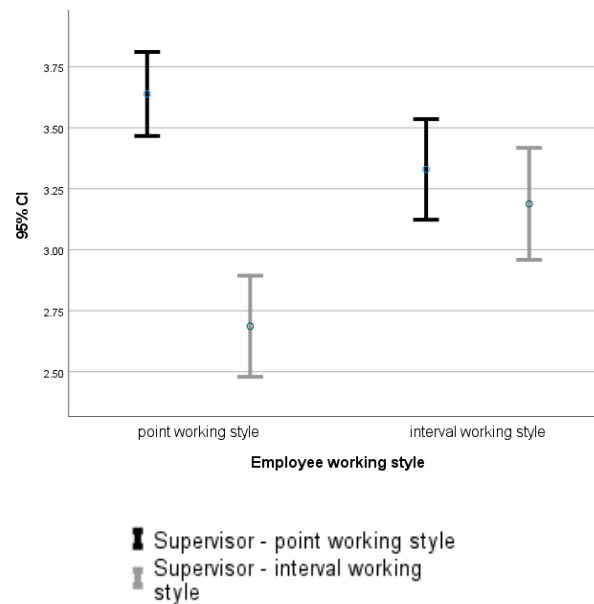
Table 21 WILLINGNESS to work with depending on EMPLOYEES' working style [x72: respondent PE vs IE], SUPERVISORS' working style type [PS vs IS].

The results of the variance analysis presented in the table above showed a significant main effect of the boss type, which means a higher willingness to cooperate with a POINT boss (M=3.48) than with an INTERVAL boss (M=2.94).

The most important from the point of the view of hypotheses is the statistically significant effect of interaction, which means that 'POINT' employees prefer to work with a 'POINT' boss (M=3.64) than with an 'INTERVAL' boss (M=2.69).

The differences in the preferences of the employees are statistically insignificant (M=3.33 vs. M=3.19).

Figure 22 Willingness to work with depending on EMPLOYEE'S and SUPERVISOR'S working style.



### 3.2.2 Y2: Working style B#2. SSA21vii, 615 employees, with at least 3 years of experience

#### Analyzed Variables:

- Employee working style – measured with SSA taking 2 values: point vs interval [Operationalization WS #1]
- Supervisor working style – a variable taking 2 values: point vs interval – [Operationalization WS #2a]

**Explained variable:** Willingness to cooperate with the boss <Willingness to Cooperate> – [Operationalization WS #2a]

**Covariates:** Gender, age, and education of an employee.

Y2: Results of hypothesis testing

After becoming familiar with the model descriptions of the P3 POINT boss and the P4 INTERVAL boss, employees determined their willingness to cooperate with them.

POINT Supervisor (P3)	INTERVAL Supervisor (P4)
The P3 Boss always <b>starts meetings on time</b> . Meetings are factual, without digressions, and substantively planned. She/He <b>carefully chooses words</b> , cares about precision, and a clear message. Working with the P3 Boss it is <b>easy to notice the methodically of the procedure</b> . Some people love working with the P3 Boss for an orderly approach that <b>brings systematically measurable business results</b> , others complain about an overly orthodox approach to the adopted procedures.	The P4 Boss always <b>looks at the wider context</b> – he approaches the problem holistically. She/He <b>does not like to go into detail</b> . You never know what you are going to talk about or how long the meeting will last, but it is not boring. Some people <b>love the P4 Boss for its creative and unconventional approach</b> , which gives the company an advantage in the market and employees constant stimulation, others complain about the constant variability of arrangements and lack of predictability.

In order to test the H2b hypothesis, a two-factor (employee style, boss style) covariance analysis of the desire to cooperate with the boss with a repeated measurement on the latter factor was performed. The covariates were age, gender, and education of an employee.

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects.

Tests of Significance for T1 using UNIQUE sums of squares					
Source of Variation	SS	DF	MS	F	Sig of F
WITHIN CELLS	500.01	604	0.83		
REGRESSION	13.36	3	4.45	5.38	0.001
x72	0.02	1	0.02	0.02	0.889

Source of Variation	SS	DF	MS	F	Sig of F
WITHIN CELLS	1106.07	607	1.82		
TYP	298.18	1	298.18	163.64	0.000
x72 BY TYP	36.90	1	36.90	20.25	0.000

COVARIATE	B	Beta	Std. Err.	t-Value
Tage	-0.0074207023	-0.1239832925	0.00246	-3.02235
Tsex	0.0755012883	0.0575217236	0.05356	1.40979
Tedur	0.0129222641	0.0558494868	0.00935	1.38134

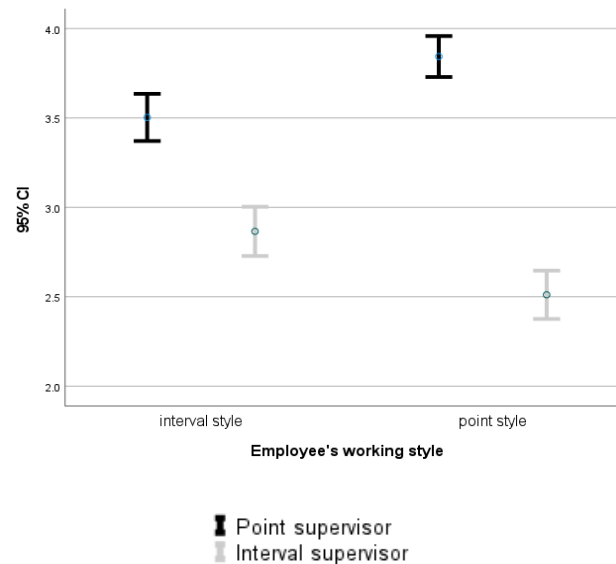
Table 22 WILLINGNESS TO work with depending on EMPLOYEES' working style [x72: respondent PE vs PI], SUPERVISORS' working style type [PS vs IS], adjusted for gender [gender: 1=men; 2=women], years of education [edur], and age [age].

The results of the covariance analysis presented in the table above showed:

(\*) Significant main effect of the boss type – surveyed employees significantly ( $t=12.42$ ;  $p<0.0001$ ), more strongly work with a POINT boss ( $M=3.67$ ) than with an INTERVAL boss ( $M=2.69$ ).

(\*\*) Significant effect of the interaction – POINT employees (M=3.84) accept the POINT boss significantly stronger than INTERVAL employees (M=3.5), who in turn accept the INTERVAL boss significantly stronger (M=2.86) than POINT employees (M=2.51).

Figure 23 Willingness to work with depending on EMPLOYEE'S and SUPERVISOR'S working style.



### 3.2.3 Y3: Working style B#3. SSA21V, 384 students choosing a supervisor

#### Predictors:

- Student working style – taking 2 values: point vs. interval [Operationalization WS #1]
- Supervisor working style – variable taking two values: point vs interval [Operationalization WS #2c]

**Explained variable:** Willingness to cooperate with the supervisor <Willingness to work with> [Operationalization WS #2c]

After becoming familiar with the model descriptions of the P3 POINT supervisor and the P4 INTERVAL promoter, students assessed to what extent they would like to write a diploma thesis under their direction.

<b>POINT Supervisor (P3)</b>	<b>INTERVAL Supervisor (P4)</b>
<p>The supervisor (P3) always starts the meeting on time. Seminars are factual, without unnecessary digressions, and substantively planned. Writing a work under the direction of P3 is a structured and sequential process. Speaking to students, P3 carefully chooses words, cares about precision and matter-of-factness. Looking through the works created under the direction of P3, it is easy to see that they all have the same structure and concern related issues.</p> <p>Some people love working with P3, because of their orderly and systematic approach; others complain about the overly orthodox approach to the adopted procedures.</p>	<p>Your supervisor (P4) always looks at the wider context – he approaches the problem holistically. Meetings with P4 can be about things that were not previously planned. You never know what she is going to talk about with students and how long it is going to last, but it is not boring. When determining the topic of work, students have a lot of freedom to choose the topic and form of work. Looking at the works created under the direction of P4, it is easy to see that they have a different structure and concern very different issues.</p> <p>Some love P4 for its creative and unconventional approach, others complain about the constant variability of the findings.</p>

The two-factor ANOVA (student working style, supervisor working style) with repeated measurement on the last factor showed (see table below):

- (1) Insignificant influence of the supervisor's TYPE (POINT vs. INTERVAL) on the willingness to cooperate.
- (2) Significant impact of the interaction of the SUPERVISOR TYPE and the INTERVAL working style, which means that students declare a higher willingness to cooperate with supervisors with a similar working style. POINT students are more likely to declare their choice of a supervisor with a POINT working style (M=3.72 vs. M=3.47). On the other hand, INTERVAL students are more likely to choose an INTERVAL supervisor (M=3.73 vs. M=3.48).

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects.

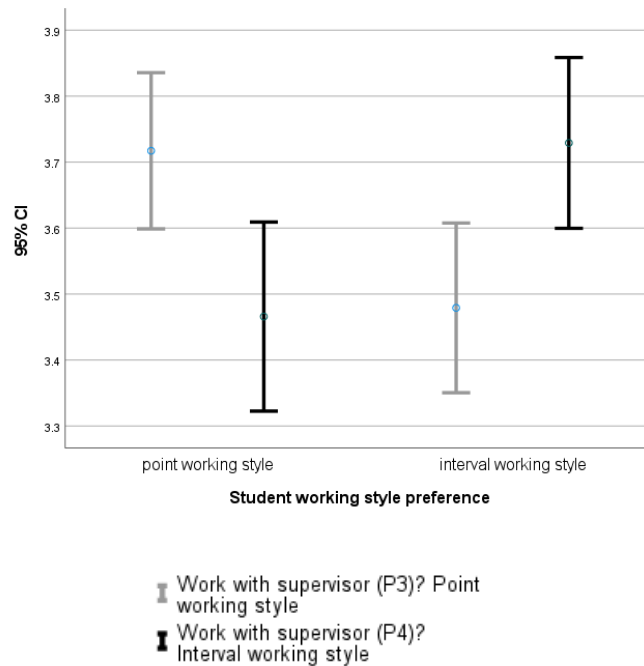
Tests of Significance for T1 using UNIQUE sums of squares					
Source of Variation	SS	DF	MS	F	Sig of F
WITHIN CELLS	272.13	381	.71		
N2a2	.03	1	.03	.04	.837

Tests involving 'TYP' Within-Subject Effect.

Tests of Significance for T2 using UNIQUE sums of squares					
Source of Variation	SS	DF	MS	F	Sig of F
WITHIN CELLS	363.97	381	.96		
TYP	.00	1	.00	.00	.993
N2a2 BY TYP	12.03	1	12.03	12.59	.000

Table 23 WILLINGNESS to work with depending on STUDENT'S working style [N2a2: POINT vs INTERVAL], SUPERVISORS' working style [TYP: POINT vs INTERVAL].

Figure 24 Willingness to work with depending on STUDENTS and SUPERVISOR'S working style.



A summary and discussion of the obtained results can be found in Chapter 4.

### 3.3 Task #3 Examining the relationship between the expected relational satisfaction and the similarity of an employee to a boss in terms of the need for dominance of the working style

For the purpose of testing H3 ‘Employees prefer a complementary fit to the boss in terms of the need for dominance’, analyzed data from 2 own studies: SSA21v, SSA21vii.

Figure 25 Graphical illustration of hypothesis H3: Leader-Employee Working Style (In)congruence Matrix.

	Affiliative (nondominant) supervisor	Dominant supervisor
Nondominant employee	Misfit	Fit
Dominant employee	Fit	Misfit

#### 3.3.1 Z1: Dominance B#2. SSA21vii, 617 employees, with at least 3 years of work experience

##### Predictors:

- (1) Employee’s need for dominance – a variable taking 2 values: dominant vs affiliative [Operationalization DN #2];
- (2) Supervisor’s need for dominance – a variable taking 2 values: dominant vs. affiliative (nondominant) [Operationalization SDN #2a];

**Explained variable:** Willingness to cooperate with the MODEL boss – [Operationalization SDN #2a]

**Controlled variables:** gender, age, and education of an employee

After reading the exemplary descriptions of the dominant P1 supervisor and the affiliative (nondominant) P2 supervisor, employees determined their willingness to cooperate with them.

Dominant Supervisor	Affiliative Supervisor
<p><b>The P1 boss</b> likes to have control over what the employees do. He makes decisions quickly and is firm in what he does. Fairly and scrupulously, employees for the implementation of tasks. Some people love working with <b>P1</b> for its specific and directive attitude; you know exactly what and how to do it.</p> <p>Others complain about too much murder and lack of interest in employee ideas that are inconsistent with his concept.</p>	<p><b>The P2 boss</b> likes it when employees are engaged. He listens carefully to what they have to say. He can be persuaded to their ideas even when they deviate from the adopted concept. It leaves freedom in action, the results are important. Some people love working with <b>P2</b> for being able to work ‘on their own terms’.</p> <p>Others complain about blaming employees for the results they have achieved.</p>



In order to test the hypothesis, a two-factor (the need for employee dominance, the need for boss dominance) covariance analysis (age, gender, education) was carried out with repeated measurement on the last factor.

Tests of Significance for T1 using UNIQUE sums of squares					
Source of Variation	SS	DF	MS	F	Sig of F
WITHIN CELLS	429.74	602	0.71		
REGRESSION	1.03	3	0.34	0.48	0.695
x22	6.30	1	6.30	8.83	0.003

***** Analysis of Variance *****					
Tests involving 'TYP' Within-Subject Effect.					
Tests of Significance for T2 using UNIQUE sums of squares					
Source of Variation	SS	DF	MS	F	Sig of F
WITHIN CELLS	1041.27	605	1.72		
TYP	648.55	1	648.55	376.82	0.000
x22 BY TYP	31.15	1	31.15	18.10	0.000

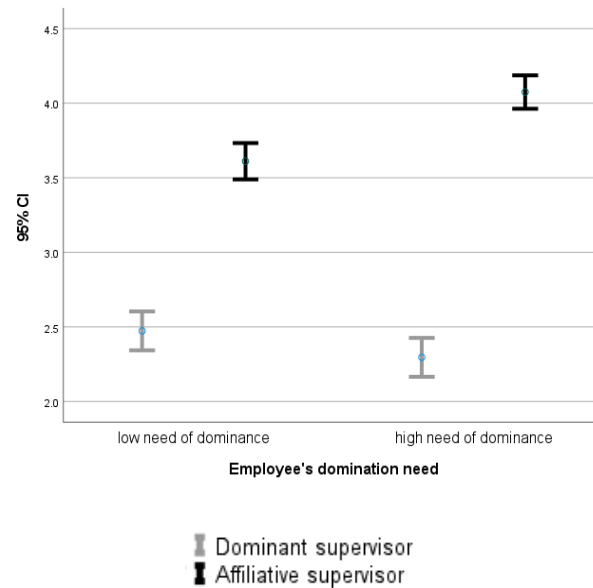
COVARIATE	B	Beta	Std. Err.	t-Value	Sig. of t
Tage	-0.0006492106	-0.0119074777	0.00226	-0.28743	0.774
Tsex	0.0480410093	0.0396761485	0.05023	0.95643	0.339
Tedur	-0.0053026716	-0.0241602140	0.00890	-0.59566	0.552

Table 24 WILLINGNESS TO work with depending on EMPLOYEES' need for dominance [x22: respondent dominant vs affiliative] and SUPERVISORS' need for dominance type [Dominant vs Affiliative], adjusted for gender [gender: 1=men; 2=women], years of education [edur], and age.

The results of the covariance analysis presented in the table above showed:

- (\*) A significant main effect of the boss's need for dominance – employees significantly more strongly accept working with an affiliative boss (M=3.84) than with a dominant boss (M=2.38).
- (\*\*) The hypothesized significant interaction effect meaning that dominant employees (M=4.08) accept an affiliative boss more strongly than nondominant employees (M=3.61), nondominant employees accept a dominant boss more strongly (M=2.47) than dominant employees (M=2.30).

Figure 26 Willingness to work with depending on EMPLOYEE'S and SUPERVISOR'S need for dominance.



### 3.3.2 Z2: Dominance B#3. SSA21v, 384 Students chose a supervisor

#### Predictors:

- Student's need for dominance – (median division of the distribution of the interpersonal factor variable) <Need for Dominance> [Operationalization DN #2];
- Supervisor's need for dominance – <Supervisor Need for Dominance> [Operationalization SDN #2b]

**Explained variable:** Willingness to cooperate with a supervisor <Willingness to Cooperate> [Operationalization SDN #2b]

After reviewing the model descriptions of the dominant supervisor and the P2 (affiliative) supervisor, students determined their readiness to cooperate with them.

Dominant Supervisor	Affiliative Supervisor
<p><b>The P1 boss</b> likes to have control over what the employees do. He makes decisions quickly and is firm in what he does. Fairly and scrupulously, employees for the implementation of tasks.</p> <p>Some people love working with <b>P1</b> for its specific and directive attitude; you know exactly what and how to do it. Others complain about too much murder and lack of interest in employee ideas that are inconsistent with his concept.</p>	<p><b>The P2 boss</b> likes it when the employees are engaged. He listens carefully to what they have to say. He can be persuaded to their ideas even when they deviate from the adopted concept. It leaves freedom in action; the results are important.</p> <p>Some people love to work with <b>P2</b> for being able to, because they can work ‘on their own terms’. Others complain about blaming employees for the results they have achieved.</p>

To test the hypothesis, a two-factor covariance analysis (need for student dominance, need for supervisor dominance) was performed with repeated measurement on the latter factor (see table below).

Tests of Significance for T1 using UNIQUE sums of squares					
Source of Variation	SS	DF	MS	F	Sig of F
WITHIN CELLS	231.22	380	0.61		
REGRESSION	0.37	1	0.37	0.61	0.436
x2ae2	0.94	1	0.94	1.55	0.214

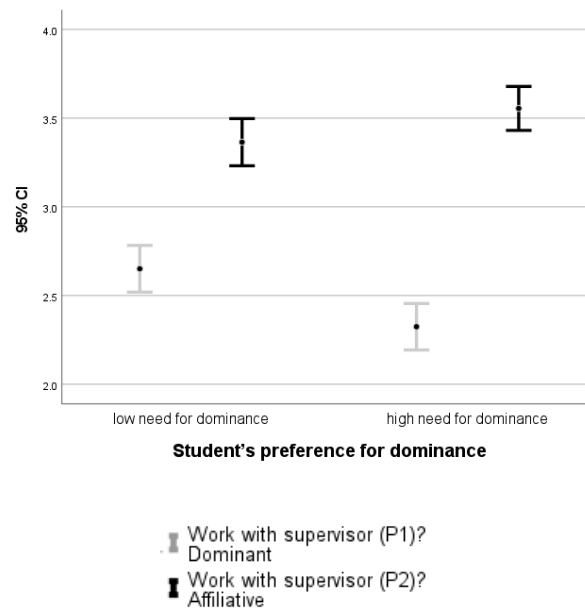
Tests involving 'TYP' Within-Subject Effect.					
Tests of Significance for T2 using UNIQUE sums of squares					
Source of Variation	SS	DF	MS	F	Sig of F
WITHIN CELLS	401.55	381	1.05		
TYP	180.91	1	180.91	171.65	0.000
x2ae2 BY TYP	12.79	1	12.79	12.13	0.001

COVARIATE	B	Beta	Std. Err.	t-Value	Sig. of t
Tsex	-0.0440511200	-0.0399696784	0.05645	-0.78031	0.436

Table 25 WILLINGNESS to work with depending on the Student's need for dominance [x2ea2: respondent DE vs NDE], SUPERVISORS' need for dominance [DE vs NDE].

Figure 27 Willingness to work with depending on the STUDENT'S and SUPERVISOR'S need for dominance



The results of the covariance analysis showed:

(\*) A significant main effect of supervisor's need for dominance means that students accept the affiliate supervisor ( $M=3.45$ ) more strongly than the dominant one ( $M=2.49$ ).

(\*\*) A significant effect of the interaction of supervisor's need for dominance and student dominance, meaning that the difference in preferences is greater in the group of dominant students ( $M=3.56$  vs  $M=2.33$ ) than in the group of nondominant ones ( $M=3.36$  vs  $M=2.65$ ).

A discussion of the results obtained can be found in Chapter 4.

### 3.4 Task #4 Examine in an experimental study of the employee's preferences as to gender and age of a boss and the relationship between gender and age of a boss with job satisfaction

#### 3.4.1 X1: Gender and Age B#6 EWCS, 43,850 Respondents

In this study, two hypotheses were tested:

- H4a1: Relational satisfaction depends on the interaction between gender of an employee and gender of a supervisor. Employees feel better working with the same-gender boss.

- H4a2: The higher the egalitarianism of gender in the country, the higher the satisfaction with a woman acting as a direct superior.

The choice of countries resulted from different percentages of respondents declaring that their direct superior is a woman: 47% in Sweden, 35% in Poland, and only 13% in Turkey. These differences are statistically significant (chi-square (2) = 309.7;  $p < 0.001$ ).

Country	N	N2	Men	Age M	Age SD
Sweden	1002	990	50.1%	45.02	12.79
Poland	1203	1150	45.5%	42.55	13.56
Turkey	2000	1975	72.2%	36.91	12.00

Table 26. Descriptive statistics for the three countries analyzed in the study.

In order to verify the H4a hypothesis, a two-factor analysis of variance (gender of a boss, gender of an employee) was carried out in 3 compared countries. Tables of analysis of variance are set out in the Appendix.

There was no significant interaction effect of supervisor and employee gender predicted by the hypothesis in any of the countries. There was also no significant main effect of gender of an employee and gender of a boss, except in Sweden, where the main effect of gender of a superior for the country – Sweden, turned out to be statistically significant.

Swedish employees managed by a woman had significantly ( $F(1,899)=8.250$ ;  $p=0.004$ ) higher relational satisfaction ( $M=3.89$ ) than those who had a man as their boss ( $M=3.75$ ). To test H4b, a two-factor (boss gender, country, employee gender) was performed. The results showed only a significant main effect of the country [ $F(2,3091)=35.7$ ;  $p < 0.001$ ]. Relational satisfaction was significantly higher in Turkey ( $M=4.15$ ) than in Poland ( $M=3.83$ ) or Sweden ( $M=3.81$ ). There was no association of relational satisfaction with gender of a supervisor, employee, or their interaction.

### **3.4.2 X2: Gender and Age B#4, SSA20, 169 Employees, with at least 3 years of experience**

This study tested H4a: Peers working with a boss are less satisfied with their work than those working with an older boss (complementary fit).

**Predictor:** GENERATION DIFFERENCE between a boss and an employee <Generation Differences> [Operationalization AGE #1] taking 2 values: (1) a boss of the same generation as an employee, (2) a boss older than an employee.

**Explained Variable:** Relational Satisfaction – [Operationalization RS #3]

**Controlled variables:** Age, Gender, Education

Covariance analysis did not show a significant effect of generational difference (table in the appendix), so the H4a hypothesis did not receive empirical support on that occasion.

### 3.4.3 X3: Gender and Age B#3 SSA21i, 177 people: Experimental manipulation of gender and age of a potential leader

In this study, we manipulated the age of potential supervisors by randomly assigning respondents to groups of age-different stimuli (younger vs. older) depicted in the images.





	<b>Grzegorz</b> – is looking for practical solutions and strives to implement the established plans in a systematic and effective way. Values order and harmony. He is well organized.	
	<b>Kasia</b> – emphasizes action, likes to influence decisions, tries not to waste time on discussions. She carefully makes sure that the group achieves its goals even at the expense of her popularity.	

Table 27. Description of a potential boss used in research SSA21i

Respondents, after reading descriptions of seven people, were to choose one of them as the leader of the team.

To test the **H4b** hypothesis ‘Subjects are more likely to choose an elderly person as a leader (complementary fit)’, the proportion of a given stimulus person's choice as leader depending on their age in the photo was counted (see table below). Although none of the differences presented were statistically significant, in 6 out of 7 cases, an elderly person was chosen more often as the leader.

Version of target person	Grzegorz	Marek	Maciek	Piotr	Marta	Justyna	Kasia
Difference between older and younger	0.031	0.065	0.028	0.023	0.002	0.023	-0.014
General Popularity in choosing persona as a leader	21%	33%	23%	2%	3%	10%	8%

Table 28. Differences between younger and older target persons for leadership positions.  
\*Positive values indicate older leader advantage, negative younger advantage.

To verify the **H4a** hypothesis ‘Subjects will choose a person of the same gender (supplementary fit)’, it was checked how often gender of the chosen leader depended on gender of the respondents. The table below shows the corrected data after accounting for an unequal number of men (4) and women (3) in the sets.

		Men	Women
Gender of chosen leader	Man	65.5%	77.2%
	Woman	34.5%	22.8%
	Total	100%	100%

Table 29 Percentage distribution of GENDER PREFERENCE LEADER

Both women (77.2%) and men (65.5%) were more likely to choose a man as the leader.





For a discussion of the results, see Chapter 4.

#### 3.4.4 X4: Gender and Age B#4 SSA21v, 384 Students chose a promoter

Students received psychological descriptions of 6 potential thesis promoters.

Depending on the group to which they were randomly assigned, they were informed that all promoters from whom they could choose came from the same age group and were of the same gender. This information was reinforced with a photo (see photo and description below).

The students' task was to assess to what extent they would like to write a diploma thesis under the direction of each of the promoters to choose from. This task was characterized by a high degree of situational realism since the choice of the promoter awaited these students in the coming months.

Students learned that potential promoters were:	
Men born before 1965 and with a lot of experience in promoting.	Men born after 1980 and with a lot of experience in promoting.
	
Women born before 1965 and with a lot of experience in promoting.	Women born after 1980 and with a lot of experience in promoting.
	

In this study, two hypotheses were tested:

- H4a: Students will prefer to work with the same-gender supervisor.
- H4b: Students will prefer to work with an older supervisor than a younger supervisor.

#### Predictors:

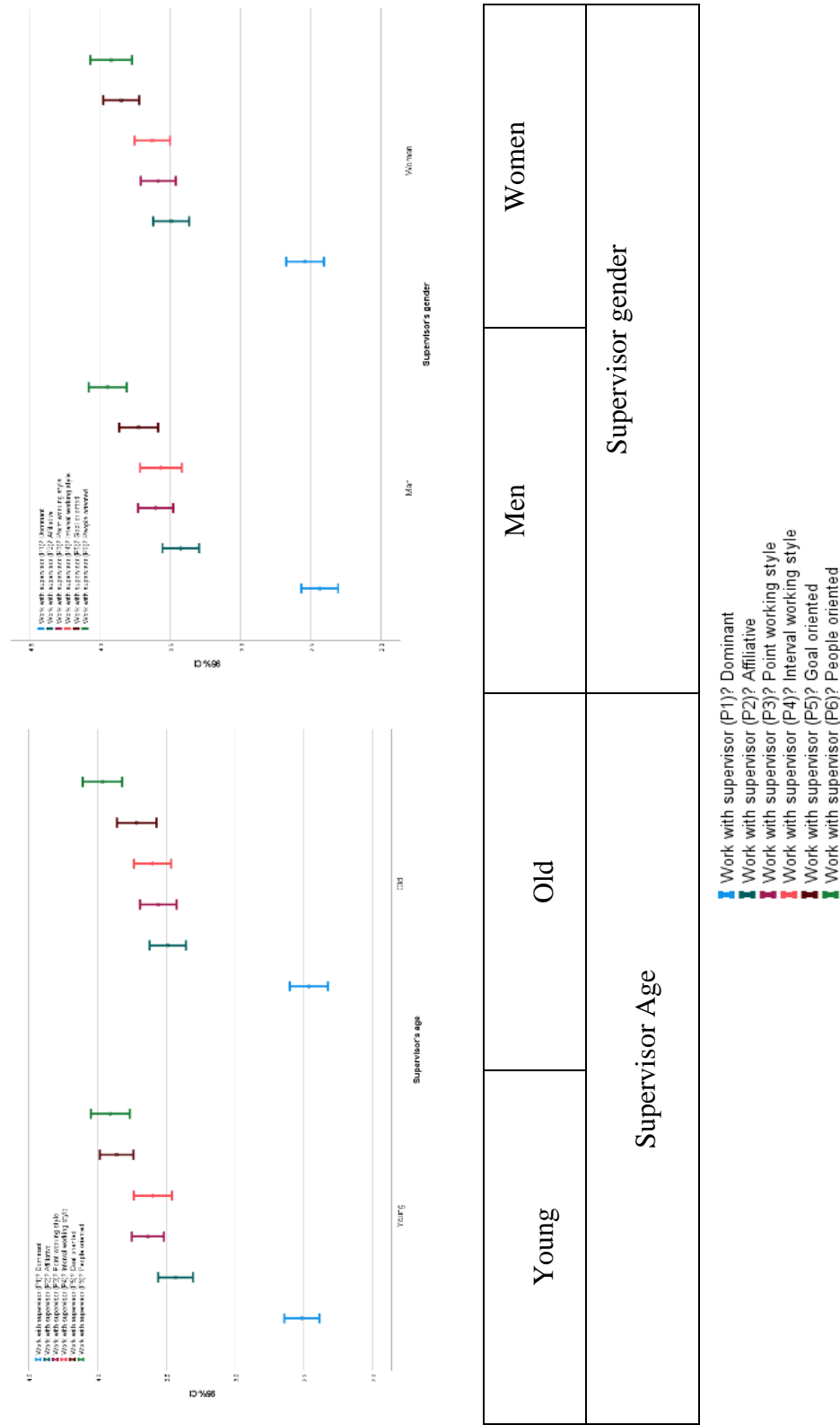
- Gender of respondent - [Operationalization GEN #1]
- Age of Promoters (Person-to-Person Manipulation) <Supervisor age> [Operationalization AGE #3]: 2 values: younger vs. older
- Gender of promoters (manipulation between people) <Supervisor gender> [Operationalization GEN #3]

**Explained variable:** Declared willingness to cooperate with the promoter <Willingness to cooperate> [Operationalization WS #2c]

The manipulation of information about age and gender of the promoter did not affect the willingness to cooperate. Study participants selected individual promoters with similar frequency regardless of gender and age of the supervisor (see the figure below). Detailed analyses are given in the appendix.



Figure 28 Graph comparison of supervisors gender and age manipulation



A discussion of the results obtained can be found in Chapter 4.

## Chapter 4. Summary

### 4.1 Summary and Discussion of the Results Obtained

In the dissertation **4 research tasks** were carried out, the results of which I will summarize here.

Task #1 investigated the relationship between relational satisfaction and emotional balance, job satisfaction, and employee health. For this purpose, data from the own survey (MTurk and SSA20) and data from the European Working Conditions Survey – EWCS (pre-existing data) were analyzed.

Hypothesis H1 was tested. Satisfaction with the relationship with a supervisor is a predictor of positive emotional balance, job satisfaction and employee health.

The main hypothesis was translated into 3 detailed hypotheses (table below).

	Detailed hypothesis	Research	Status
H1a	The higher the relational satisfaction (from the relationship with a supervisor), the better the emotional balance at work: the more often experienced by an employee positive emotion and the less frequent negative ones.	MTurk EWCS SSA20	Confirmed
H1b	The higher the relational satisfaction (from the relationship with a supervisor), the higher the job satisfaction.	MTurk SSA20	Confirmed
H1c	The higher the relational satisfaction (from the relationship with a supervisor), the higher the employee's self-assessment of health.	EWCS	Confirmed

The relationships predicted by the hypotheses were confirmed by analyses on 4 different data sets (data triangulation) and different operationalizations of variables (triangulation of methods). Satisfaction with the relationship with a boss is very important, because it is associated with better emotional balance at work and health. The higher the relational satisfaction (satisfaction from the relationship with a direct supervisor), the more frequent the positive emotions (especially asthenic), and the rarer the negative emotions felt at work (MTurk), the higher the self-assessment of health.

However, it should be remembered that from correlational dependencies it is impossible to conclude about causality. Perhaps healthier employees are more satisfied and can appreciate their

boss to a higher degree. Against such interpretation speaks the lack of connection between relational satisfaction and emotional balance in free time shown in SSA20.

To increase the internal validity of the research, experimental studies should preferably be conducted under natural conditions and in the long term, in which employees would work with: (1) the 'ideal' vs. (2) destructive boss and measure changes in emotional balance and self-assessment of health. It is easy to plan such a study, but it is extremely difficult to carry it out.

The biggest challenge in the research plan proved to be measuring the fit between boss and employee. The first study carried out, in which American employees described both themselves and their boss, showed the weakness of such an operationalization of the fit<sup>239</sup> due to very high correlation of self-descriptions and descriptions of a boss. When choosing such a method of operationalization, we do not know to what extent, for example, the need for dominance of a boss described by an employee is a projection of her or his qualities, and to what extent an accurate reflection of such characteristic of their boss. To avoid this problem in another study, we asked employees to rate their boss's similarity to the benchmark POINT and INTERVAL bosses. With such an operationalization of similarity, we have shown that relational satisfaction is greater the more their current boss is like the POINT boss, and the less similar he or she is to the INTERVAL boss. This relationship was relevant only in the group of POINT employees. As the theory predicts, INTERVAL employees are more flexible in their preferences.

In subsequent studies, the fit of the employee's characteristics was measured using the SSA self-reporting technique, the characteristics of the boss was manipulated, constructing various model descriptions. Care was taken with regards to the situational realism of the created descriptions, so that they belonged, as Jerzy Konorski said, to the natural repertoire of experiences so that the created characteristics described an easily imagined person or a situation. As shown in other studies<sup>240</sup>, this method of manipulation gives highly correlated results of willingness to cooperate with imagined trust and emotional balance, and its validity was demonstrated in the SSA20 study.

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239 Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, Johnson, 2005

240 Koval, 2021

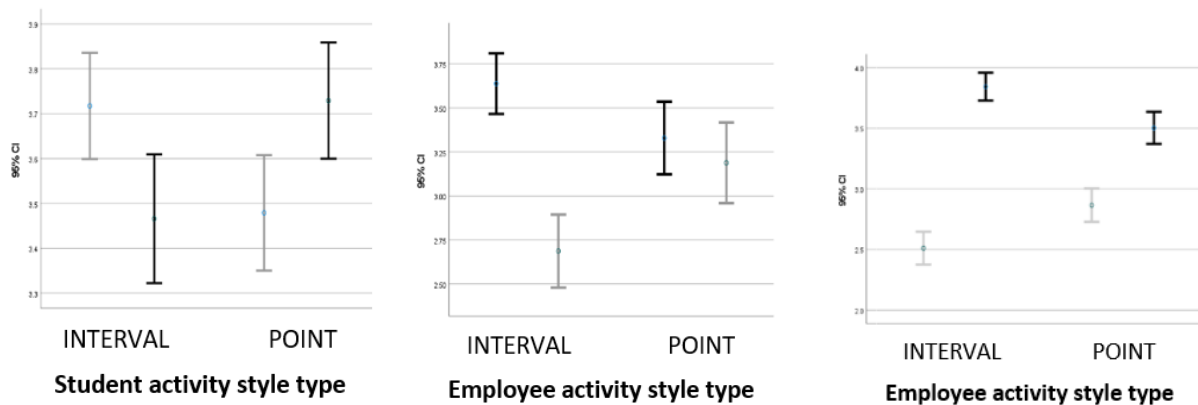
#### 4.1.1 Supplementary fit in terms of working style

**Hypothesis H2.** Employees prefer a supplementary fit to the boss on the dimension of the working style. POINT employees have stronger preferences than INTERVAL ones received support in 3 studies.

Figure 29 Graphical presentation of the hypothesis H2: Supervisor-Employee Working Style (In)congruence Matrix.

	POINT supervisor	INTERVAL supervisor
POINT employee	Fit	Misfit
INTERVAL employee	Misfit	Fit

If we compare the results of the research of employees and students (see the figure below), then we will notice the following differences:



<p>Work with supervisor (P3)? Point working style</p> <p>Work with supervisor (P4)? Interval working style</p>	<p>Supervisor - point working style</p> <p>Supervisor - interval working style</p>	<p>Point supervisor</p> <p>Interval supervisor</p>
Database: SSA21v	Database: SSA21vii	Database: SSA20

Figure 30 Graph comparison of supervisor working style preferences in study SSA21v, SSA21vii, and SSA20

Students' preferences regarding the promoter's working style are much weaker (and much larger amount of answers HARD to say) than the preferences of employees. This is easy to understand if you consider that students' dependence on their promoter is much lower than employees' dependence on the supervisor. The supervisor can be changed; the relationship with him is very limited in time.

In the research, it turned out that employees prefer a POINT boss to an INTRVAL boss. In a group of students, both promoters have on average the same level of acceptance.

Regarding students, you can see a full supplementary fit – preferences for working with the ‘similar’ have both POINT and INTERVAL students. In one study, regarding employees, preferences of INTERVAL employees do not differentiate between the two types of supervisors, in the other, preferences are much weaker than those regarding POINT persons. It can be said that POINT employees clearly prefer not to work with an INTERVAL supervisor. This is consistent with the hypothesis of greater flexibility of INTERVAL persons. Similar results were obtained in other studies<sup>241</sup> – in the experimental study POINT respondents chose POINT partners, regardless of the nature of the activity (work or play). Whereas INTERVAL workers showed greater flexibility of preference. For work, they chose INTERVAL partners, while for play they chose less INTERVAL ones.

In carrying out task #2, examining the dependence of the expected relational satisfaction on the similarity of an employee to a boss on the dimension of the need for dominance, the hypothesis predicting **complementary fit on the dimension of need for dominance** was tested.

According to Fritz Heider and Timothy Leary, relational harmony occurs when two people have different styles of interacting with each other (one person is dominant and the other is submissive). Therefore, greater job satisfaction can be observed when leaders and employees differ in their preferences for dominance. Similarity in the preference dimension of the need for dominance can lead to power struggles or a reluctance for either party to take control.

To test the **hypothesis H3**. Employees prefer a complementary fit to the boss in terms of need for dominance, data from 2 own studies were analyzed: SSA21v, SSA21vii.

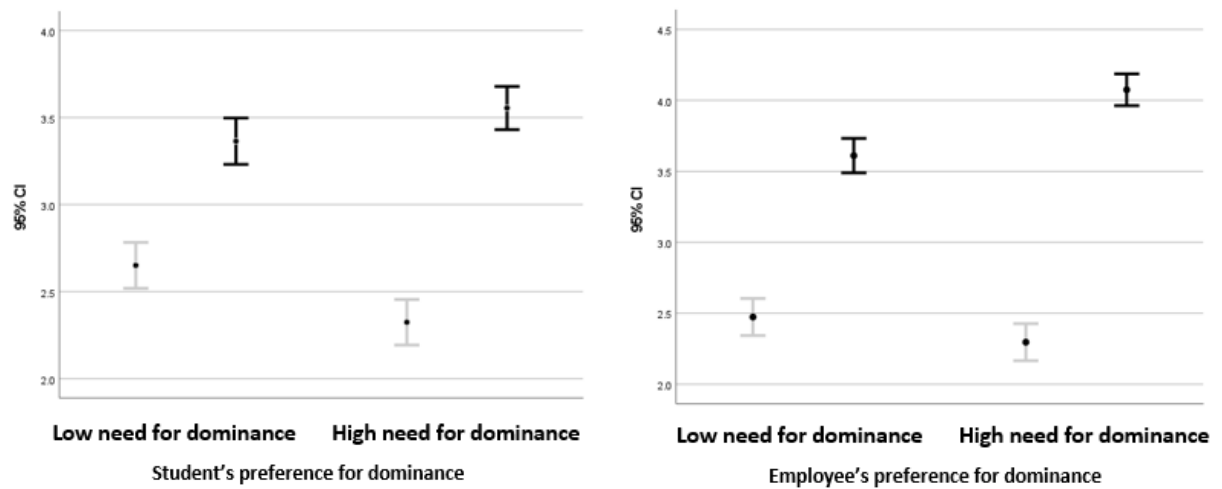
Figure 31 Graphical illustration of hypothesis H3: Supervisor-Employee Working Style (In)congruence Matrix.

	Affiliative (nondominant) supervisor	Dominant supervisor
Nondominant employee	Misfit	Fit
Dominant employee	Fit	Misfit

The hypothesis in both studies was confirmed.

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241 Karczewski, 2019



<div> <div>Work with supervisor (P1)?</div> <div>Dominant</div> <div>Work with supervisor (P2)?</div> <div>Affiliative</div> </div>	<div> <div>Dominant supervisor</div> <div>Affiliative supervisor</div> </div>
Database SSA21v	Study SSA21vii

Figure 32 Graph comparison of need for dominance preferences in study SSA21vii and SSA21v

Other studies<sup>242</sup> has shown that the leader should have a higher level of need for dominance than the employee, because a higher level of preference for the employee's need for dominance than the leader's may cause the leader to be perceived as weak and reduce relationship satisfaction. In my research, both employees and students with high need for dominance 'rejected' the dominant leader. This may be due to their assumption that an affiliative (non-dominant) leader will allow them to satisfy their need for dominance.

In a real-life situation in a specific company, the level of formalization of decision-making process may not give employees the opportunity to really influence the situation around them. A leader, regardless of his or her level of need for dominance, may give orders (as in the military), and then his or her carelessness may be misinterpreted by dominant employees. Studies have shown that dominant employees rate a communicative leader higher than non-dominant employees.

A variable that should necessarily be examined in further research is focus on performance.

With strong performance motivation, the issue of who dominates may recede into the background. A dominant and competent leader may be associated with higher relational satisfaction than a

242 Glomb & Welsh, 2005

dominant and incompetent leader, but such a relationship cannot be detected by conducting a two-dimensional study in a *ceteris paribus* paradigm.

The results obtained in the quantitative research confirm the statements of the Generation Z respondents. Some of them talked about the need to have a supervisor who would dominate, exercise control, and set the direction and pace of work. Others wrote that in their case, ‘excessive control’ from a supervisor would negatively affect their well-being at work and would have a negative impact on their evaluation of their relationship with their supervisor.

It can be concluded that statements of the first group came from people with low intensity of the need for dominance, and statements of the second group come from people with high need to dominate. In both studies, both employees and students preferred to work with a nondominant boss, but the difference in preference was significantly greater in the dominant employee/ student group than in non-dominant group. This may imply that a strong need for dominance is an important dimension in evaluating others. Their stronger rejection of dominant leaders is a signal of a potential need for power.

#### **4.1.2 Person-Supervisor fit in terms of demographic characteristics**

**Task #3** To examine, in an experimental study, employees' preferences regarding the gender and age of the boss and the relationship between the gender and age of the boss with job satisfaction.

Two main hypotheses were tested: #H4a: **Gender of a boss matters**. Employees prefer to work with the same-gender boss (supplementary fit) and #H4b: **Age of a boss matters**. Employees prefer people older than them in the position of a boss (complementary fit).

For this purpose, data from 3 own studies were analyzed: SSA20, SSA21i, SSA21v, and EWCS (pre-existing data).

The results of testing 6 detailed hypotheses are summarized in the table below:

	Detailed hypothesis	Research	Status
H4a1	Relational satisfaction depends on the interaction between the employee's gender and the supervisor's gender. Employees feel better working with a same-gender boss (supplementary fit).	EWCS	Unconfirmed
H4a2	The higher the egalitarianism of gender in the country, the higher the satisfaction with the woman acting as the direct superior.	EWCS	Unconfirmed
H4b	Peers who work with a supervisor are more satisfied with their work than those who work with an older supervisor (complementary fit).	SSA20	Unconfirmed
H4b	Respondents will most often choose an elderly person as a leader (complementary fit).	SSA21I	Unconfirmed
H4b	Students will prefer to work with an older rather than a younger supervisor (complementary fit).	SSA21v	Unconfirmed
H4a	Students will prefer to work with a same-gender supervisor (supplementary fit).	SSA21v	Unconfirmed

Due to the homophilia<sup>243</sup> in friendship relationships found in the study, a hypothesis was proposed that contradicts the results of the data survey (the data survey showed an increase in the number of respondents claiming that the gender of the leader does not matter). This trend is the same in both Poland and the US. The slight difference is that among those who preferred a man in this role, in the US it is 50% and in Poland it is 75%. This percentage was confirmed in my research, where we inferred preferences based not on declarations, but on leader choices.

In the SSA21i survey, both women (77.2%) and men (65.5%) were more likely to choose a man as their leader. Due to the entanglement of the stimulated person's gender in the psychological description, the results should be approached with caution, because the potential leader 'Grzegorz' differed from the potential leader 'Justyna' not only in gender, but also in psychological characteristics.

The results of another study (SSA21v) showed that its participants selected individual supervisors with similar frequency, regardless of their gender. This confirms the declarations of the group of

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<sup>243</sup> Dunbar, 2020



respondents participating in the qualitative research that the gender of the boss they work with does not matter to them.

Although the results regarding the lack of a gender role for the boss may mark the end of the problem, the problem of generational differences deserves further research. In the studies conducted, the manipulation of boss age was very brutal. For students, supervisors in their 40s and 60s could be classified as old.

The complementary fit in the SSA20 study was operationalized as ‘a boss older than the employee’ while the management problem may be ‘a boss much younger than an employee’. This topic was described in the book *Generationally Intelligent Organization* by Joanna M. Moczyłowska.

## **Limitations, directions for further research and recommendations for HRM**

### **Consequences of compatibility level between employee and supervisor characteristics: recommendations for Human Resource Management.**

The research presented in the dissertation is limited in its scope – only 4 features were examined, only the employee's optics was analyzed, in the next studies it is worth examining the optics of the superior.

Further limitations of the studies conducted may be due to the data samples and the time needed to conduct them. Only those individuals who consented participated in the study, so they are not representative of the entire employee population, were not drawn and did not constitute a representative sample. According to WiW's methodological paradigm, replication of the same findings on different data sets and with different operationalizations (triangulation of data, methods, operationalizations, methods of analysis) increases the external validity of the research conducted. Of course, we do not know if the conclusions would replicate on inaccessible units<sup>244</sup>, but this is a limitation of ANY study, because people can be drawn, but they cannot be forced to participate in research.

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244 Jerzyński, 2009

The strength of the conducted research is a large number and a wide age range of employees participating in it. Even when students from the Faculty of Management participated in the research. It is worth remembering that in the overwhelming majority they combine study with work. The SSA21vii study involved 1233 employees with at least 3 years of experience (median age 42 years). All data collected were subjected to a meticulous procedure to detect fake respondents<sup>245</sup>.

The limitation of the samples tested is **the level of education** – **all** respondents had **at least secondary education**, which limits the generalization of results to this group of employees. It would be worth replicating the research in a group of respondents with a lower education level, which may be difficult, because it would probably require a return to the classic form of paper - pencil survey/ test. It is comforting that the group of employees who do not use the Internet is shrinking day by day. Without this replication, it cannot be ruled out that the fit at the surface level (age and gender), which turned out to be statistically insignificant in the conducted research, may be an important predictor of relational satisfaction in the group of employees with primary education.

Most of the studies (SSA21vii, SSA21v, SSA21i, SSA20) were conducted while the world was dealing with the COVID-19 pandemic. Companies were adjusting employees' salaries, and the labor market situation and many businesses were tight. The economic crisis contributed to worker layoffs, reduced wages, or minimized weekly work hours. For many, working in a remote or hybrid model intensified, which limited and changed the relationship with the supervisor. Therefore, responses may have been influenced by a change in the nature of work and instability within the company. The extent to which this would have affected the results is unknown, but such an impact cannot be ruled out.

Subsequent research is worth extending to the "TEZ" procedure<sup>246</sup> developed at the Department of Managerial Psychology and Sociology at the Faculty of Management, University of Warsaw, which is based on an experimental analysis of case studies of several hours of teamwork. Prior

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245 Kabut, 2021

246 A detailed description of the procedure was described in the doctoral dissertations of Kamila Pietrzak and Wojtek Karczewski.

measurement using SSA allows us to diagnose characteristics (e.g., work style; need for dominance) with which to determine the composition of task teams or appoint a formal leader. I was one of 4 experimenters conducting study in 2018, and I analyzed several hours of video recordings of 12 teams working according to a pre-designed scenario, so I could ‘see for myself’ the accuracy of SSA's measurement to predict who would be willing to assume a leadership role in a group. The TEZ procedure would allow me to experimentally examine the consequences of the relationships established in my dissertation (preferences for matching complementary work style and complementary need for dominance) on work performance. During a pandemic, such research could not be conducted because of social distance rules.

Building authentic relationships between leaders and employees is a key factor influencing employee engagement and motivation. 3 studies confirmed a positive correlation between satisfaction with supervisor and job satisfaction, emotional balance, and self-rated health, which have a positive impact on perceived job satisfaction. These results are consistent with the literature data.

It can be inferred from the study that POINT employees would feel bad working with an INTERVAL boss, but it cannot be concluded about the preference of a POINT boss. The boss is expected to be more flexible and should adapt her/his behavior, such as the detail of instructions, to the characteristics and needs of the employee. Research presenting the metamorphic effects of power<sup>247</sup> shows that the opposite is true. Superiors process information in a more superficial, automatic, and more abstract way (use of heuristics, stereotyping) than subordinates who are characterized by analytical, careful processing of information at a lower level of abstraction (search for individualized information, less risk of using stereotypes).

Recommendations for HRM do not concern recruiting employees to fit the boss's preferences, but concern modifying working conditions in such a way that they take into account employee and boss characteristics. This means that both employees and their bosses need to know their preferred work style and be aware of how their need to dominate affects their interpersonal behavior and judgment of others. Knowing the differences allows one to be aware of the dangers in the

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247 See . Wiczorkowska, Kuźmińska 2010, Keltner, Gruenfeld & Anderson, 2003, Pietrzak, 2020

employee-supervisor relationship. Awareness of the dangers is a prerequisite for effectively counteracting conflicts that may arise from this trait.

It is also worth remembering that SSA measures PREFERENCES to a specific working style, and yet people have a great ability to modify their way of organizing activities under the influence of strong environmental stimuli (e.g. high salary) and may undertake work completely incoherent with their preferences. Moreover, the 'INTERVAL' boss, knowing that she/he is dealing with a POINT worker, can and should pay attention to a more precise formulation of tasks.

The conclusion about the positive consequences of complementarity on the need for dominance seems to be most grounded in managerial experience - because it avoids the need for power - as also shown in experimental studies in which activating the sense of power in all team members led to worse performance than activating the sense of power in only one of 3 employees<sup>248</sup>.

The conclusion about the positive consequences of complementary working styles requires deeper reflection. Managers are equally likely to exhibit INTERVAL and POINT working styles - there are no differences between groups of employees and supervisors in their penchant for precision, methodicality - but managers are actually more 'simultaneous' than employees, which is enforced by the nature of their works<sup>249</sup>.

In a team, diversity of working style is expected - we do not want to advocate that only employees who are similar to their bosses in this respect should be hired, as both POINT and INTERVAL work strategies have their strengths and weaknesses. Teams made up solely of 'POINT' or solely of 'INTERVAL' people will lose out in competition with mixed teams<sup>250</sup>.

Analyses of both quantitative and qualitative data have shown that for employees, the gender of the leader ceases to matter - it is the characteristics and qualifications of the leader that are important. Leader ceases to matter - it is the characteristics and qualifications of the leader that are important. Therefore, care must be taken to ensure that gender stereotypes are not triggered when making promotion decisions. This is not easy because, as various studies have shown, gender recognition is an automatic process and may involve the activation of gender stereotypes that may still operate at a subconscious level. The best example is the recruitment of musicians for a

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248 Galinsky, 2015

249 Wierzchowska -Wierzbńska, 2022

250 Wierzchowska -Wierzbńska, 2022

symphony orchestra, where only by concealing the gender of the candidate, the committee was able to exclude stereotypes and increase (from 5% to 25%) the number of female musicians selected<sup>251</sup>. Also, training that appeals to the analytical system was not effective.

Men and women may differ on many dimensions, but within-group differences are often much larger than between-group differences (both men and women are highly differentiated within their gender groups). The influence of the work environment also reduces gender differences. Organizations, especially large companies, have created punishment and reward systems that influence employee behavior. By rewarding competition, it is not surprising that they are unwilling to share knowledge. Although women may prefer less competitive behavior, they adapt to their environment by choosing a pattern of behavior that is rewarded. Men follow a similar pattern.

In summary, **the cognitive contribution** of the dissertation is supported by a focused review of the literature analysis of the importance of fit at the level of deep features: complementary fit due to need for dominance and supplementary fit due to INTERVAL working style.

Two studies testing the effect of similarity on the **dimension of need for dominance** found that although employees prefer an affiliative (non-dominant) boss, a dominant boss is more readily accepted by non-dominant employees than by dominant employees. In this case, it can be said that the lack of similarity is a complementary fit.

In the **case of working style**, similarity was shown to be preferred, so one can speak of supplementary fit. Both correlational and experimental studies failed to show a significant effect of similarity at the level of surface characteristics - such as gender and age.

**The methodological contribution** is the description and testing on a sample of almost 1,500 employees of a way to study the fit to the superior in an indirect way, by using descriptions of 'model' bosses.

**The practical contribution** is recommendations for Human Resource Management practice in team building in the area of employee-supervisor fit.

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251 Goldin, Rouse, 1997

# Appendix

## Appendix 1: Operationalization of variables

*Operationalization DN #2: SSA21vii, 617 employees, with at least 3 years of work experience*

**The indicator of employees' Need for Dominance** was constructed from the factor result of the following selected responses to the questions:

**Psychological reactance** – an unwillingness to take a subordinate position.

- Person A does not like it very much when someone imposes his opinion on him. Such a situation does not arouse strong emotions in person B.
- Person A likes it when someone takes care of him in making decisions. Person B is irritated when someone interferes with what she is doing.

**Passion for domination**

- Person A does not like to supervise the work of others. Person B feels like a 'like a kid in a candy store' being able to manage others.
- When performing teamwork, person A does not mind when someone else decides how to carry out the team's tasks. Person B feels best in a leadership role.
- Working in a team, person A willingly manages the division of labor. Person B prefers someone else to be responsible for the workflow instead of him.
- If there were no difference in earnings and prestige, then person A prefers to be the boss supervising the work of others. Person B chooses the role of a substantive expert.

*Operationalization DN #2: SSA21v, 384 students chosen a supervisors*

**The Need for Dominance indicator** was constructed from the factor results of selecting the following responses to the questions:

**Avoids leadership**

- In group classes, A is very reluctant to speak up if she is not asked anything. B usually talks a lot, often directs the course of the conversation.
- A willingly manages the division of labor. Working in a team, B prefers someone else to be responsible for the workflow instead.

- When doing teamwork, A does not interfere when someone else decides how to carry out the team's tasks. B feels best in a leadership role.
- A feel like a 'like a kid in a candy store' being able to manage others. B does not like to supervise the work of others.
- If there was no difference in earnings and prestige, A prefers to be the boss supervising the work of others. B chooses the role of a substantive expert.

### **Low reactance**

- A believes that everyone should decide for themselves. B believes that there is nothing wrong with imposing their opinions on others, especially when they themselves cannot make decisions quickly.
- A does not like it very much when someone imposes his opinion on her. Such a situation does not arouse strong emotions in B.
- A likes it when someone takes care of them in making decisions. Person B is irritated when someone interferes with what she is doing.

### ***Operationalization WS #1: SSA, dataset B [SSA21vii]***

**The degree of intervality** in employee working style was constructed from the factor result of selecting the following responses to the questions:

### **Precision**

- Person A carefully fondle all the details. For person B, the details are irrelevant.
- Person A likes such problems, at which you need to pay attention to details. Person B cares more about the overall outcome than the details of the task they must perform.
- The knowledge of person A is not very precise – he knows a lot, but not very accurately. The knowledge of person B is very accurate – if he knows something, it is in detail.

### **Methodological**

- Person A starts a task even when he does not yet know exactly how he will perform it, hoping that ideas will appear in the process. Person B starts the task only when he has carefully thought out how to perform it.

- Person A prepares all the necessary things for work (clothes, documents, etc.) in advance. Person B looks for them at the moment when he needs them, without prior preparation.
- Prolonged being in the company of other people exhausts person A. Person B usually gives strength.

### **Sequentiality**

- Person A believes that his effectiveness increases when he breaks away from work from time to time to perform other activities. Person B believes that complex tasks are performed more effectively, working on them systematically and not being distracted by other activities.
- When there are several tasks to be performed, person A, if possible, prefers to perform them alternately. Person B prefers to perform them one by one.
- When you start performing a task, person A tries to work until he finishes it. Person B often breaks away to get a 'fresh look' at the task.

### ***Operationalization WS #1: SSA, dataset E [SSA20]***

**The degree of intervality** in employee working style was constructed from the factor result of selecting the following responses to the questions:

### **Methodological**

- Person A often starts various tasks thinking that SHE/HE WILL SOMEHOW do it. Person B feels unwell when they don't know HOW they're going to do it.
- Person A starts work without analyzing how much there is to do and how much time it will take. Person B first thinks about what needs to be done, divides the task into parts, plans it in time.
- Person A proceeds to perform the task only after she/he has carefully thought out how to perform it. Person B starts a task even when he does not yet know exactly how she/he will perform it and hopes that the ideas will come in the process.
- Emotions – according to person A – play a key role in making important decisions. According to person B, emotions are too fuzzy clues to help with decision-making.



- According to person A, it is important not to use algorithmic rules in making decisions, but to leave yourself full freedom. Person B believes that decision-making should be a methodical (structured and sequential) process.

### **Simultaneous**

- Person A gets upset when he must think about several different things in parallel. Person B tries to have several things started at the same time to 'switch' from one to the other.
- Person A does not like to have several tasks started. Person B often interrupts work, taking care of another task during breaks.
- When different tasks compete in importance, person A somehow tries to carry them out in parallel. Person B likes to focus on only one task at a time.
- Person A often interrupts important work when something interesting, although not related to what he is doing, appears. Person B usually finishes what he started first.

### **Routinization**

- Person A likes to have a job that requires strict application of the received guidelines as to how to carry out tasks. Person B likes to be free to choose how to perform tasks.
- Person A prefers tasks that he can perform differently each time. Person B prefers to perform tasks according to a clearly defined procedure.
- Person A is tired of chaos, excess of information. Person B is more tired of monotony.

### ***Operationalization WS #1: SSA, dataset C [SSA21v]***

**The degree of intervality** of a student's working style was constructed from the factor result of the following responses to the questions:

### **Methodological**

- A all the things necessary for work (clothes, documents, etc.) he prepares in advance. B looks for them at the moment when he needs them, without prior preparation.
- A he often starts various tasks thinking that SOMEHOW, she/he will do it. B feels bad when he does not know HOW to perform the task being started.
- In carrying out the task, A first collects the information, materials and tools needed to carry it out. B is looking for information, materials, tools during the task.

- A he starts the task even when she/he does not yet know exactly how he will perform it, hoping that ideas will appear in the course of work. B starts the task only when she/he has thought carefully about how to do it.

### **Precision**

- A is carefully fondles of all the details. For B, the details are irrelevant.
- A likes such problems, at which you need to pay attention to details. B is more interested in the overall outcome than in the details of the task it is to perform.
- Knowledge A is very accurate – if she/he knows something, it is with details. B's knowledge is not very precise – she/he knows a lot, but not very accurately.
- A often is looking for cards, electronic notes with important information. B knows exactly where she wrote down.















### **Sequentiality**

- When there are several tasks to be performed, A, if possible, prefers to perform them alternately. B prefers to perform them one by one.
- The need to suddenly change person A's plans throws person off balance. B very quickly and without special difficulties reorganizes his plan.
- A gets upset when must think about several different things in parallel. B tries to have several things started at the same time to 'switch' from one to the other.

### ***Operationalization AGE #2; SSA21i, 177 People: Experimental manipulation of the leader's gender and age***

To create photos, we used the FaceApp mobile application, which allows you to modify a sample profile photo, Making a person younger or older.

Table 30 Target persons and their description used in research SSA21i

Version A	TARGET person description	Version B
	<b>Grzegorz</b> – looks for practical solutions and strives to implement established plans in a systematic and effective way. Values order and harmony. He is well organized	
	<b>Kasia</b> – emphasizes action, likes to influence decisions, tries not to waste time on discussions. She carefully makes sure that the group achieves its goals even at the expense of its popularity.	
	<b>Piotr</b> – is an individualist, able to come up with new solutions and strategies even in a difficult situation. He tends to avoid the obvious.	
	<b>Marta</b> – easily establishes contacts outside the group, which can be useful for the team. She is inspired by novelties and the latest research results on specific topics. She sees and uses new opportunities.	
	<b>Maciek</b> – enjoys analyzing the situation and considering the possibility of choice. Able to remain calm and the ability to think soberly in difficult situations. He makes decisions based on data and rational premises.	
	<b>Justyna</b> – cares about a positive atmosphere in the team, strengthens cooperation and better communication. She is loyal to the team. She likes work with many different kinds of people.	
	<b>Marek</b> – pays attention to details, his vigilance allows him to prevent mistakes. He easily prioritizes tasks and watches over their implementation as planned.	

Source: own elaboration.

***Operationalization DN #1; Inventory of Likes and Opinions (IUiO)<sup>252</sup>***

<b>Collaboration</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• I like being in a group in which everyone has an influence on what happens</li> <li>• I like being in a group in which everyone has something to say</li> <li>• It is best to solve a problem together with others</li> <li>• I like being in a group in which everyone makes decisions together</li> <li>• I like working in a team</li> </ul>
<b>Dominance</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• I like making decisions for others</li> <li>• I like leading other people</li> <li>• I think I have leadership tendencies</li> <li>• I like to have influence on what others do</li> <li>• I like to wield power</li> </ul>
<b>Proactive Autonomy</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• I like taking care of my own business myself</li> <li>• I like controlling my own fate</li> <li>• I like choosing goals for myself</li> <li>• I like taking care of myself</li> </ul>
<b>Reactive Autonomy</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• I don't like it when someone interferes in my life</li> <li>• I don't like it when someone rules over me</li> <li>• I don't like it when someone makes decisions about my business</li> <li>• I don't like it when someone forces their opinion on me</li> <li>• I don't like it when someone butts into what I'm doing</li> </ul>
<b>Respect for Autonomy</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• I like people who lead their own lives</li> <li>• I like people who are masters of their own fate</li> <li>• It would be good if everyone were responsible for their own decisions</li> <li>• I like people who are autonomous, independent from others</li> <li>• I like it when other people can think for themselves</li> </ul>
<b>Submissiveness</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• I like it when someone directs me in various things</li> <li>• I am readily subordinate to others on a day-to-day basis</li> <li>• I like it when someone makes decisions for me</li> <li>• I like it when someone is responsible for me</li> </ul>

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<sup>252</sup> developed by Grzelak, 2001

***Operationalization RS #1: MTurk, 177 American workers***

**Job Satisfaction Scale (Bajcar, Borkowska, Czerw, & Gąsiorowska, 2011)**

Please, evaluate to what extent you are satisfied with the following aspects related to your work.

1. Colleagues
2. Direct supervisors
3. Type of tasks performed at work
4. Working conditions
5. Professional development
6. Financial rewards
7. Work time

***Operationalization RS #2: SSA20, 169 Employees, with at least 3 years of work experience***

**The Relational Satisfaction** Indicator Dataset E [SSA20 2020] was built from a factor result of answers to the following questions:

- PS4: How well do you work with your boss?
- PS5: Would you recommend your friends to work with your boss?
- PS6: I know what my boss expects from me at work.
- PS7: I have a good line a conversation with my boss.
- PS8: I feel that my boss is interested in my opinion on various topics.
- PS9: I feel appreciated by my boss.
- PS10: I trust that the boss wants to support me.

***Operationalization RS #3: EWCS, 43 850 Respondents***

**Relational satisfaction** was operationalized by answering 6 questions:

- Q63a – Your immediate boss... – Respects you as a person
- Q63b – Your immediate boss... – Gives you praise and recognition when you do a good job
- Q63c – Your immediate boss... – Is successful in getting people to work together
- Q63d – Your immediate boss... – Is helpful in getting the job done
- Q63e – Your immediate boss... – Provides useful feedback on your work
- Q63f – Your immediate boss... – Encourages and supports your development

### ***Operationalization EB #1: MTurk, 177 American workers***

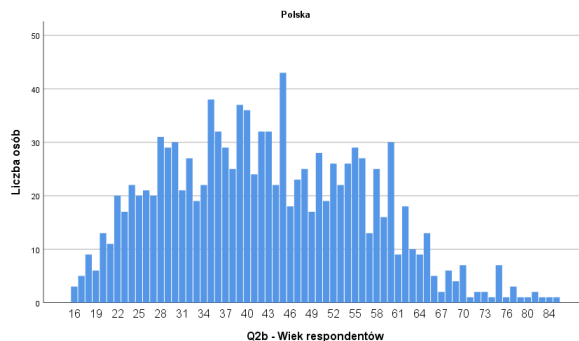
**The emotional balance** was measured by the respondent's response to 29 emotions. Participants had to determine on a 7-point scale from (1-never to 7-always) how they felt at work in the last 30 days.

Below is a list of emotions:

- |                |               |              |               |
|----------------|---------------|--------------|---------------|
| • Calm         | • Furious     | • Satisfied  | • Annoyed     |
| • Elated       | • Relaxed     | • Pleased    | • Inspired    |
| • Cheerful     | • Miserable   | • Content    | • At ease     |
| • Gloomy       | • Frightened  | • Excited    | • Angry       |
| • Proud        | • Intimidated | • Ecstatic   | • Energetic   |
| • Enthusiastic | • Confused    | • Frustrated | • Depressed   |
| • Anxious      | • Happy       | • Bored      | • Discouraged |
| • Disguised    |               |              |               |

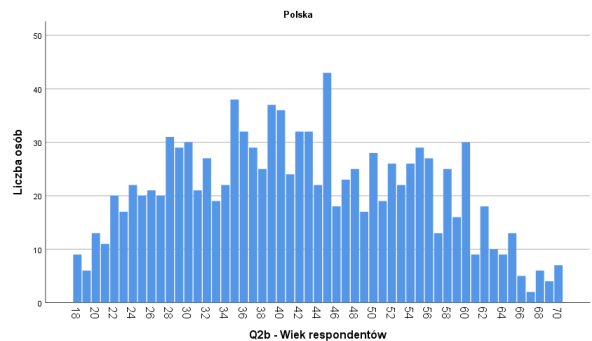
## **Appendix 2: Research EWCS**

Age distribution of people before data cleaning



N=1203 people

Age distribution of people after data cleaning



N=1115 People

Country codes: Poland 21, Sweden 27, Turkey 32

Q2a – What is your gender. (values: 1 male, 2 female, 9 DK <- missing)

Q2b – Starting with yourself, how old are you? (888 DK, 999 refusal < – missing)

Q62 – Is your immediate supervisor a man or a woman? (1 man, 2 woman, 7 Not Applicable, 8 DK, 9 Refusal; 7,8,9 missing)

## **Appendix 3: Research SSA20**

### Data selection procedure

In the study, in which a total of 215 employees (43.7% of men) with at least 3 years of professional experience took part. Aged 20-77,  $M=36.73$ ,  $SD=13.1$

The data were selected based on the following ‘alarm signals’:

1. Based on the internal testing of the questionnaire, we determined that the minimum time to solve the test must exceed 1200 seconds. Those below this time are doubtful that they have read the paper with understanding.
2. We included questions about motivation to solve and complete the survey: ‘To what extent do you assess your degree of commitment to this task?’; ‘To what extent was this task tiring for you?’; ‘If you were to participate in the study again (e.g. tomorrow), would your answers be:’. People with low motivation to answer questions raised doubts about the reliability of the data they were providing.
3. We checked the participants' response style by counting how many times out of 80 questions the participant answered, ‘Same like A’, ‘Same like B’, ‘It's hard to say’. In this way, we checked whether there was diversity in answering questions, which in the case of repeating questions with inverted logic will be the natural behavior of the respondent.

In the next step, arithmetic errors were checked in 9 questions for which the participant had to mark the correct answer, in this way, we received 4 alarm signals.

Additionally, I narrowed the analysis to respondents who had at least 3 years of work experience and described their boss on the following dimensions:

- PS4: How well do you work with your boss?
- PS5: Would you recommend your friends to work with your boss?
- PS6: I know what my boss expects from me at work.
- PS7: I have a good line a conversation with my boss.
- PS8: I feel that my boss is interested in my opinion on various topics.
- PS9: I feel appreciated by my boss.
- PS10: I trust that the boss wants to support me.

For further analysis, we used data that met the condition of a maximum of 1 alarm signal, a total of 169 people (42% of men, 97% with at least secondary education, aged 20 to 71 years with  $M=36.2$ ;  $SD=12.9$ ).

In the X2 analysis on surface fit (age), only respondents were left who could determine to which generation they and their superior belonged. In the end, a group of 161 respondents remained in this section.

#### **Appendix 4: Research SSA21i**

A total of 192 people took part in the study (30.6% men, age 19-48,  $M=22$ ;  $SD=3.96$ ;  $Me=21$ )

The data were selected based on the following steps:

1. All individuals with missing responses were discarded. Missing 1 response disqualified the individual from further analysis. (14 people)
2. People who were suspected of being testers of the application were rejected. (1 person)
3. Rejected people who answered the four checking (screening) questions (performing simple mathematical calculations) incorrectly. (0 persons)

Finally, the subject of the analysis was a group of 177 respondents (34% of men; age 19-39;  $M=22$ ;  $SD=2.93$ ;  $Me=21$ ).

#### **Appendix 5: Research SSA21vii**

Ariadna is a nationwide research panel that collects Poles' opinions on important social and consumer issues. We have narrowed the research sample according to the following criteria:

1. age: 25-64 (in equally distributed 4 experimental groups in the following age ranges: 25-34; 35-44; 45-54; 55-64).
2. education: at least secondary.
3. professional situation: at least 3 years of experience in gainful employment (due to the pandemic, respondents may be currently unemployed, but actively looking for a job).
4. place of residence: representative distribution for the inhabitants of the macro-region of the Mazowieckie voivodship.

A total of 1497 people took part in the study (45% male;  $Age=42.6$ ;  $SD=10.69$ ).



Study was conducted in July of 2021.

The data were selected based on the following steps:

1. the total time for completing the survey is too short, and the time to give the partial response is less than the time required to read the question.
2. errors in test questions (commands, simple arithmetic operations).
3. too many empty answers ('It is hard to say', 'I don't want to answer this question') and low differentiation rating style in blocks of questions with the same answer scale.
4. low level of involvement: (1) low level of declarative cooperation: declarations of non/involvement in questions about the attitude to the study (e.g., how involved you were); (2) inconsistent answers to logically connected questions; (3) odd answers to open-ended questions.

For further analyses, we used data that meeting the condition of a maximum of 1 alarm signal, a total of 1233 employees (42.7% men) with at least secondary education and at least 3 years of work experience from the Mazovia macro-region, age-diverse ( $M=43.25$ ;  $Me=42$ ;  $SD=10.94$ ) and belonging to three generations: 15.8% Baby Boomers, 37.9% Generation X, 46.3% generation Y randomly divided into 2 experimental groups.

Respondents were randomly assigned to 2 experimental groups: A (617 people) and B (616 people) differing in the set of SSA questions and stimulus description (Group A: Dominant and Affiliative Boss vs. Group B: POINT and INTERVAL).

## **Appendix 6: Research SSA21v**

The study was conducted on a total of 449 people (45.9% male; Age=19-55;  $M=21.96$ ;  $SD=2.78$ ).

The data were selected on the basis of the following 'alarm signals':

1. Based on the internal testing of the questionnaire, we determined that the minimum time to solve the test must exceed 1500 seconds. Those below this time are doubtful that they have read the paper with understanding.
2. We included questions about motivation to solve and complete the survey: 'To what extent do you assess your degree of commitment to this task?'; 'To what extent was this task tiring for you?'; 'If you were to participate in the study again (e.g. tomorrow), would your answers

be'. Those with low motivation to answer the questions raised doubts about the reliability of the data they were providing.

3. We tested participants' response style, by counting how many times out of 80 questions the participant answered, 'Same like A', 'Same like B', 'It's hard to say'. In this way, we checked whether there was diversity in answering questions, which would be a natural behavior of the respondent if the questions were repeated with reverse logic.
4. In the next step, arithmetic errors were checked in 9 questions, to which the participant was to mark the correct answer.

In this way, we received 4 alarm signals. For further analysis, we used data that met the condition of a maximum of 1 alarm signal. A total of 384 people (49% of men; aged 19-55 years;  $M=22.09$ ;  $SD=2.95$ ;  $Me=21$  years)

## **Appendix 7: Survey participants' statements**

A total of 582 statements were selected from survey participants (SSA21vii) who were willing to provide an open-ended response to an optional question about their preference for the quality of their relationship with their boss.

### **Objectivity**

- (M, 40 lat) Wiek, płeć — nie mają znaczenia. Lepiej pracuje się z szefem, który ma rzeczowe podejście do tematu
- (K, 50 lat) Płeć nie ma znaczenia, jeśli szef jest szczery i rzeczowy, potrafi określić dokładnie, czego oczekuje i jest wyrozumiały w przypadkach nagłych sytuacji, które niekiedy komplikują sprawy.
- (K, 57 lat) lubiałam pracować z szefem konkretnym i znającym się na rzeczy.
- (K, 47 lat) Konkretny, rzeczowy, ale nie pedantek zadufany w sobie. Najgorszy to taki, który zmienia, co chwilę zdanie i człowiek głupieje

### **Concreteness**

- (K, 40 lat) Wiek i płeć szefa nie ma dla mnie znaczenia. Nie da się pracować z tyranem i osoba skłonna do mobbingu. Chętnie współpracuje z osobami konkretnymi nawet o odmiennych poglądach, ale, z którymi są się spierać na argumenty.

- (M, 64 lata) Płeć nie ma znaczenia. Lubię szefa konkretnego, niezmiennego zdania, wiedzącego, czego chce. Takiego, który potrafi docenić wysiłek włożony w pracę. Wiek nie ma znaczenia.
- (M, 61 lat) Płeć i wiek szefa nie są najważniejsze. Ważne by umiał docenić i szanować każdego pracownika! Dobrze, gdy Szef zaczyna zawsze spotkania punktualnie. Zebrania są rzeczowe, merytorycznie zaplanowane. Uważnie dobiera słowa, dba o precyzję, jasny komunikat oraz metodyczność postępowania i uporządkowane podejście, które przynosi systematycznie wymierne efekty biznesowe jednocześnie patrzącego na szerszy kontekst – podchodzącego do problemu całościowo, pozostawiającego nieco wolności – przestrzeni na kreatywność pracownika by zapewnić firmie przewagę na rynku a pracownikom ciągłą stymulację.
- (K, 48 lat) Lubię pracować z konkretnym szefem, wymagającym, ale sprawiedliwym

### Understanding

- (K, 40 lat) Wiek i płeć nie mają znaczenia. Dobry szef powinien być empatyczny i wyrozumiały, ale też jasno określać, czego oczekuje i jakie są zasady.
- (K, 41 lat) Lubię pracować z szefem konkretnym, ale dającym swobodę pracownikom. Wyrozumiałym i dającym się wykazać. Nie lubię pytać zawsze sama szukam rozwiązania, które podrzucam szefowi.

At the same time, respondent's experience **indicates that gender differences may be significant.**

- (M, 30 lat) Preferuję, aby mój szef był po pierwsze ekspertem, po drugie osobą kulturalną i empatyczną oraz sprawiedliwą. Płeć nie ma dużego znaczenia, ale z doświadczeń wynika, że **mężczyzna bywa lepszym szefem.**
- (K, 48 lat) dla mnie płeć szefa ma znaczenie, bo łatwiej i efektywniej pracuje się z szefem mężczyzną po 50tce. Kobieta szef sama nie wie, czego chce od wykonania zadań i wydaje polecenie na pięć minut przed końcem lub tuż przed swoim wyjściem z biura. [...]
- (K, 31 lat) ze względu na fakt, że pracuję, jako księgowa i kadrowa w jednym, to wolę rzeczowe podejście do tematu. Tutaj nie ma miejsca na zastanawianie się, bo zasady są jasne. Z własnego doświadczenia wiem, że bardziej rzeczowi są jednak mężczyźni.
- (K, 44 lat) Tak, **facet jest bardziej konkretny** a kobieta często zazdrosna i przez to relacje są częściej niezdrowe wiek nie zawsze ma znaczenie.

- (K, 77 lat) Bardzo dobra praca **z konkretnym szefem, po 40**, wie co chce, jasno przekazuje obowiązki. Koszmarna praca z rozhisteryzowaną starą panną po 50, sama nie wie, co chce, często zmienia harmonogram i obowiązki.
- (M, 42 lat) dobry szef musi znać swoją firmę, utożsamiać się z nią; musi mieć własne zdanie, musi wiedzieć co chce osiągnąć. Rozumie ludzi i umie identyfikować i rozwiązywać problemy. **Ogólnie płeć nie ma znaczenia, ale cechy lepszego szefa przejawiają raczej mężczyźni. Wiek generalnie nie ma znaczenia**, ale dobrze by szef był sprawny fizycznie i psychicznie, miał doświadczenie i odpowiednią wiedzę, więc wiek na dobrego szefa powinien być w granicach 40-60 lat. **Ogólnie powinien być starszy niż podwładni**. Byłaby to zdrowa relacja. Szef powinien być konkretny i szanowany, swoją postawą powinien być postrzegany jako wzór.  
(M, 40) Oczywiście według mnie **płeć ma znaczenie**, niestety w moim przypadku kobieta jako szef czasem nie wytrzymywała presji, i była nieprzewidywalna

Statements by those who prefer men as bosses include arguments that men are more matter-of-fact in performing the duties of a boss, while women exhibit more emotionality and unpredictability:

- (K, 39) Płeć szefa jak najbardziej ma znaczenie. Wolę szefa mężczyznę, ponieważ skupiają się na merytoryce i zadaniach, kobiety częściej kierują się emocjami i animozjami.
- (M, 39 lat) Najlepszy szef to osoba merytoryczna i doświadczona. Najlepiej jak wywodzi się z instytucji i zna pracę od podstaw. Nie powinna być ‘urodzonym kierownikiem’, który tylko wydaje polecenia, nawet, jeśli nie mają sensu. Niestety, ale mężczyźni to lepsi szefowie od kobiet, ponieważ są bardziej profesjonalni i nie ulegają emocjom. Wiek raczej bez znaczenia.
- (K, 51 lat) jako kobieta wolę pracować z szefami mężczyznami, po prostu, kobieta szef może czuć zazdrość wobec innych kobiet, gdzieś to odbija się później w sprawach zawodowych; generalnie wolę szefów w swoim mniej więcej wieku, aczkolwiek starsi też ok, młodszy zwykle chcą pokazać na co ich stać i nie do końca to dobrze wychodzi, a na pewno nie jest dobrze odbierane
- (M 33 lata) Najlepszy szef według mnie to **mężczyzna doświadczony zawodowo i sporo starszy od swoich pracowników, żeby się go słuchali**, musi być mądry, inteligentny,

kreatywny, odpowiedzialny, rzetelny, uczciwy i godny zaufania, a także empatyczny w stosunku do swoich pracowników.

- (K, 48 lat) Jako kobieta wolę kiedy szefem jest mężczyzna. Nie znoszę sytuacji, kiedy szef jest osobą, która wie mniej niż ja, nie ma doświadczenia w branży – czyli jest wsadzona na stołek po znajomości.... Wtedy jest dramat.
- (K, 60) wolałam szefa mężczyznę, nie miał ‘humorów’, był konkretny, rzeczowy. Z kobietami różnie bywało... Ale nie miałam złych szefowych ani szefów.

Female respondents prefer to work with male bosses, because relations with them are simpler - it is easier to communicate with them.

- (K, 60) Jako kobieta wolałam szefa mężczyznę, za konkretność, szczerość, żartobliwość. Czułam większą pewność siebie.
- (K, 40 lat) ‘Jako kobieta zdecydowanie wolę szefów mężczyzn. Wiek jest nieistotny. Szefowe kobiety zawsze były niesprawiedliwe i wredne.
- (K, 55 lat) Płeć szefa, z którym łatwiej pracować to mężczyzna. Mniej intryg. Wiek nie ma znaczenia, ale lepiej starszy.
- (K, 28 lat) Ja lubię pracować z mężczyznami, ponieważ są oni bardziej otwarci i mają lżejsze podejście.
- (K, 64 lata) Mam duże doświadczenie, jeśli chodzi o szefów, ponieważ przepracowałam 42 lata i uważam, że mężczyźni są lepszymi szefami i łatwiej jest się z nimi porozumieć natomiast kobiety zawsze chcą pokazać swoją wyższość a najgorsi szefowie to młode kobiety.
- (K, 44) Tak, facet jest bardziej konkretny a kobieta często zazdrosna i przez to relacje są częściej niezdrowe wiek nie zawsze ma znaczenie
- (M, 40) Z mojego doświadczenia wynika, że wiek nie ma najmniejszego znaczenia. Ważny jest bagaż jej/ jego doświadczeń. Z przykrością muszę stwierdzić, że najlepiej dogaduję się z szefami facetami. Moje doświadczenie pokazuje, że kobiety-szefowie są bardzo drobiazgowi, prowadzą tzw. Mikromanagement.

In the statements of those who prefer women as bosses, there are indications/signals that women in the role of boss are distinguished by the way they communicate and by their fresh perspective and different approach to tasks.

- (M, 42 lata) Szef powinien jasno nakreślić kierunki działania. Nagradzać pracowników za ponadobowiązkowe inicjatywy. **Jako mężczyzna lubię, kiedy moja przełożona jest kobietą.** Wiek nie ma znaczenia, jednakże nie może być w podeszłym wieku, gdyż wówczas zaczyna się demencja.
- (K, 21 lat) Tak płeć ma znaczenie, zależy czy to mężczyzna czy kobieta. Oczywiście mi **lepiej pracuje się z kobietą**, ale dlatego że ma inne sposoby i spojrzenie na niektóre zadania. Myślę że wiek też ma znaczenie, gdyż **z młodszym szefem dogadasz się szybciej** może cię poprze. A starsi nie zawsze wolą zostać przy swoich racjach i nie zawsze to u nich zmienisz.
- (K, 31 lat) **lubiłam młodą i entuzjastyczną szefową**, która świetnie komunikowała się z pracownikami, przekazywała na bieżąco informacje, kiedy miała coś załatwić, zawsze wracała z informacjami zwrotnymi. Była konkretna, otwarta i dość szczerą.
- (M, bd) Preferuję **pracę z kobietą szefem** i w wieku 30-55 lat. Szef powinien mieć czas na spotkania z pracownikami i na indywidualną rozmowę przynajmniej raz na pół-roku. Wynagradzać pracowników stosownie, do jakości i ilości wykonywanej pracy, dzięki temu pracownik będzie miał motywację do wykazania się.
- (K, 31 lat) **Kobieta**, bardzo wyrozumiała, pomocna.
- (K, 38 lat) Dwóch moich najlepszych szefów to były **kobiety, niewiele ode mnie starsze.** Przede wszystkim miały rewelacyjną wiedzę merytoryczną i umiejętności miękkie pozwalające elastycznie zarządzać zespołem tak, że chciało się, by praca była dobrze wykonana (w ich przypadku te umiejętności były wrodzone). Ale miałam też naprawdę dobrego szefa mężczyznę, który z osobowości był trochę kanciasty, ale też dobrze się współpracowało.

Selected statements of MBA students who were willing to provide an open answer to the question regarding the type of fit (complementary vs. supplementary).

MBA students in most cases were consistent with the words of St. Augustine: 'In necessariis unitas, in dubiis libertas, in omnibus caritas' (*In the most important matters – unity, in doubtful matters – freedom, in everything – love.*):

- (MBA, mężczyzna) "Ciężko znaleźć nic porozumienia, a nawet chęć współpracy, kiedy różnimy się na poziomie wartości, którymi kierujemy się w życiu."
- (MBA, mężczyzna) 'Podobieństwo w systemie wartości ma znaczenie, tak, aby wspólnie iść do przodu, mając wspólne cele i istotne rzeczy, które nas łączy'

- (MBA, mężczyzna) ‘Podobieństwo w sprawach ważnych – np.: podejście do ryzyka, pracowitość, ambicja w przypadku pracy: Światopogląd, priorytety w życiu.’
- (MBA, kobieta) ‘Bardzo ważne jest podobieństwo i postępowanie wg podobnych wartości. Jeśli postępujemy wg wartości takich jak odpowiedzialność, pracowitość, zaangażowanie, to poszukujemy, rekrutujemy osoby, które wyznają podobne wartości, postępują wg podobnych wartości. Inaczej trudno byłoby się porozumieć w jednym zespole.’
- (MBA, mężczyzna) ‘Jest wiele cech pracownika, które obiektywnie są pozytywne, jak przykładowo pracowitość, ambicja, odpowiedzialność, podejście do pracy. Rekrutując, poszukując pracowników, poszukujemy osób podobnych do siebie w tych kwestiach fundamentalnych.’
- (MBA, Kobieta) ‘Decyduję się zawsze na pracę z ludźmi, którzy podzielają moje wartości fundamentalne dotyczące podejścia do pracy, w zakresie pracowitości (nie znoszę bicia piany), oddania większej sprawie (np. myślenia o zakresie kształtowania np. polityki nadzorczej w sektorze ubezpieczeń – czy tylko odznaczać box-y, czy wgłębiać się w pracę), uczciwości działania i odwagi cywilnej. Pracuję z moimi wybranymi dyrektorami i kierownikami od ponad 22 lat, z prawie 3 letnią przerwą. Dzięki podzieleniu m.in. wspólnych wartości udało się po moim ponownym przyjściu do organizacji stworzyć sprawnie działający zespół ok. 200 osób (3 komplementarne departamenty). Wcześniej skłóconych, niewspółpracujących, pilnujący granic swoich zadań wpisanych w regulaminie.’
- (MBA, Kobieta) ‘Podobieństwo w rzeczach fundamentalnych jest istotne. Umożliwia szybsze wejście w relację i pozwala czuć się w niej bezpiecznie i swobodnie. Różnice na poziomie wartości powodują często negatywne nastawienie i brak chęci współpracy. Współpraca czy związek z osobą różną w zakresie najważniejszych wartości pewnie są możliwe, wymagają jednak dużej mądrości, cierpliwości, chęci zrozumienia i miłości.’
- (MBA, mężczyzna) ‘Podobieństwo w kwestii podejścia do pracy, celów, zasad.’
- (MBA, mężczyzna) ‘Dwóch leniwych pracowników lepiej się dogadają niż leniwy i pracowity.’
- (MBA, mężczyzna) ‘Zespół monolityczny przy różnicach wartości rodzi wiele konfliktów.’

MBA students pointed out that similarity among employees can also be important in low-level positions where decision-making is lacking.

- (MBA, Kobieta) ‘Na stanowiskach niższego szczebla, gdzie nie ma decyzji kluczowych do funkcjonowania firmy lepiej jak zespoły są podobne, żeby zgodnie podążały w jednym wyznaczonym im kierunku i uzupełniały się ze zrozumieniem w swoich działaniach.’

Attempts to explain the role of similarity were made by one person who drew attention to the ease of communication of similar people.

- (MBA, mężczyzna) Praca z zespołem ludzi podobnych sobie powoduje, że przepływ informacji jest dużo łatwiejszy – niezależnie, czy informacje przekazywane są w sposób ‘kwiecisty’ czy krótki i zwięzły. To jest jak mówienie w jednym języku. Zdecydowanie pomaga to w podejmowaniu szybkich i skutecznych decyzji w sprawach ważnych i wymagających odpowiedniego tempa pracy. [...] dużo łatwiej dogadać się z osobami podobnymi, bo łatwiej w nich odnaleźć siebie i generalnie w moim odczuciu łatwiej wtedy osiągnąć consensus. Chociaż nie jest to recepta uniwersalna na każdą sytuację.

In addition, it is worth noting that the perception of similarity varies with age and experience. In the early stages of our careers, we look for people who are similar to ourselves, then our perspective changes and we look for people who enrich us, such as a different perspective.

- (MBA, mężczyzna) ‘zmiana z wiekiem – na początku drogi zawodowej chcieliśmy pracować z osobami podobnymi do siebie, ale z czasem stawiamy zdecydowanie na różnorodność.’
- (MBA, Kobieta) W małżeństwie raczej podobieństwo, ale widzę, że z wiekiem się zmieniamy. To, co kiedyś było bardzo podobne przy głębszym poznaniu i z wiekiem okazuje się jednak trochę różnorodne. Co może wynikać ze zmiany w nas samych jak i zmianach w małżonku. Istnieją też obserwacje, w których ludzie spędzając ze sobą dużą część życia upodabniają się do siebie.
- (MBA, mężczyzna) Jednak na początku swojej kariery szukałem osób podobnych do siebie. Na szczęście to się zmieniło – zacząłem doceniać jak wiele mogę się nauczyć o innych i od innych. I to nie tylko w sprawach zawodowych, ale również światopoglądowych itp.

The inverse relationship of the occurrence of similarities at the beginning of acquaintance perceived by respondents in their private lives.



An inverse relationship of the occurrence of similarities at the beginning of acquaintance is perceived by respondents in their private lives.

- (MBA, Kobieta) W związku partnerskim, przyciągają się przeciwieństwa i najlepiej uzupełniają, można jednak zaobserwować z biegiem czasu (latami wspólnie przeżyтыми), że osoby mimowolnie się do siebie upodabniają.
- (MBA, Kobieta) W małżeństwie raczej podobieństwo, ale widzę, że z wiekiem się zmieniamy. To co kiedyś było bardzo podobne przy głębszym poznaniu i z wiekiem okazuje się jednak trochę różnorodne. Co może wynikać ze zmiany w nas samych jak i zmianach w małżonku. Istnieją też obserwacje, w których ludzie spędzając ze sobą dużą część życia upodabniają się do siebie.
- (MBA, mężczyzna) W życiu prywatnym najczęściej dążymy do znalezienia osoby o podobnych cechach charakteru i preferencjach, czasem nieświadomie. Ewentualne różnice zwykle zanikają z czasem – ludzie przejmują swoje zwyczaje i się do siebie upodabniają.
- The statements of MBA students most often concerned diversity in the workplace, emphasizing a number of advantages of this approach – complementing teams, developing, making more accurate decisions.
- (MBA, Mężczyzna) ‘różnorodność kulturowa jest pożądana, aby zachować różnorodność cech osobowości. Takie różnice potrafią budować i wzbogacać pozostałych członków zespołu.
- (MBA, Mężczyzna) ‘Różnorodność w pracy się sprawdza, szczególnie, jeśli chodzi o kompetencje. [...] Różnorodność niewątpliwie umożliwia patrzenie z różnej perspektywy, podejście do wyzwań z innej strony, której podobieństwo może nie wychwycić- zauważenie różnych rozwiązań.’
- (MBA, Mężczyzna) Wprowadzenie pewnego zróżnicowania pozwala na pokrycie pewnych braków w postrzeganiu – na zasadzie podobnej do enneagramu. Osoba, która komunikuje się w inny sposób lub ma inne spojrzenie pozwala na uniknięcie ślepego instynktu stada i pułapek związanych ze ślepotą zbieżnego myślenia.
- (MBA, Mężczyzna) Dzięki zróżnicowaniu ludzi z zespole osoby z grupy mogą się od siebie: uczyć, zbierać poszerzać doświadczenie, razem budować wspólny cel poprzez różne spojrzenie na zadanie (problem), spędzać wspólny czas po pracy dzięki czemu czas spędzony z osobami różnymi od nas poszerza nasze horyzonty oraz buduje kolejne doświadczenie.

- (MBA, Mężczyzna) W życiu zawodowym budowanie efektywnych zespołów polega na łączeniu ludzi posiadających różne kompetencje, doświadczenia oraz przypisywaniu im funkcji zgodnych z posiadanymi umiejętnościami oraz dopasowanych do cech charakteru. Badaniu cech charakteru służą różne testy osobowości, np. DISC.
- (MBA, kobieta) W pracy staram się wybierać różnorodność wśród managerów, ponieważ swój punkt widzenia już znam, a osoby odmienne niż ja wnoszą nowe świeże spojrzenie. Staram się też wybierać ludzi w różnym wieku, bo to też gwarantuje różnorodność.

One MBA student pointed out that despite the many advantages of diversity, it can also come with more effort in coordinating all the dependencies. (MBA, mężczyzna) Różnorodność jest dobra ale wymaga wyjścia z tzw. Comfort Zone i kosztuje więcej energii i więcej myślenia. Ale poszerza horyzonty i daje większe szanse na sukces.

Among the statements, one can also find those that advocate the ‘middle’ solution, that is, a preference for a moderate approach to the composition and combining similarity with diversity.

- (MBA, mężczyzna) Uważam, że każdy zespół powinien być zbilansowany pod kątem różnorodnych cech/ umiejętności. Stopień ‘przechylenia’ w stronę jednych cech/ umiejętności powinien zależeć od zadań, jakie ma zespół. Podobieństwa muszą być tam, gdzie wymaga tego główne zadanie postawione przed zespołem. [...] Różnorodność wnosi wolność.

Regardless of the fit, respondents indicated that acceptance was most important.

- (MBA, kobieta) W pracy różnorodność, w domu podobieństwo. Ale zawsze i wszędzie akceptacja drugiej osoby – czyli jakby ta Miłość św. Augustyna. Inaczej nie da się nic wspólnie wypracować ani z ludźmi podobnymi do siebie, ani z totalnie odmiennymi.

One respondent pointed out that team selection is determined by competencies, and the next step is fitting each other.

- (MBA, mężczyzna) Najczęściej nikt nie ma celu zbudowania zespołu wewnątrznie podobnego lub zróżnicowanego. Przy kompletowaniu zespołu istotne są kompetencje. Ale obserwacje pokazują, iż poczucie przynależności do zespołu jest istotne dla trwałej współpracy.

MBA students emphasized that the manager, who is responsible for the functioning of the team, plays an important role in team building.

- (MBA, Mężczyzna) Różnorodność, z uwagi na fakt, że zespoły pracują głównie w określonym celu. Istotna jest tutaj rola menadżera i odpowiednie dobranie innych cech, nie można patrzeć tylko na zróżnicowanie.
- (MBA, Mężczyzna) Oczywiście w przypadku celów zawodowych – wszyscy razem wiosłują i do celu; działamy zgodnie. Lider słucha, ale jak podejmie decyzję to zgodnie dowozimy temat.
- (MBA, Mężczyzna) Jeśli ja jako lider mam tego świadomość tej różnorodności, to mogę w odpowiedni sposób sterować tym, wykorzystywać kompetencję jednych osób do wzmacniania drugich, ale z doświadczenia wiem, że jest to trudne. Wymaga to indywidualnego spojrzenia na każdą osobę w zespole a często menadżerowie patrzą na zespół jako całość monolit i w zależności jacy sami są, ‘gubią’ osoby, które są typami antagonistycznymi dla nich. Jeśli mamy też osoby w zespole o różnych poglądach, stylu życia, to również wpływa na szersze spojrzenie pozostałych osób w zespole. Pozwala wyciągnąć zespół z ‘bańki’ myślowej, w której często się znajdujemy przebywając w tym samym gronie.

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