

University of Warsaw

LL.M Anna Koval

**Impact of communication style compatibility on
leadership outcomes in multinational organizations
- recommendations for HRM**

Doctoral dissertation

**Dissertation written under the supervision of
Prof. dr hab. Grażyna Wieczorkowska-Wierzbńska
Associate supervisor: dr. Anna Kuźminska
University of Warsaw, Faculty of Management
Department of management and quality science.**

Warsaw, 2021

Studia doktoranckie – ścieżka angielska - **projekt** „Zarządzanie wielokulturowe w erze globalizacji” realizowany przez Wydział Zarządzania Uniwersytetu Warszawskiego na podstawie umowy nr POWR.03.02.00-00-I053/16-00 w ramach Programu Operacyjnego Wiedza Edukacja Rozwój 2014-2020 finansowanego z funduszy strukturalnych Unii Europejskiej

Oświadczenie kierującego pracą

Oświadczam, że niniejsza praca została przygotowana pod moim kierunkiem i stwierdzam, że spełnia ona warunki do przedstawienia jej w postępowaniu o nadanie stopnia doktora.

Data

Podpis kierującego pracą

Statement of the Supervisor on Submission of the Dissertation

I hereby certify that the thesis submitted has been prepared under my supervision and I declare that it satisfies the requirements of submission in the proceedings for the award of a doctoral degree.

Date

Signature of the Supervisor

Oświadczenie autora pracy

Świadom odpowiedzialności prawnej oświadczam, że niniejsza praca doktorska została napisana przeze mnie samodzielnie i nie zawiera treści uzyskanych w sposób niezgodny z obowiązującymi przepisami.

Oświadczam również, że przedstawiona praca nie była wcześniej przedmiotem procedur związanych z uzyskaniem tytułu zawodowego w wyższej uczelni.

Oświadczam ponadto, że niniejsza wersja pracy jest identyczna z załączoną wersją elektroniczną.

Data

Podpis autora pracy

Statement of the Author on Submission of the Dissertation

Aware of legal liability I certify that the thesis submitted has been prepared by myself and does not include information gathered contrary to the law.

I also declare that the thesis submitted has not been the subject of proceeding in the award of a university degree.

Furthermore I certify that the submitted version of the thesis is identical with its attached electronic version.

Date

Signature of the Author

Zgoda autora pracy

Wyrażam zgodę na udostępnianie mojej rozprawy doktorskiej dla celów naukowo-badawczych.

Data

Podpis autora pracy

Author's consent dissertation

I agree to make my dissertation available for research purposes

Date

Signature of the Author

Abstract

The purpose of the dissertation was to explore the role of managers' and team members' communication styles' compatibility on leadership outcomes within multinational organizations. In an experimental Study 1, performed among 252 U.S. employees, I found that even though all participants preferred a leader who adopts a non-dominant communication style, this preference was significantly more pronounced among employees whose communication style was also non-dominant, indicating a compatibility effect. These results were further confirmed and expanded in Study 2, performed among 151 employees of a large, multinational company (29 team leaders and their 122 subordinates). The results showed that communication styles compatibility between leaders and followers is more important than independently measured leader's communication styles in predicting employees' job-related well-being and organizational trust.

Keywords

Communication styles, compatibility, job-related well-being, organizational trust, multinational organizations

Rola kompatybilności stylów komunikacji dla konsekwencji przywództwa w organizacjach wielonarodowych

Abstract in Polish

Celem rozprawy było zbadanie znaczenia konsekwencji braku kompatybilności stylów komunikacji lidera i członków zespołu w organizacjach wielonarodowych. Eksperymentalne Badanie 1, przeprowadzone wśród 252 amerykańskich pracowników, wykazało, że chociaż wszyscy uczestnicy preferowali lidera o niedominującym stylu komunikacji, preferencja ta była znacznie wyraźniejsza wśród pracowników, których styl komunikacji również był niedominujący, tym samym wskazując na efekt kompatybilności. W Badaniu 2, przeprowadzonym wśród 151 pracowników dużej, wielonarodowej firmy (29 liderów zespołów i ich 122 podwładnych) wykazano, że zgodność stylów komunikacji pomiędzy liderami a pracownikami była ważniejsza niż niezależnie mierzone style komunikacji liderów w przewidywaniu dobrego samopoczucia i zaufania organizacyjnego deklarowanego przez pracowników.

Keywords in Polish

Style komunikacji, kompatybilność, dobrostan w miejscu pracy, zaufanie organizacyjne, organizacje wielonarodowe

Table of Contents

Introduction.....	7
Theoretical Part	12
Chapter 1 Leadership	12
1.1 Defining Leadership	12
1.2 Defining Differences and Similarities between Leadership and Management ...	14
1.3 Leadership Theories	22
1.4 Global Leadership.....	43
Chapter 2 Communication and Communication Styles.....	51
2.1 Communication Theory	51
2.2 The Importance of Organizational Communication	55
2.3 Communication Styles.....	58
2.3.1 Communication Styles Measures	58
2.3.2 Organizational Communication Styles Measures.....	67
2.4 Cross-Cultural Communication	79
Chapter 3 Leadership and Communication	84
3.1 Communication in Leader Emergence	84
3.2 Communication and Leader Effectiveness	86
3.3 Satisfaction with a Leader's Communication Style.....	89
3.4 Relationship between Leadership Styles and Communication	91
3.5 Humor in the Workplace and Communication Style.....	92
3.6 Leader - Subordinate Relationship and the Role of Communication.....	94
3.7 Leader-follower congruence in communication styles	96
3.7.1 Leader-member Exchange Theory.....	96
3.7.2 Person-environment Fit.....	99
3.8 Leader-Follower Compatibility in Communication Styles	101
4 Summary.....	105
Empirical Part.....	107
5 Justification of the Research Problem and the Aim of the Studies	107
6 Research Task (Study) 1.....	111
7 Research Task (Study) 2.....	119
8 General Discussion.....	142
8.1 Study limitations and future research	148
8.2 Conclusion	151
Appendices.....	155

Appendix 1 Global Convergence in Effective Leader Behaviors and Competencies	155
Appendix 2 Communicator Style Measure	162
Appendix 3 Relational Communication Scale	166
Appendix 4 Communication Styles Inventory	169
Appendix 5 Organizational Communication Questionnaire	173
Appendix 6 Communication Satisfaction Questionnaire	177
Appendix 7 Organizational Communication Audit Questionnaire	181
Appendix 8 Descriptive statistics and distributions, Study 1	187
Appendix 9 Communication Style Scale	189
Appendix 10 Communication Styles	191
Appendix 11 Trust scales Study 2	193
Appendix 12 Descriptive statistics and distributions, Study 2	194
Appendix 13 Correlation table for the communication styles (measured for the employees and for the leaders)	198
Appendix 14 Descriptive statistics and intercorrelations for the variables measured in Study 2 (employee CSs)	199
References	200
List of Tables	215
List of Figures	216

Introduction

Communication plays a critical role in any organization, as it facilitates the flow of information and understanding between individuals and departments that occurs through different media and uses various channels and networks. Organizational communication is the lifeblood of the organization, the glue that ties the organization, or oil that smoothens the organization's function¹. It has been shown that employees generally spend between 50% and 80%² of their work time communicating. Furthermore, numerous empirical studies show that managers spend up to 82%³ of their time communicating with subordinates by:

- transmitting goals, providing information, clarifying standards; and
- instructing, coordinating, or giving feedback.

These research findings suggest that unhealthy communication equals an unhealthy organization. As a result, organizations cannot exist separately from their members and are created and reproduced by communication between participants. Therefore, organizations are defined through groups of individuals harmoniously working together to achieve common production-related goals. Consequently, communication becomes a tool by which members design, distribute, and pursue organizational goals⁴.

People differ in the way they communicate. Individuals use different *communication styles (CS)* contingent on the social situation they find themselves in, people they are with, or emotional states they are experiencing. For instance, while speaking with subordinates, Manager X typically assumes a dominant communication style - makes sure that everyone listens to her, tries to be structured, poised, and in control over the situation. On the other hand, Manager Y prefers a nondominant style - always listens to team members' ideas, and usually waits patiently until everybody had chance to speak up. Therefore, CS can be defined as:

¹ Giri & Pavan Kumar, 2010

² Giri & Pavan Kumar, 2010

³ Jablin, 1979; Sarros et al., 2014; Riggio et al., 2003; Madlock, 2008

⁴ Giri & Pavan Kumar, 2010

“the characteristic way a person sends verbal, paraverbal, and nonverbal signals in social interactions denoting

- (a) who he or she is or wants to (appear to) be,*
- (b) how he or she tends to relate to people with whom he or she interacts, and*
- (c) in what way his or her messages should usually be interpreted.¹”*

So, “somebody who exhibits conversational dominance, may not only convey that somebody should take the message seriously (i.e., [c]), but may also convey status information (i.e., [a]) and how she or he wants the conversational partner to react (i.e., submissive – [b])⁵.”

People’s communication styles are subject to intraindividual variability. They are dependent on the situational context or a particular life domain – e.g. the Manager X could adopt a different, more submissive, communication style when talking to her superiors and an even different one at home. However, in this work, the focus lies on exploring a particular type of communication, which is communication between *managers and supervisors (leaders)* and *team members (employees)*. Multiple research have shown that supervisor communication impacts numerous leadership outcomes, like employees’ wellbeing at work, job satisfaction, trust, and more, which respectively influences the success of achieving goals set by the team, department, or organization⁶. Scholars have been paying attention to how sender’s (supervisors’, health care providers’, customer service providers’) communication styles impact receivers in different research fields including but not limited to management,

hospitality, and health care sectors.

For example, research in customer services sector⁷ has shown that:

- *Contentious CS (i.e. a tendency to communicate in an aggressive fashion)* negatively influences the communicator’s persuasive power, which can impact the effectiveness of employees; while

⁵ De Vries et al., 2013 (p. 507)

⁶ Jablin, 1979; Buller & Buller, 1987; Baker & Ganster, 1985; Kang & Hyun, 2012; Webster & Sundaram, 2009

⁷ Pettegrew et al., 1981

- *Relaxed (absence of tension or anxiety), open (self-disclosing), and attentive (making sure that others listen carefully) CSs* have a significantly positive impact on customers.

As the result, the CS of a sender directly impacts the receivers' outcomes, like their emotions, trust towards the sender⁸. Additionally, receivers' preferences (such as willingness to cooperate, share knowledge, or receive services) differ depending on what CS the sender adopts⁹. However, how much may these outcomes and preferences differ if we also consider the CSs of the receivers?

Previous research in the area of communication styles focused on exploring the direct effects of various communication styles on receivers. However, more and more research in the area of person-organization, person-supervisor, and person-group fit seems to indicate that a compatibility of certain characteristics (e.g. values or control preferences) between two or more organizational members can be even more informative of important outcomes such as organizational trust, well-being, or turnover intentions¹⁰. For this reason, I consider it crucial to investigate how a leader's CS combined with an employees' CS impact leadership outcomes.

Therefore, **the research objective of this work is to explore how congruence in communication styles between supervisor and employees impacts leadership outcomes**, particularly organizational trust and well-being that employees experience at work **within a multinational environment** (which might be particularly sensitive to communication issues). The topic of compatibility of communication styles between leaders and followers has – to my knowledge - been the focus of very limited academic theorizing and empirical exploration up to this date¹¹. **I aim to realize this objective by performing two research tasks described below.**

Structure of the Dissertation

⁸ Brown et al., 2019

⁹ Bednar, 1982; Kang & Hyun, 2012

¹⁰ Andela & van der Doef, 2018; Kuzminska et al., 2019; Andela & van der Doef, 2018

¹¹ Berger & Calabrese, 1975; Fan & Han, 2018; Infante & Gorden, 1982; Fan & Han, 2018

This dissertation consists of three parts: theoretical, empirical, and supplementary (appendices). **The theoretical part** presents research on the following issues that are important for the justification of the theoretical model adopted in the work.

- **Chapter 1:** The current dissertation focuses on the communication style compatibility **in the specific context** of the **relationship between leaders and followers**. Hence, Chapter 1 examines the context in which this communication occurs. Through this chapter, I try to demonstrate that the specificity of leadership needs to be taken into account when analyzing the leader-follower (dis)similarity in communication styles.
- **Chapter 2** focuses on **defining communication and communication styles** and understanding of its importance in an organizational setting.
- **Chapter 3** reviews literature that investigated **the importance of communication for leadership**: for instance, to what extent communication errors lead to negative leadership outcomes.

The empirical part presents the results of **two research tasks**:

- **Research Task 1: The first study** was experimental and focused on one of the most impactful communication styles of a leader explored in the previous research – a dominant CS. Even though preferences towards dominant leaders or service providers may depend on such circumstances as criticality of situation¹² or economic uncertainty¹³, research generally suggests that such leaders are perceived negatively¹⁴. Dominant communication behaviors, such as paying little attention to employee views or opinions, interrupting employees, or failing to consult with them, have been even included in the measures of incivility in the workplace¹⁵. However, no previous research checked what are the organizational consequences of leader-follower fit or misfit in CS dominance. To do so, I have conducted the experiment on a sample of 252 U.S. employees via the Amazon Mechanical Turk. The initial experiment was aimed at a preliminary exploration of the consequences

¹² Webster & Sundaram, 2009

¹³ Kakkar & Sivanathan, 2017

¹⁴ Baker & Ganster, 1985

¹⁵ Cortina et al., 2001, 2013; Martin & Hine, 2005; Cortina et al., 2013; Cortina et al., 2001; Martin & Hine, 2005

of leaders' and employees' compatibility in CSs. In particular, I investigated how manager's CS dominance impacts employee attitudes toward that manager, depending on the employee's own level of CS dominance.

- **Research Task 2: The second study** was nested in one organization and explored a wider selection of CSs to confirm and expand the preliminary results obtained in Study 1. The aim of the study was to explore impact of the compatibility of team leaders' and employees' CSs on such leadership outcomes as job-related well-being and organizational trust. The study was conducted at the shared services office of a global legal firm located in Warsaw, Poland. For the purpose of the study, I collected data separately from each team. In this way I was able to explore the consequences of the actual (dis)similarity in communication styles between 29 team leaders and their 122 followers (151 participants in total).

Theoretical Part

Chapter 1. Leadership

The current dissertation focuses on the communication style compatibility, in the specific context of the relationship between leaders and followers. Hence, before I delve into the issue of communication and communication styles, I decided to examine the context in which this communication occurs. I hope to make it clear that the specificity of leadership demonstrated in this chapter needs to be taken into account when analyzing the leader-follower (dis)similarity in communication styles. First, I consider it essential to understand leadership by exploring how this phenomenon has been conceptualized and how the meaning has changed over time. Second, it is also crucial to understand differences and similarities between leadership and management, as these two concepts have been used interchangeably in both scientific and business domains, as well as I will be using both of them in my studies. Furthermore, it is noteworthy to discuss different approaches scholars have proposed to explain this phenomenon and define the effective or successful leader by attempting to identify the qualities the effective or successful leader may possess. Finally, but not less important in the age of globalization, it is to investigate what global leadership means and how a global leader differs from a domestic leader. This final consideration is especially relevant to my consideration of communication style compatibility in multinational organizations.

1.1 Defining Leadership

Decades of academic research on leadership have provided more than 850¹⁶ definitions of leadership. Over the last seven decades, thousands of empirical examinations of leadership have been conducted. However, there is no clear and explicit understanding of how leaders and non-leaders should be differentiated. More importantly, it is still not known how to differentiate effective leaders from ineffective ones. However, as characteristic of many natural concepts, the boundaries of which are fuzzy and the agreed-upon understanding of

¹⁶ Bennis & Nanus, 1985

which is determined by the cultural and historical milieu, the view on leadership has been changing throughout the decades.

The first scholarly definitions of leadership in the 1920s and the 1930th were focused on the control and centralization of power. In the 1940s, the understanding of leadership was dominated by the so called group approach which focused on the functions of leadership, what leaders do, and how leader's behaviors affect and is being affected by a group of followers. In the 1950s, the influence of group theorists on leadership studies continues; however, behaviorists have intruded into the group dominance of the field. The significant change in this decade considered the influence of democratic ideology on shaping leadership; it was viewed as process-oriented to achieve shared goals. The following decade's definitions of leadership show increasing support for considering leadership as behavior that influences individuals toward common purposes. In the 1970s, the popularity of leadership studies was growing, and the number of books and articles has increased. This decade ended with a serious challenge to the conventional views of leadership. While the dominant paradigm stayed firm, several researchers from various academic disciplines challenged organizational behaviorists and psychologists by developing conceptual frameworks. Thus, the 1980s witnessed an explosion of new concepts of the nature of leadership¹⁷.

Regardless of the plurality of ways in which leadership has been conceptualized, the modern view on leadership suggests that the following components are central to the leadership phenomenon¹⁸:

- Defining **leadership as a process** means seeing it as a transitional event between a leader and followers, but not as a trait or characteristic of a leader. The process implies a reciprocal effect on each other. Thus, leadership as a process is seen as an interaction event but not a one-way event. The process approach towards defining leadership enables leadership to everyone, and it is no longer restricted to the formally designated leader in a group.

¹⁷ Rost & Burns, 1991

¹⁸ Northouse, 2019

- **Influence** is an indispensable part of leadership, and leadership does not exist without influence. It focuses on how a leader influences the followers and the communication between the leader and followers¹⁹.
- **Groups** also play a significant role in leadership because groups are the context in which leadership occurs. In this context, leadership includes influencing a group of individuals who have a common goal. Consequently, leadership is when an individual influences a group of other individuals to achieve common purposes²⁰.
- Furthermore, leadership includes a focus on **common goals**. It is suggested that leaders direct their energy towards individuals who are engaged in achieving the collective goal. Working on the collective goal means that both leaders and followers have a mutual objective. Emphasis on mutual reduces the possibility that leaders may imply force or act unethically toward followers²¹.

1.2 Defining Differences and Similarities between Leadership and Management

In the current dissertation, I frequently use the terms **leadership and management**. Even though these two constructs are interrelated, it is important to discuss, in which ways are they also distinct. Both processes involve influence, working with people, focused on effective goal achievement. In fact, many managerial functions involve leadership activities and valued managers possess leadership skills²². However, some aspects also set these two constructs apart. The literature review on leadership and management comparison suggests that five primary perspectives have formed over the past four decades in this respect.

First approach²³ **treats leadership and management as bipolar concepts**. According to this view, managers and leaders are fundamentally different. These differences are compared in the Table 1. However, following this approach may lead to the outcome that

¹⁹ Ruben & Gigliotti, 2017

²⁰ Northouse, 2019

²¹ Rost & Burns, 1991

²² Simonet & Tett, 2013

²³ Zaleznik, 1977

individuals with opposite traits should be hired and trained as managers versus leaders²⁴. Not only would this would entail limitations of promoting a person from one role to the other, but it is also clearly unrealistic, as most managers also perform the roles of leaders. Although it is possible to imagine an informal leader who was not granted any formal managerial competencies, as it is to imagine a manager who possesses no leadership skills, posing these two “personas” as direct opposites seems to be an overstatement. A manager or/and leader can pursue different goals at different times – sometimes focusing on achieving social change, sometimes focusing on more concrete goals, sometimes focusing on people, at other times on tasks.

Table 1

Comparison of Managers and Leaders according to the first approach

	Managers	Leaders
Attitudes toward goals	Take an impersonal, passive outlook. Goals arise out of necessities, not desires.	Take a personal, active outlook. Shape rather than respond to ideas. Alter moods; evoke images, expectations. Change how people think about what is desirable and possible. Set company direction.
Conceptions of work	Negotiate and coerce. Balance opposing views. Design compromises. Limit choices. Avoid risk.	Develop fresh approaches to problems. Increase options. Turn ideas into exciting images. Seek risk when opportunities appear promising.
Relations with others	Prefer working with people, but maintain minimal emotional involvement. Lack empathy. Focus on process, e.g., how decisions are made rather than what decisions to make. Communicate by sending ambiguous signals. Subordinates perceive them as inscrutable, detached, and manipulative. Organization accumulates bureaucracy and political	Attracted to ideas. Relate to others directly, intuitively, empathetically. Focus on substance of events and decisions, including their meaning for participants. Subordinates describe them with emotionally rich adjectives; e.g., “love,” “hate.” Relations appear turbulent, intense, disorganized. Yet motivation intensifies, and unanticipated outcomes proliferate.

²⁴ Simonet, & Tett, 2013

	intrigue.	
Sense of self	Comes from perpetuating and strengthening existing institutions. Feel part of the organization.	Comes from struggles to profoundly alter human and economic relationships. Feel separate from the organization.

Source: Zaleznik, 1977

In line with the second approach, leadership and management are viewed as unidimensional concepts²⁵. The unidimensional view suggests that managerial and leadership roles are complex and incorporated in organizational systems characterized by numerous, diverse demands. In this view, management and leadership are portrayed as interchangeable concepts. The unidimensional approach implies a degree of homogeneity in what both leaders and managers do despite their role. Therefore, it is possible to think that both managers and leaders act in the best interest of creating a successful business and would serve the organization's benefit. It does not matter if it is a manager or a leader title; both individuals motivate their employees and determine directions, as it is an essential part of their role. Despite organizational circumstances, an effective manager/leader would, first of all, gather information, interpret unclearness, acquire resources, set goals, make decisions, if needed, delegate responsibilities.

According to the **third approach, leadership is explained as equivalent to management²⁶.** Leadership and management are viewed as distinct processes, often complementing each other. These processes are considered parts of a larger whole, and both are vital to the maintenance and growth of the organization. It is also argued that each role can supplement the other; however, not every manager leads, and every leader manages. It is possible to imagine that a leader who cannot manage has a vision of where they want to go but no idea of how to get there. A manager who cannot lead cannot build trust and create engagement within an organization to achieve desirable goals. These scenarios are neither practical nor effective.

²⁵ Ibid

²⁶ Ibid

Another view on this approach considers **management and leadership as distinct systematic activities** that, in the end, should be united to reinforce business growth. Leadership and management are often seen as complementary to each other, yet the ultimate feature of the position is that the two domains can be uniquely identified. In our constantly changing world, one cannot function without the other. Managers encourage stability while leaders drive for change²⁷. Individuals that embrace both may succeed in an increasingly complex and turbulent, and changing world. The common difference with the bipolar approach is that management and leadership are defined as orthogonal to each other.

The fourth approach²⁸ sees the leadership-management relationship in the hierarchical dyad, where **management is a part of leadership**. It is argued that traditionally assigned task-oriented behaviors to management (like commanding, coordinating, controlling, planning, organizing) at a broad level constitute a significant scope in established leadership theories. For example, various forms of directive behaviors are incorporated in situational and path-goal theories, decision making in the participative theory, problem-solving enclosed in the team theory, transactional dimensions in the transformational theory, and developing organizational structure in the strategic theory. Consequently, the above-listed conceptualizations place management within the broader domain of leadership.

This viewpoint starts with the leader's vision for the organization. The leaders who implement the vision for the organization imply such managerial responsibilities as planning, organizing, controlling, directing to succeed²⁹. Thus, it is easy to imagine that organizations would look for strong leaders to hire and then teach them to carry out the managerial functions.

The fifth approach³⁰ is opposite to the previous one. Here **leadership is seen as a part of management**. Management theories, in turn, discuss the integrity of character, satisfying member motives, and anticipating the future, topics that mirror the authentic leadership

²⁷ Albuquerque, 2009

²⁸ Simonet & Tett, 2013

²⁹ Wortman, 1982

³⁰ Simonet & Tett, 2013

concept, which respectively includes consideration, sense-making, and strategic leadership. A manager is accountable for ensuring that both managerial and leadership activities are complete as required. In contrast, the degree to which leadership is needed is a function of a person's organizational position. One of the main arguments for leadership-in-management hierarchical arrangement is that management involves working with people as one of many possible resources in the broader field of situational requirements, constraints, and actions. For example, being a leader is considered one of the many interpersonal and decisional roles performed by a manager³¹. If it were the case, organizations would be interested in acquiring a manager who would possess various attributes, desirably, with leadership being one of those qualities.

The study exploring the leadership-management relationship has identified 63 competencies that describe both concepts (Table 2 lists all 63 competencies). Among them, 22 relate to both management and leadership. However, there is a number of unique descriptions that have been identified for each. Leadership is characterized by intrinsic motivation, creative thinking, strategic planning, tolerance of ambiguity, and reading people. In contrast, management is characterized by extrinsic motivation, safety concerns, short-term planning, rule orientation, and timeliness³².

Table 2

Taxonomy of 63 Leadership and Management Competencies

Competencies	Management	Leadership	Non-designated competencies
Traditional functions			
1. Problem awareness	X	X	
2. Decision making	X	X	
3. Directing			X
4. Decision delegation			X
5. Short-term planning	X		
6. Strategic planning		X	

³¹ Mintzberg, 1980

³² Simonet & Tett, 2013

7. Coordinating			X
8. Goal setting	X	X	
9. Monitoring			X
10. Motivating extrinsically	X		
11. Motivating intrinsically		X	
12. Team building			X
13. Productivity	X	X	
Competencies	Management	Leadership	Non-designated competencies
Task orientation			
14. Initiative	X	X	
15. Task focus			X
16. Urgency	X	X	
17. Decisiveness	X	X	
18. Multitasking			X
Competencies	Management	Leadership	Non-designated competencies
Person orientation			
19. Compassion			X
20. Cooperation	X	X	
21. Sociability			X
22. Politeness			X
23. Political astuteness			X
24. Assertiveness			X
25. Seeking input	X	X	
26. Customer focus	X	X	
27. People reading		X	
Competencies	Management	Leadership	Non-designated competencies
Dependability			
28. Orderliness	X		
29. Rule orientation	X		
30. Personal responsibility	X	X	

31. Trustworthiness	X	X	
32. Timeliness	X		
33. Professionalism	X	X	
34. Loyalty	X	X	
Competencies	Management	Leadership	Non-designated competencies
Open mindedness			
35. Tolerance of ideas			X
36. Tolerance of ambiguity		X	
37. Adaptability			X
38. Creative thinking		X	
39. Cultural appreciation			X
40. Technological orientation			X
Competencies	Management	Leadership	Non-designated competencies
Emotional Control			
41. Composure	X	X	
42. Resilience			X
43. Stress management			X
Competencies	Management	Leadership	Non-designated competencies
Communication			
44. Listening skills	X	X	
45. Oral communication	X	X	
46. Public presentation			X
47. Written communication	X	X	
48. Developmental goal setting			X
49. Performance assessment			X
50. Developmental feedback			X
51. Job enrichment			X
52. Self-development			X
Competencies	Management	Leadership	Non-designated competencies

Information management			
53. Information seeking			X
54. Information integration	X	X	
55. Information sharing	X	X	
Competencies	Management	Leadership	Non-designated competencies
Job knowledge			
56. Position knowledge			X
57. Organization knowledge	X	X	
58. Industry knowledge			X
Competencies	Management	Leadership	Non-designated competencies
Occupational concern			
59. Quantity concern			X
60. Quality concern			X
61. Financial concern	X	X	
62. Safety concern	X		
63. Company concern			X

Source: Simonet, & Tett, 2013

In the empirical part of my dissertation, I will focus on leaders who hold formally recognized positions within the hierarchies of their organizations. So, I will use both the words “manager” and “leader” (e.g. a team leader), as both of these job titles are used within organizations to denote a certain set of responsibilities associated with overseeing subordinates. Hence, since leadership in the context of my studies is exhibited by a formal leader, manager, or supervisor, the view of leadership I will follow is consistent with the fourth and fifth approach.

1.3 Leadership Theories

Over the decades, numerous theories have arisen about leadership; some scholars even say that there are as many theories of leadership as there are leaders³³. Theories of leadership seek to explain its emergence, its nature, and its consequences. Early theories, developed until the late 1940th, were focused on the personal traits of leaders. As per this approach, leaders' abilities and personality characteristics determined leadership. Then in the late 1960s, the focus on leadership theories has switched to personal styles. Then leadership research has become contingent on a combination of traits and situations of leaders and followers. Later in the early 1980th leadership, theories of inspiration and transformation emerged and became prominent in the 1990s.

1.3.1 Trait Theory

Research on leadership began with an exploration of such qualities that distinguish leaders from non-leaders. Some early researchers of leadership believed that such individual characteristics as demographics, skills, abilities, and personality traits predict leadership effectiveness³⁴. In the late 19th and the early 20th, scholars explored leadership traits to determine what made certain people great leaders. These theories were known as "Great Man" theories, and focused on recognizing inborn qualities and attributes that great leaders possessed. According to this theory, only great individuals are born with traits that make them natural leaders³⁵. "Without Moses, according to these theorists, the Jews would have remained in Egypt; without Winston Churchill, the British would have given up in 1940; without Bill Gates, there would have been no from like Microsoft³⁶." The Great Man theories are characterized by a fascination with great individuals of history; therefore, they have been criticized for the failure to explain the leadership role in ensuring business and organizational integrity.

Later on, the trait approach took a new direction in its development. It has been proved that there are no set of traits that distinguish leaders from non-leaders across various situations

³³ Bass & Bass, 2009

³⁴ Derue et al., 2011

³⁵ Northouse, 2019

³⁶ Bass & Bass, 2009 (p. 49)

³⁷. An individual does not become a leader because of a particular combination of traits. In turn, the leader's model of personal characteristics must relate to the followers and their characteristics, activities, and goals. Consequently, leadership should be viewed in terms of the interplay of constantly changing variables. Accordingly, an individual with a particular set of traits who was a leader in one social situation might fail as a leader in another situation. Individuals are recognized as leaders in the relationship between people in social situations rather than by qualities that individuals possess³⁸.

The trait approach became an interest to some researchers and generated research on how traits influence leadership. For example, it was found that traits are significantly associated with an individual's perceptions of leadership. Specifically, intelligence, masculinity, and dominance were among those most strongly related to leadership perceptions³⁹. Furthermore, it was proved that effective leaders are different from other individuals in specific vital values. In particular, drive, leadership motivation, honesty and integrity, self-confidence, cognitive ability, and business knowledge⁴⁰.

Some scholars consider charismatic leadership as a part of trait theory⁴¹. Initially, the concept of charisma was introduced to the social sciences to distinguish talented leaders with extraordinary abilities. Charismatic leaders are considered to be more expressive, articulate, and emotionally appealing. Generally, such leaders are self-confident, determined, active, and energetic. Charismatic leaders have a strong positive effect on their followers; therefore, followers want to identify with such leaders⁴². For example, a study aimed to define what distinguishes charismatic leaders from others found that charismatic leaders possess such traits as self-monitoring, self-actualization, motivation to gain social power, and self-enhancement⁴³.

Some academics argue that training managers to develop charismatic leadership behaviors enhances their personal effectiveness, improves subordinates' motivation, and promotes

³⁷ Strodill, 1948

³⁸ Ibid

³⁹ Lord, DeVader & Alliger, 1986

⁴⁰ Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991

⁴¹ Bass & Bass, 2008

⁴² Ibid

⁴³ (Don), & Sosik, 2006

the achievement of organizational goals⁴⁴. These study results provide evidence that, to some extent, charisma can be trained, which means that charismatic leadership should not be categorized under trait theories, as traits are relatively stable.

1.3.2 Skill Theory

The skills approach, similarly to the trait approach, takes a leader-centered view on leadership. However, this theory focuses on skills and abilities that can be developed rather than on innate, fixed personality characteristics. Skills' approach suggests that to become an effective leader, knowledge and abilities are needed. In the mid of 1950s, scholars attempted to transcend the trait issue by addressing leadership as a set of skills that can be developed. Moreover, the interest in the skills approach has emerged relatively recently. Starting from the early 1990s, more and more studies have been published arguing that the leader's ability to solve complex organizational problems defines a leader as an effective one⁴⁵.

Within this approach, knowledge and skills are the capabilities that can be developed and considered as a more immediate impact on leader performance compared to traits. The skills approach suggests that a leader performance depends on the following three kinds of skills:

- complex problem-solving skills,
- solution construction skills,
- social judgment skills.

However, knowledge or expertise in one or more domains is the accompanying element of each of these skill sets.

Problem-solving is considered as one of the leading individual's capabilities. "Leaders must define significant problems, gather information, formulate ideas, and construct prototype plans for solving the problem⁴⁶." These skills are viewed as complex and

⁴⁴ House & Howell, 1992

⁴⁵ Northouse, 2019

⁴⁶ Mumford et al., 2000 (p.157)

creative and imply a need for expertise that depends on both the nature of the problem and the specific type of leadership role⁴⁷.

1.3.3 Behavioral Theory

The behavior theory stresses the attention to the behavior of the leader. This model of leadership focuses on what leaders do and how they act. Behavioral theory broadens the research on leadership and explores the actions of leaders toward followers in different contexts⁴⁸.

The first study on the behavioral theory on leadership was focused on leadership style of managers. As a result, the following three leadership styles were differentiated:

- autocratic leadership style – this style involves instructing followers what to do;
- democratic leadership style – this style is directed to encourage followers to participate in the decision-making process;
- and the laissez-faire leadership style – practically allowing followers to decide on what has to be done (a hands-off approach)⁴⁹.

Researchers at Ohio State University have conducted the second group of studies on behavioral approach. Facing a wall with regards to the trait studies, they have decided to explore how leaders act when leading an organization. The researchers have identified a set of behaviors and then grouped them into two categories: initiating structure (behavior focused on accomplishing tasks) and consideration (relationship behavior between a leader and followers). These two behaviors are independent; therefore, a leader can be competent in both behaviors, consideration and initiating structure⁵⁰.

The Ohio State University study results conflicted with the findings of the University of Michigan researchers, who established the following two types of leadership behavior: employee orientation and production orientation. The study implies that both behaviors have the same continuum, not opposite ones, suggesting the one-dimensional

⁴⁷ Mumford et al., 2000

⁴⁸ Northouse, 2019

⁴⁹ Lewin et al., 1939

⁵⁰ Harrison, 2018

measurement. Consequently, more production-oriented leaders would care less about the employees' needs, and leaders who are more employee-oriented would be less concerned with production⁵¹.

The previous research on behavioral approach to leadership has laid the foundation for a new leadership model – the Blake and Mouton managerial grid. This model uses two-dimensional axes, where one is concern for people, and another is concern for results. According to this scheme, leaders are grouped into the following five styles⁵²:

- Authority compliance (9, 1) – The focus of this style is on getting work done by the cost of developing good working relationships. Hence, authority leaders care more about production and less about employees.
- Country club management (1, 9) – This style is opposite to authority compliance; building a good working environment is always put in the first place, while getting the task done is secondary. Country club leaders have a high concern for people and low concern for production.
- Impoverished management (1, 1) – Minimal effort to build relationships and complete tasks. Impoverished leaders have a low concern for people and production.
- Middle of the road management (5, 5) – This style shows a moderate effort to accomplish the tasks by creating a good working environment, a middle concern for both production and employees.
- Team management (9, 9) – Leaders develop a great working environment and relationship with employees while prioritizing organizational goals. Leaders show high concern for both people and production.

According to the Blake and Mouton managerial grid, the most effective leaders are team managers who care about both production and employees. However, the empirical study of

⁵¹ Northouse, 2019

⁵² Harrison, 2018

the grid has not yielded consistent results, and therefore, has been criticized by various researchers⁵³.

Studies into behavioral approach have not considered the situational contingencies associated with leadership. Therefore, this theory is limited to theory building and orientation⁵⁴. The earlier studies failed to include all types of leadership behavior. Behaviors related to understanding leadership (leading by example, management of meaning and values, envisioning) are absent. Even though the behavioral approach has marked a substantial change in leadership research, it is plagued by inconsistencies in research results and a lack of evidence of how leadership styles are associated with performance outcomes⁵⁵.

1.3.4 Contingency Theory

Despite the considerable effort to investigate the leadership behaviors in relation to leadership effectiveness, outcomes maintained to be inconclusive. The contingency approach attempted to redress the shortcomings of the behavioral approach⁵⁶. The contingency approach to leadership is based on the assumption that there is no optimum leadership style. An effective leader should use different styles depending on the contingencies of the situation. Consequently, a leadership style used once in the past might not be effective in the present⁵⁷.

The majority of contingency theories of effective leadership use the following widely defined categories of leadership behavior⁵⁸:

⁵³ Harrison, 2018

⁵⁴ House & Aditya, 1997

⁵⁵ Yukl, 1999

⁵⁶ Cogliser & Brigham, 2004

⁵⁷ Harrison, 2018

⁵⁸ Yukl, 2011

- **Task-oriented behavior.** The primary focus of this behavior is accomplishing tasks efficiently and reliably. The specific behaviors differ depending on the theory, but main activities include planning, clarifying, and monitoring role-related activities, solving work-related problems and disturbances.
- **Relations-oriented behavior.** The primary focus here lies on developing trustworthy cooperation, increasing job satisfaction, cohesiveness, and organizational commitment. The relation-oriented behavior manifests through such activities as showing concern for the needs of subordinates, providing support and encouragement, showing trust and acceptance, providing coaching and assistance, defending the welfare of subordinates.
- **Participative leadership.** The degree to which a leader involves others in the decision-making process. The spectrum of such involvement varies from autocratic decisions, consultations, joint decisions, delegation.
- **Contingent reward behavior.** This behavior focuses on influencing subordinates' motivation and satisfaction through formal (tangible rewards for effective performance) and informal (providing recognition for being effective or contributing to the team or organization) rewards.
- **Overlaps among behavior meta-categories.** This category includes behaviors that have overlapping components. One of the examples is coaching – it can be applied to improve a subordinate's immediate performance, to build skills relevant for the subordinate's self-esteem and career advancement, or even to accomplish both goals.

The table 3 lists the early contingency theories and their major features. These theories vary depending on the number and type of moderator variables they include.

Table 3

Contingency Theories of Effective Leadership Behavior

Contingency theory	Independent variables	Situational variables	Explanatory variables
		Path-goal	mediating variables

Path-goal theory ⁵⁹	Instrumental, supportive, achievement-oriented, and participative leadership	Attributes of the task and the subordinates	Role ambiguity, outcome expectancies, and valences
Situational leadership theory ⁶⁰	Task and relations behavior (and decision procedures)	Subordinate maturity in relation to the task	None
Leadership substitutes theory ⁶¹	Instrumental and supportive leadership	Attributes of the task, group, and organization	None
LPC contingency model ⁶²	Leader LPC	Position power, task structure, and leader–member relations	None
Normative decision model ⁶³	Specific decision procedures	Leader and member knowledge, goal congruence, importance of quality, and acceptance	Decision quality and decision acceptance
Cognitive resources theory ⁶⁴	Participative leadership; leader IQ	Interpersonal stress and member	Vague and incomplete

⁵⁹ House & Mitchell, 1974

⁶⁰ Blanchard et al, 1993

⁶¹ Kerr & Jermier, 1978; Howell, et al., 1990; Podsakoff, et al. 1993

⁶² Fiedler, 1967; Rice, 1978

⁶³ Vroom & Jago, 1974

⁶⁴ Fiedler & Garcia, 1987

	and experience	knowledge	
Multiple linkage model ⁶⁵	Many specific behaviors	Attributes of the task, group, and organization	Several determinants of individual and group performance

Source: Yukl, 2011

Path-goal theory⁶⁶ is a contingency model based on the idea that an individual's motivation depends on expectations that increasing effort to achieve better performance can be successful. The theory includes directive, supportive, participative, and achievement-oriented leadership behaviors which the same individual can exercise in different situations and times. Therefore, by applying one of these behaviors, leaders attempt to influence the perceptions of their subordinates and clear the way for achieving their goals.

Situational leadership theory⁶⁷. Initially, a contingency theory was proposed that specifies each subordinate's appropriate type of leadership behavior. Behavior was defined as directive and supportive leadership and decision procedures. Subordinate maturity is the situational variable, which involves the individual's ability and confidence to do a task. The higher subordinate maturity, the less directive leadership is needed. However, the moderating effect of subordinate maturity is more complex for supportive leadership:

- For low-maturity subordinates, it is suggested that the leader should be more directive and less supportive.
- For moderate-maturity subordinates, the appropriate pattern for a leader is a moderate amount of directive and supportive behavior.
- For high-maturity subordinates, it is proposed to use a limited amount of directive and supportive behavior.

⁶⁵ Yukl, 1971; Yukl, 1989.

⁶⁶ House & Mitchell, 1974

⁶⁷ Blanchard et al., 1993

The central focus of this model is on short-term behavior. However, over time the leader may alter the subordinate's behavior by building skills and confidence and increase the subordinate's maturity.

Leadership substitutes theory⁶⁸. It was found that such situational variables as characteristics of the subordinates, task, and the organization may substitute or neutralize a leader. For example:

- Instrumental leadership may be substituted by highly structured and repetitive tasks, comprehensive rules and procedures, and subordinates' extensive prior training and experience.
- Supportive leadership may be substituted by a cohesive workgroup and intrinsically satisfying tasks that are not too intense.

The "neutralizers" are constraints that do not allow a leader to improve subordinate satisfaction or unit performance. For instance, a limited reward and coercive power would not allow a leader to provide tangible rewards for effective behavior. As well as little authority to change work procedures and job assignments may prevent a leader from making changes to improve efficiency.

The LPC contingency model⁶⁹. The least preferred co-worker (LPC) contingency model revolves around assigning an individual's leadership style as either task-oriented or relationship-oriented. It is suggested that leaders with a low LPC score are more task-oriented than relation-oriented. In contrast, leaders with high LPC scores focus on interpersonal relations more than task achievement.

Situational favorability (determined by task structure, leader position power, and the quality of leader-member relations) impacts the relationship between a leader's LPC score and group performance. Per theory, high-LPC leaders are more effective when there is a moderate level of situational favorability. In comparison, low LPC leaders are more effective when the situation is either very favorable or unfavorable. Unfortunately, the

⁶⁸ Kerr & Jermier, 1978; Howell, et al., 1990; Podsakoff, et al. 1993

⁶⁹ Fiedler, 1967; Rice, 1978

theory is unclear about mediating variables explaining how leader LPC and situational favorability define group performance.

Normative decision model⁷⁰. The participative leadership model was developed to help managers detect when various decision procedures are probably effective. Decision quality and decision acceptance by subordinates (mediating variables) identify the outcome of a decision relating to group performance. Situational variables are properties of the decision situation that establish whether a certain decision would increase or reduce the quality and approval of a decision. Key situational variables include:

- the complexity of the decision,
- the dissemination of relevant information,
- congruence of task targets for the leader and subordinates, and
- agreement among subordinates in their purposes or preferences.

The participative decision quality is likely to be improved when:

- subordinates have relevant and not aggregated information,
- there is a high goal congruence between the leader and subordinates.

The participative decision acceptance is likely to be improved when despite initial concerns (from the subordinate's side) about the decision, there is no significant disagreement among members concerning their preferences. Open discussion of available options and the possibility to voice preferences would enhance understanding of the issue, boost feelings of procedural justice, and give a sense of ownership for the decision.

The situation defines the importance of decision quality and acceptance for group performance:

- if quality and acceptance are not important – the leader's choice of a decision has less influence on short-term unit performance,
- decision quality is not important when it is a virtual decision or there are equivalent options,

⁷⁰ Vroom & Jago, 1974

- decision acceptance is not important when subordinates do not benefit from the decision and are not obliged to implement it.

Cognitive resources theory⁷¹. Cognitive resources theory explains how a complex interaction determines the performance of a group among:

- two leader traits: intelligence and experience,
- a leader behavior: directive leadership, and
- two facets of the leadership situation: interpersonal stress and subordinate knowledge.

Interpersonal stress moderates the importance of leader intelligence and experience as indicators of group performance:

- low stress allows leader intelligence to facilitate information processing, problem-solving and improves the quality of autocratic leader decisions,
- high stress creates strong emotions that disrupt cognitive information processing, making it difficult for leaders to make use of their intelligence.

Therefore, in a stressful situation, an experienced leader (who has already learned a high-quality solution earlier with similar problems) will be more effective than an intelligent but inexperienced leader (trying to find a new solution).

Multiple-linkage model⁷². This model explains how facets of a situation can moderate a leader's control over individual and team performance. It is considered the most complex among early contingency theories as it comprises multiple leader behaviors, mediators, and situational variables. The mediating variables that determine leader influence are determinants of:

- individual performance (e.g., task skills, role clarity, task motivation) and
- team performance (e.g., task role organization, essential resources, cooperation, and mutual trust).

High performance is more likely when members:

⁷¹ Fiedler & Garcia, 1987

⁷² Yukl, 1971; Yukl, 1989.

- are highly committed to achieving task objectives,
- have the necessary task skills,
- are efficiently organized,
- have a high level of cooperation,
- have mutual trust among members, and
- have adequate resources to do the work.

The leadership behaviors that influence mediating variables involve task-oriented and relations-oriented behavior, participative leadership, and contingent reward behavior. Some situational variables directly affect the mediators and the leader's choice of behavior and moderate the effects of leader behavior on the mediators. Multiple suggestions about the influence of situational moderator variables can be found in path-goal theory, leadership substitutes theory, and the normative decision model. Table 4 shows examples of some behaviors that are relevant for situations confronting many leaders.

The multiple-linkage model distinguishes between short-term alterations that improve group performance by taking direct action and long-term activities that improve group performance by making the situation more favorable. The leader may be able to:

- reduce constraints like bureaucratic limitations on job design, task assignments, and work procedures,
- increase substitutes (e.g., strengthening the reward systems or selecting more competent employees), and
- minimize problems that limit performance, such as avoidable errors, quality defects, accidents, delays, wasted resources, unnecessary activities, duplication of effort.

Table 4

Examples of Behavioral Guidelines for Different Leadership Situations

Situation	Relevant leadership behaviors
Role ambiguity	Make clear task assignments and explain responsibilities Set clear, specific goals and deadlines for employees

	Develop effective standard procedures for repetitive tasks Clarify performance standards and priorities for objectives
Inadequate skills	Provide instruction, feedback, and coaching Encourage employees to attend relevant training programs Provide relevant job aids and self-learning tools Select employees with relevant skills and experience
Weak task commitment	Appeal to employee values and emotions Provide desirable incentives based on performance Involve employees in making task decisions Set challenging goals and express confidence in employees
Inadequate cooperation	Emphasize common interests and values Encourage cooperation and teamwork Provide incentives for group performance Use activities that build identification with the group
Scarce resources	Make action plans to identify resources needs Lobby for a larger budget allocation from the organization Find reliable (and alternate) sources of supplies Ration scarce resources and monitor their efficient use
Immediate crisis	Quickly diagnose the cause of the problem Identify relevant solutions or contingency plans Direct the response of the unit in a calm, confident way Inform people about progress in resolving the problem

Source: Yukl, 2010

Ultimately, the contingency approach shows that the situation needs to be regarded when assessing leadership behavior. In the continuously changing environment, the idea of leaders with abilities to adapt their behaviors to meet different situations is crucial. The ambiguity and inconsistency in findings in relation to the early contingency theories caused a decrease in scholarly interest⁷³.

1.3.5 Leader-Member Exchange

⁷³ Harrison, 2018

Compared to early leadership theories (that have emphasized leadership from the point of view of the leader or the followers and the context), leader-member exchange (LMX) theory takes another approach and defines leadership as a process contingent on the relationship and interaction between leaders and followers. This theory is based on the assumption that leaders build different relationships with employees, the so-called dyads. According to the LMX approach, employees are members of either an in-group or an out-group. The in-group employees tend to have a closer relationship with their leader based on trust, respect, and mutual influence. While the out-group categorized employees have a rather transactional relationship with their leader, bound to employment agreements, represented by low trust, respect, and obligation. Typically, the in-group employees are inclined to do extra work for their leaders, while the out-group employees perform to meet set expectations⁷⁴.

The leader-member exchange has been criticized for the inconsistent and contradictory results. The validity of the leader-member exchange scale (used to measure the relationship between leaders and followers) is an important issue. The later research has revealed that categorizing employees into in-group and out-group members can lead to damaging organizational effectiveness and cause conflicts⁷⁵.

1.3.6 Servant Leadership

Servant leadership may be seen as paradoxical in the leadership study because the common understanding of leadership does not coincide with leaders being servants⁷⁶. However, scholars argue that to achieve organizational success, the long-term welfare of the employees must come first⁷⁷. According to this approach, for servant leaders, self-interest is secondary, while helping others, being trustworthy and listening to the problems of others will be the first concern.

Initially, ten primary attributes of servant leadership have been established:

⁷⁴ Ibid

⁷⁵ Ibid

⁷⁶ Northouse, 2019

⁷⁷ Greenleaf, 1998, as cited in Harrison, 2018

- **Listening** – servant leaders commit to listening to team members to identify and clarify a team's will. Such leaders seek to listen receptively to what is being said and not being said. Listening also encompasses reading of para verbal communication to understand better what each team member communicates.
- **Empathy** –servant leaders strive to understand and empathize with others. They understand that employees need to be accepted and recognized for their special and unique personalities. Furthermore, servant leaders tend to assume the good intentions of team members and do not reject them as people, even if there is a need to reject their behavior or performance.
- **Healing** – servant leaders have the potential for healing themselves and others. They can recognize when team members are suffering from a variety of emotional hurts. They know how to communicate and what to say to make whole those with whom they come in contact.
- **Awareness** – is a very important attribute as it aids in understanding issues involving ethics and values. It allows leaders to view most situations from a more integrated position. However, fostering awareness can be scary because you never know what you can discover.
- **Persuasion** – instead of positioning authority, servant leaders would rely on persuasion. Servant leaders seek to convince others rather than coerce compliance. Persuasion helps a leader to build consensus within teams.
- **Conceptualization** – servant leaders are naturally able to look at a problem from a conceptualizing perspective, meaning they think beyond day-to-day realities.
- **Foresight** – this attribute enables servant-leaders to learn lessons from the past, understand the realities of the present, and the possible consequences of a decision for the future. Foresight is deeply rooted within the intuitive mind. It is suggested foresight is characteristic with which a servant-leader may be born.
- **Stewardship** – stewardship is the ability to hold something in trust for another. Comparing to stewardship, servant leadership assumes serving the needs of others.
- **Commitment to the growth of people** –servant leaders are committed to every employee's personal, professional, and spiritual growth. For example, it may entail making available funds for the development programs, taking a personal interest in

employees' ideas and suggestions, encouraging worker involvement in the decision-making process.

- **Building community** – the shift from local communities to large institutions may cause a certain sense of loss. Therefore, servant leaders seek to identify a means for building community among employees within the institution to support and help.

Later, this list was extended up to 20 attributes arguing that the previous one was not exhaustive. The extended list was classified into two groups⁷⁸:

- **Functional attributes** (vision, honesty, integrity, trust, service, modeling, pioneering, appreciation of others, and empowerment);
- **Accompanying attributes** (communication, credibility, competence, stewardship, visibility, influence, persuasion, listening, encouragement, teaching, and delegation).

It has been found that servant leadership is more effective than, for example, transformational leadership in non-profit, voluntary, and religious organizations. Servant leadership seems to be the most effective when an organization enters the maturity stage, where concern for employees and personal growth are paramount⁷⁹. It was concluded that servant leaders “portray a resolute conviction and strong character by taking on not only the role of a servant, but also the nature of a servant⁸⁰.” However, the servant leadership approach did not produce sufficient empirical evidence to justify its validity. It is argued that most statements are descriptive and have not been tested using qualitative or quantitative research methodologies. The existence of numerous proved that scholars define and measure servant leadership differently, which only increases the need for a uniform approach to measuring the concept⁸¹.

1.3.7 Transformational and Transactional Leadership

⁷⁸ Russell & Stone, 2002

⁷⁹ Smith et al., 2004

⁸⁰ Sendjaya & Sarros, 2002 (pp. 62-63)

⁸¹ Harrison, 2018

Leadership can be described from a transactional and a transformational perspective⁸². The core of the transactional leadership is exchange, where only mutual benefits are holding the leader and follower together. On the other hand, transformational leadership is based on increasing the followers' consciousness and encouraging them to aspire to high ethical standards⁸³. "Therefore, transformational leadership seeks to change the status quo by articulating to followers the problems in the current system and a compelling vision of what a new organization could be, whereas transactional leadership seeks to maintain stability within an organization through regular economic and social exchanges that achieve specific goals for both leaders and their followers⁸⁴."

Below are listed factors what represent both types of leadership.

- **Transformational leadership**⁸⁵:
 - **Idealized influence** – a leader is a positive role model for followers. Transformational leaders transmit an ideological view to the followers and give them a high sense of purpose. They ignore self-interest for the benefit of collective goals. Thus, transformational leaders are highly esteemed and receive trust and respect from followers by setting high moral standards and establishing ethical codes of conduct.
 - **Inspirational motivation** – the transformational leader inspires and motivates followers. Such leaders speak about high-performance expectations and show confidence that the followers can meet those expectations.
 - **Intellectual stimulation** – which can be described as "outside the box" thinking, the ability to encourage innovativeness and creativity through challenging followers.
 - **Individualized consideration** – is the ability to give attention and be responsive to each follower. To improve followers' performance, potential, and leadership capacity, a leader would provide support, guidance, and mentorship.

⁸² Judge, & Piccolo, 2004

⁸³ Mhatre & Riggio, 2014

⁸⁴ Lussier & Achua, 2016 (p. 328)

⁸⁵ Mhatre & Riggio, 2014

- **Transactional leadership**⁸⁶:
 - **Contingent reward** – the leader behaviors oriented to clarify the role and the task and provide followers with material and psychological rewards depending on the fulfillment of set obligations.
 - **Active management-by-exception** – refers to the leader's alertness to ensure that standards of the goal are met.
 - **Passive management-by-exception** – refers to the situations when a leader interferes only after the occurrence of noncompliance or mistake.

Table 5

Other Models of Transactional Leadership

Year	Transformational leadership factors
1985 ⁸⁷	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • clear vision of the future state of their organization • ability mobilizing followers to accept a new group identity or philosophy for their organizations • building trust within their organizations • ability using the creative deployment of self through positive self-regard
1987 ⁸⁸	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • modeling the way • inspiring a shared vision • challenging the process • enabling others to act • encouraging the heart
1990 ⁸⁹	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • articulating a vision • providing an appropriate model • fostering the acceptance of group goals • high-performance expectations • providing individualized support • individualized consideration

Source: Mhatre & Riggio, 2014

The four transformational leadership factors, together with the three forms of transactional leadership (Contingent Reward, Active Management-by-Exception, Passive Management-by-Exception), and Laissez-Faire leadership, are all measured by the Multifactor

⁸⁶ Antonakis et al., 2003

⁸⁷ Bennis & Nanus, 1985

⁸⁸ Kouzes & Posner, 1987

⁸⁹ Podsakoff et al., 1990

Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). MLQ was developed to measure various types of leader behavior using the transforming-transactional leadership model in an organizational context. Initially, transformational and transactional styles were characterized as descriptive of different types of leaders. However, in the MLQ model, they were portrayed as different classes of leader behavior. Thus, this leads to the conclusion that leaders can be both transformational and transactional; what is more, it was suggested that the most effective leaders would exhibit both styles⁹⁰.

Transformational leadership became a popular theory to many scholars and later were developed other models of transformational leadership (Table 5).

Transformational leadership is leader-centric and only slightly considers the role of followers in the leadership process. These arguments led to the development of other theories, including the followers in the leadership process, considering the idea that leadership could be shared among the followers.

1.3.8 Shared Leadership

Recently, an alternative way of conceptualizing leadership has emerged – shared leadership. Shared leadership occurs when several members of a team undertake the leadership behaviors to maximize team effectiveness. This type of leadership is a multidirectional, dynamic, simultaneous, and ongoing process⁹¹.

The construct of shared leadership is slightly deferred among researchers. Some researchers consider it a property of a group of individuals, while others see shared leadership as either an autocratic or democratic process. However, most researchers agree that shared leadership involves responsibilities distributed among team members either way, formally or informally⁹². As a leadership approach, shared leadership does not contradict other forms of leadership and can be engaged with other approaches including vertical leadership. It is possible to observe shared leadership within a team even if there

⁹⁰ Gavan O'Shea et al., 2009

⁹¹ Bergman et al., 2012

⁹² Harrison, 2018

also is a designated leader. Additionally, shared leadership does not necessarily mean that the distribution of leadership among team members is equal⁹³.

Teams with a shared leadership were reported to have less conflict, more consensus, more trust, and more cohesion. Moreover, research showed that even virtual teams were more effective in shared leadership environments⁹⁴. Shared leadership is recognized as a major predictor of team outcomes such as team effectiveness, team performance, satisfaction, and problem-solving quality⁹⁵.

1.3.9 Authentic Leadership

Authentic leadership is considered one of the newer areas of leadership research. The focus of this approach is on identifying genuine and real leadership⁹⁶. It is suggested that the insufficiency of transformational leadership with respect to ethics has triggered the development of authentic leadership. Many scholars have questioned the ethical basis for transformational leadership due to the assumption that a leader may manipulate followers to attain his/her goals. For example, it was confirmed that transformational leaders do not need to be ethical⁹⁷. On the contrary, authentic leadership theory points out the role of ethics and integrity from the onset of leadership⁹⁸. There is no unified, agreed definition of authentic leadership. However, three themes in the way in which the term is used have been identified:

- authenticity as the ‘true’ self
- self-awareness as a key element of authenticity
- authentic leadership and moral leadership as interconnecting concepts that resemble charismatic leadership⁹⁹.

These three themes suggest that: “Authentic leadership is the expression of the ‘true self’, that the leader must be relatively aware of the nature of that self in order to express it

⁹³ Hoch & Dulebohn, 2013

⁹⁴ Northouse, 2019

⁹⁵ Bergman et al., 2012

⁹⁶ Northouse, 2019

⁹⁷ Howell & Avolio, 1992

⁹⁸ Harrison, 2018

⁹⁹ Ladkin & Taylor, 2010

authentically, and that the self is normatively inclined towards moral virtue form a core of ideas which inform current theorizing of authentic leadership.”¹⁰⁰

1.4 Global Leadership

The global economy has created an increasingly complex, dynamic, and ambiguous competitive landscape for companies operating across borders. PriceWaterhouseCoopers’s 14th Annual Global CEO Survey in 2011 revealed that “bridging the global skills gap” was the biggest concern as companies seek ways to develop and mobilize staff globally. Competent global leaders are critical for companies to improve their ability to compete and succeed internationally¹⁰¹. Some companies develop global leadership programs, which include talent management and leadership succession programs. These global development initiatives include business travels (learning from colleagues in different countries), training and instructional programs, international assignments, cross-national mentorship, and global rotational programs.

Global leadership differs from leadership in general. Although, some managers claim that: “Leadership is leadership everywhere and that the major difference is the greater diversity of situations, including cultural issues.” Despite this fact, several grounds show why global leadership is more than just a difference in degree from leadership in general:

- Firstly, the context of global leadership is very complex; the cultural, economic, environmental, political, and religious differences usually are greater than those faced by domestic leaders.
- Secondly, the cognitive, attitudinal, and behavioral requirements. Global leadership behaviors will be discussed later in this sub-chapter.
- Finally, the challenges and experiences of global leaders are decidedly different from those needed to become effective domestic leaders (for example, traveling abroad to start a new entity, establish a joint venture, or acquire a local business).

Being a global leader involves managing multinational teams, which can lead to frustrating management dilemmas. Not understanding cultural differences may generate barriers to

¹⁰⁰ Ladkin & Taylor, 2010 (p. 65)

¹⁰¹ Caligiuri & Tarique, 2012

effective teamwork. These barriers can be subtle and difficult to recognize until substantial damage has already been done. Based on a qualitative research with multiple managers across the globe that aimed to understand what kind of challenges may arise from managing multinational teams, four main challenges have been categorized¹⁰²:

- **Direct versus indirect communication.** Western cultures typically communicate directly and explicitly. While in many other cultures, meaning is nested in the way the message is conveyed. The differences can lead to multiple misunderstandings and damage team relationships. For example, one American manager, who was leading a project to build the U.S. and Japanese product, explained that Japanese employees would discuss everything within their organization after the discussion with Americans to ensure harmony in the rest of the organization (what would delay the project). He also mentioned that when Japanese people say “yes,” they mean “I’m listening to you.” These and several other differences led to significant disruptions in company operations. Therefore, the American manager has sent an email quoting these challenges to her boss, who appreciated the direct warnings. However, Japanese colleagues were embarrassed due to a violation of their norms of uncovering and discussing problems.
- **Trouble with accents and fluency.** Although English prevails in the international business environment, multiple misunderstandings may occur because of nonnative speakers’ lack of fluency, strong accents, or translation problems. These complications may also impact perceptions of status or competence. For example, a Latin American member of a multinational team felt like he couldn’t express his thoughts and ideas with his U.S. colleagues due to language differences. Alternatively, one member of a U.S.-Japanese team described her team member as a person who was not interested in Japanese consultant’s feedback because their English wasn’t fluent. Consequently, they weren’t seen as intelligent enough or as someone who could add value.
- **Differing attitudes toward hierarchy and authority.** A challenge inherent in multicultural teamwork is that teams have a relatively flat structure by design. However, in some cultures, people are treated differently depending on their status

¹⁰² Brett, 2006

in an organization. Therefore, some team members may feel uncomfortable in flat teams. If such team members submit to colleagues with a higher status, such behavior will be considered appropriate when most team members belong to a hierarchical culture. But they can damage their position and authority if most of the team belongs to an egalitarian culture. For example, a Mexican manager explained that people usually behave humbly in his culture. Therefore, if a person does understand something, he or she should frame it as a question and leave it open-ended, out of respect. But working with Americans, such a behavior worked against the Mexican manager. American colleagues thought their Mexican team members did not know what he was talking about and wavering on his answers.

- **Conflicting norms for decision making.** The decision-making process enormously differs from culture to culture. One of these differences is how much analysis is required beforehand and how quickly decisions should be made. In the American culture, managers like to make decisions very quickly and with relatively little analysis compared to other cultures. For example, a Brazilian manager at an American company was negotiating terms of purchasing Korean products for Latin America. He explained that both sides agreed on three points on the first day of negotiations, and the U.S.-Spanish side wanted to start with point four on the following day. However, Korean colleagues wanted to re discuss the first three points.

It is also important to underline that “[t]he leadership literature is based on a limiting set of assumptions, mostly reflecting Western industrialized culture. Almost all of the prevailing theories of leadership, and about 98% of the empirical evidence at hand, are rather distinctly American in character: individualistic rather than collectivistic, stressing follower responsibilities rather than rights, assuming hedonism rather than a commitment to duty or altruistic motivation, assuming centrality of work and democratic value orientation, and emphasizing assumptions of rationality rather than asceticism, religion, or superstition.¹⁰³” Therefore, most of the previous research studies and models for global leadership substantially reflect Western characteristics. In contrast, an effective global leadership model should include universal and indigenous perspectives, “universal and

¹⁰³ House & Aditya, 1997 (pp. 409-410)

contingent characteristics consisting of underlying competencies that influence the attitudes, thinking, behaviors, and capacities of a global company to achieve its common goals in the globalized context¹⁰⁴.” For example, some companies in South Korea are strongly influenced by Western-originated leadership concepts; however, they incorporate this Western concept into the culture of Korean society and organizations¹⁰⁵.

Table 6 represents indigenous leadership studies conducted in various countries. An indigenous study focuses on studying a local phenomenon from a native perspective, commonly conducted by local scholars in local languages¹⁰⁶. Yukl’s (2012) hierarchical taxonomy of leadership behavior is applied to identify universal and indigenous aspects (task-, relationship-, change-orientation, external behaviors). Not all behavioral statements and competencies from the considered indigenous studies could find a place in the applied taxonomy. Therefore, the remaining statements are classified under the following categories: professional ethics/emotional intelligence, building personal relationships and caring, knowledgeable (expertise and intelligence), open and sharing, fair, trusting/approachable, flexible. Below are listed some examples of effective leader behaviors and competencies (the full list of competencies and behaviors can be found in the Appendix 1).

Table 6

List of Studies of Effective Leader Competencies (Behaviors)

Country	Findings	Study Sample
5 ASEAN countries ¹⁰⁷	4 factors, 24 items	289 managers (Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore, and Thailand)
China ¹⁰⁸	14 effective behaviors	35 senior, middle, and entry-level managers in a large state-owned telecommunications company
Egypt ¹⁰⁹	25 effective behavioral statements	55 top, middle, and front-line managers and nonmanagerial staff in the Egyptian public health care sector
Mexico ¹¹⁰	18 effective behavioral	27 middle, front-line

¹⁰⁴ Kim & McLean, 2015 (p.6)

¹⁰⁵ Yoon et al., 2017

¹⁰⁶ Ibid

¹⁰⁷ Taormina & Selvarajah, 2005

¹⁰⁸ Wang, 2011

¹⁰⁹ Hamlin et al., 2010

	statements	managers/nonmanagerial staff in the Mexican public health care sector
New Zealand ¹¹¹	2 factors and 17 scales	453 public-sector managers (senior, middle, and supervisors) and nonmanagers
Romania ¹¹²	30 effective behavioral statements	36 managers and nonmanagerial staff in the Romanian public health care sector
South Korea ¹¹³	20 effective behavioral categories	45 managers (top, middle, front-line) and nonmanagerial employees in Korean. For-profit, large-sized companies
Three EU countries (Germany, the UK, Romania) ¹¹⁴	10 effective behavioral criteria	308 managers in the private and public sectors
The United Kingdom ¹¹⁵	8 positive behavioral criteria	487 senior, middle, and front-line managers across the public, private, and third sectors
The United States and Canada ¹¹⁶	17 leadership competencies	Managers and nonmanagers from more than 450 public and private sector organizations across industries

Source: Park, Jeong, Yoon & Lim, 2018

Effective Leader Behaviors and Competencies:

Task-oriented:

- Planning (e.g., Prioritizing, organizing, and scheduling work);
- Clarifying (e. g., Setting direction and instilling a clear sense of purpose);
- Monitoring (e. g., Maintaining the big picture and leaving time to manage);
- Problem-solving (e.g., Getting to the root of problems and fixing causes);

Relationship-oriented:

- Supporting (e. g., Friendly and supportive/ Relates well with others);
- Recognizing (e. g., Highlighting the positive and recognizing good performance);
- Developing (e. g., Training successors);
- Empowering (e. g., Delegating well and consulting with staff);

¹¹⁰ Hamlin et al, 2011

¹¹¹ Cammock et al., 1995

¹¹² Hamlin & Patel, 2012

¹¹³ Chai et al., 2016

¹¹⁴ Patel & Hamlin, 2012

¹¹⁵ Hamlin & Hatton, 2013

¹¹⁶ Bergmann et al., 1999

Change-oriented:

- Envisioning change (e. g., Creating and describing a vision);
- Encouraging innovation (e. g., Being an initiator, not a follower (progressive));
- Advocating change (e. g., Managing the changes required to realize a vision);
- Facilitating collective learning (e. g., Promoting good news stories emanating from the department);

External behavior:

- Networking (e. g., Responding to identified customer needs);
- External monitoring (e. g., Constantly evaluating emerging technologies);
- Representing (e. g., Taking responsibility for own or group's actions);

Professional ethics/ emotional intelligence (e. g., Straightforward and honest (integrity));

Building personal relationships and caring (e. g., Respect the self-esteem of others);

Knowledgeable (expertise and intelligence), (e. g., Display technical skills, makes credible presentations);

Open and sharing (e. g., Open communication/ Share information);

Fair (e.g., Fair, equitable, unbiased work distribution and treatment);

Trusting/approachable (e. g., Develop a sense of trust with staff/ approachable);

Flexible – be flexible.

The analysis of the competencies mentioned above results in an integrative global leadership framework that outlines effective global leader and manager behaviors contingent on the four dimensions presented in Table 7¹¹⁷.

Effective global leaders and managers “create the proper organizational design and control system to make the guiding vision a reality, and using those systems to align the behavior of employees with the organization's values and goals¹¹⁸”.

¹¹⁷ Park et al., 2018

¹¹⁸ Kets de Vries et al., 2004 (p.479)

Table 7***Global Leader and Manager Behaviors and Four Dimensions***

Effective global leader behaviors (convergent): <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Intercultural competence • Emotional intelligence • Social/networking skills • Virtual teamwork • Global mind/knowledge • Ethics • Openness/flexibility; and communication 	Effective global leader behaviors (culture-distinctive): <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ethics, morals, and standards • Care and personal relationships • Organizational knowledge
Task (plan/clarify/monitor/solve): <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Prioritize, organize, and schedule • Provide a clear direction • Clarify purpose and expectations • Manage time, resources, and plans • Assess quality, output, and progress • Identify problems, causes, and resolve them • Build global and organizational expertise • Share information 	Relationship (support/develop/recognize/empower): <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Respond quickly and help employees • Listen to employees' needs • Recognize and reward • Coach and mentor • Delegate and consult • Create and share knowledge • Promote learning • Show concern for others • Connect emotionally with subordinates • Build personal and close relationships • Treat others fairly and equally • Build trust
Change (envision/encourage/advocate/facilitate): <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lead with a vision • Introduce innovations • Advocate for change • Adapt work conditions • Motivate and celebrate • Manage emotions and have integrity • Commit to morals and standards • Flexible • Promote fairness • Open communication • Accessible 	External (network/watch/represent/ally): <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Engage and develop (outside) partnerships • Respond to customer needs • Scan and analyze environments • Manage opportunities and risks • Evaluate trends and technology • Protect members • Behave as a role model

Source: Park et al., 2018

It was reported that around one-third of the effective global leader qualities are peculiar to particular contexts, including country affiliations. Universal global leadership competencies include¹¹⁹:

- the ability to express a vision, values, strategy, and in-depth business and managerial knowledge;
- the ability to cope with uncertainty;
- the ability to learn, integrate, coordinate, and innovate;
- the ability to communicate effectively and develop and empower others.

¹¹⁹ Park et al., 2018

Chapter 2. Communication and Communication Styles

2.1 Communication Theory

The central issue of all communication research is exploring participants of the communication process, their acts, and the effects of these acts¹²⁰. However, there is no unanimity in terms of the meaning of communication. Communication is considered one of the broadest concepts because everyone understands what it is but has its own idea of how it should be conceptualized. For example, in the Latin language, “communicare” was understood as sharing with, making it generally accessible, or discussing together¹²¹. Predominantly, communication relates to the process of meaning creation; individuals create and use meaning to interpret social events. **The communication theory suggests three distinct ways in which communication works:** a one-way process of meaning construction, communication as a two-way process of meaning construction, and communication as an omnidirectional diachronic process of meaning construction.

1. Communication as a one-way process of meaning construction. Initially, the mass communication theories considered communication a one-way process, where a sender passes the message to a receiver. However, the theories differed on the identity of the process of sending the message.

- Some theories suggest that **communication is a process of dissemination** – a flow of information spreading the message by revealing its meaning. In this process, the attention is on the flow of information, where the information itself is viewed as objective¹²². It is enough to reach the receiver to make the communication effective for this model. However, this model was claimed to be rather simple. Then, there was a suggestion to consider a more **circular model, where feedback plays an important role**. This concept originates from cybernetics – an exploration of purposeful levels of behavior within systems. The feedback mechanisms are crucial

¹²⁰ Van Ruler, 2018

¹²¹ Glare, 1968, as cited in Van Ruler, 2018

¹²² Shannon & Weaver, 1949, as cited in Van Ruler, 2018

in communication theory¹²³. Feedback plays a substantial role in purposeful behavior; it adjusts the behavior and results in a particular effect. The feedback concept does not make the communication process circular or dynamic; therefore, this concept has nothing to do with a one-way view of communication. Formal organizational communication might be a great example of this approach — one-way communication when an organization wants to disseminate new internal regulations to all employees. Feedback, in this case, is not obligatory; however, an organization is open to employees' opinions about new regulations.

- Other theories see communication as the sender's effort to generate a behavior change in the receiver – change concerning the meaning of the situation. **Two-Step Flow**¹²⁴ is one of the theories of this type; it suggests that mass media informs a certain group of individuals, who successively influence the meanings perceived by others. **The personal influence model**¹²⁵ suggests that communication is a process of passing the message from a sender to one or more receivers, where meaning construction is mediated by certain influential individuals or by peers. Within the organizational communication, it is possible to imagine that organization would like to first share information about changes with managers and leaders to collect feedback and amend before disseminating it to all employees.

While the one-way approach is practical for information sharing and persuasive communication, the newer approach sees communication as a two-way process, which is interactive by nature and engaging at all levels¹²⁶. This approach changes the view of the process from sender-receiver orientation to a role player orientation, where participants are dynamic and proactive. This implies that the receiver may be willing to not only share the meaning received from the sender but also create a new meaning and exchange it with the involved participants.

2. Communication as a two-way process of meaning construction. When considering the two-way communication process, interaction plays a crucial role. However, literature

¹²³ Wiener, 1961, as cited in Van Ruler, 2018

¹²⁴ Lazarsfeld et al., 1948, as cited in van Ruler, 2018

¹²⁵ Katz & Lazarsfeld, 1955, as cited in Van Ruler, 2018

¹²⁶ Servaes, 1999, as cited in Van Ruler, 2018

provides different interpretations of interaction in this particular context. Yet again, the term originates from Latin, which has a meaning of **not only having a direct dialogue but also influencing each other**¹²⁷. Consequently, interaction may refer to the feedback process along with the direct interaction between people. However, the term interaction may also refer to a more abstract process, where individuals relate to other meanings and develop their meanings¹²⁸.

The **interpersonal communication theory** views interaction as a person-to-person or group interaction, while the **relational communication theory** sees this notion in each interpersonal exchange, which in turn bears a message, as well as a statement about this relationship. Relationships emerge from the interaction between individuals, which has a number of rules that manage their communicative behaviors. By following these rules, the participants approve of the defined relationship¹²⁹. Interaction focuses on how individuals engage in reciprocal conversations and come together in creating meaning. The literature also shows references to the concept of dialogue, where the focus lies on the acts of appeal to another and listening with respect to enhancing the quality of the communication¹³⁰.

The **strategic communication theory** sees communication through the lens of the **Communicative Constitution of Organizations (CCO)** – a perspective characterized by the claim that communication is the process in which organizations are created. It is suggested that CCO thinking begins with the premise that communication is the primary model of explaining social reality¹³¹. Typical of CCO and related approaches is the view that this model is achieved through interactive conversations between individuals.

The CCO model originates from speech theory focusing on daily human interpersonal exchanges, and it is argued that organizations arise through members' sense-making activities¹³². It is also proposed that individuals are guided by each other, which leads to moments of consensus; however, this consensus is continuously renegotiated.

¹²⁷ Neumann, 2008, as cited in Van Ruler, 2018

¹²⁸ Van Ruler, 2018

¹²⁹ Watzlawick et al., 1967, as cited in Van Ruler, 2018

¹³⁰ Broome, 2009, as cited in Van Ruler, 2018

¹³¹ Kuhn, & Cooren, 2009, as cited in Van Ruler, 2018

¹³² Taylor & Van Every, 2000, as cited in Van Ruler, 2018

The literature suggests another approach originating from the theory of social systems. This approach argues that what is important is not how an individual understands a message, but how the following message interprets the previous one it is related to. Only a communicative event can define a specific way of understanding the immediately preceding communicative event¹³³.

Within the organizational setting, an excellent example of a two-way meaning construction process could be a yearly review process. Most organizations incorporate a feedback procedure, where employees are asked to provide feedback to their managers, leaders, and peers. Accordingly, they receive feedback from their managers and peers as well. After receiving feedback, an appraisals meeting is appointed, where this feedback is discussed with the immediate supervisor – this is a communication event where participants influence each other.

3. Communication as an omnidirectional diachronic process of meaning construction.

According to the omnidirectional diachronic process, interaction is viewed as a **dynamic interplay between participants** (senders and receivers), which influences the effects of communication exchange. Consistent with this approach, the attention focused on the ongoing development of meaning.

The communication process can be explained as a continuous and simultaneous interaction of variables that are changing, moving, and affecting each other¹³⁴. Consequently, interaction means the situation in which the communication takes place (involving a sender in the receiver's interpretation) but does not necessarily imply the conversation. **This approach is developed from constructivism** “if men define situations as real, they are real in their consequences¹³⁵.” This understanding of communication presumes that communication is a tool with the help of which the social domain is formed, understood, and reproduced. Another assumption is based on the consideration that individuals interpret the social environment, create meaningful perceptions, and act according to their

¹³³ Schoeneborn & Blaschke, 2014, as cited in Van Ruler, 2018

¹³⁴ Berlo, 1960, as cited in Van Ruler, 2018

¹³⁵ Donsbach, 2008, (p. 946)

interpretations. Here, the focus lies on how individuals create meaning in their interactions¹³⁶.

The ritual model of communication also views communication as an omnidirectional diachronic process of meaning development. This model distinguishes transmission and ritual models of communication, where transmission models are sender-receiver patterns and ritual model is a symbolic process, whereby reality is changed and transformed repeatedly in a very dynamic and unrestrained way. **Evolutionary or transactional** approach sees the communication process as a **constantly moving process that depends on the past** to some degree. These links to the past provide information about the present and the future. Thus, the communication process involves plural meanings creations and is considered an unpredictable, ongoing process that develops as it occurs¹³⁷.

Communication as an omnidirectional diachronic process of meaning construction in the organizational setting can be evident in team communication. Communication in the team has specific dynamics based on the past, particularly the relationships team members have. One team can contain teammates that worked together for several years and some that worked together for just a few days. It is also possible that some teammates got to know each other in a previous workplace and are currently still working together. The day-to-day communication exchange within the team revolves around the ongoing development of meaning.

2.2 The Importance of Organizational Communication

Some scholars compare organizational communication to the organization's lifeblood, the glue that ties the organization, or oil that smoothens the organization's function. Researchers define the importance of communication in the organization by the amount of time the members spend on communication. It was shown that employees spend between

¹³⁶ Donsbach, 2008

¹³⁷ Van Ruler, 2018

50% and 80% of their time communicating, proving the importance of communication in the workplace¹³⁸.

Communication defines how organizations function. Initially, organizations were defined through groups of individuals harmoniously working together to achieve production-related goals. In this model, communication becomes a tool by which members design, distribute and pursue organizational goals¹³⁹. It was also established that **organizations cannot exist separately from their members** and are created and reproduced by means of communication between participants¹⁴⁰. Organizational communication is considered a variable to measure the extent to which information related to the workplace and the job is transmitted to the employees by the organization¹⁴¹. Employees recognize the importance of communication more, particularly the service workers¹⁴².

Communication is a human activity that connects and produces relationships. This activity involves both verbal and nonverbal cues and provides a platform for building relationships¹⁴³. In the organizational context, communication is not just information passing; **any organization's failure or accomplishment depends on communication.** Communication is the act of organizing, and communicative acts carry out organizing, coordinating, informing, arranging and, last but not least, managing tasks. Therefore, communication satisfaction depends on both formal and informal communication¹⁴⁴.

1. Formal communication. Communication is defined as formal when it is officially recognized by an organization, and when messages go both downward and upward through the official channels. Formal communication includes reports, newsletters, conferences and is primarily determined by hierarchy or formal procedure¹⁴⁵. In most cases, the information conveyed through formal communication channels facilitates managers' activities. Formal communication is also seen as the extent to which the organization transmits job-related

¹³⁸ Giri & Pavan Kumar, 2010

¹³⁹ Gardner et al., 2001, as cited in Giri & Pavan Kumar, 2010

¹⁴⁰ Iedema & Wodak, 1999, as cited in Giri & Pavan Kumar, 2010

¹⁴¹ Price, 1997, as cited in Giri & Pavan Kumar, 2010

¹⁴² Giri, & Pavan Kumar, 2010

¹⁴³ Duncan & Moriarty, 1998, as cited in Sarapaivanich et al., 2019

¹⁴⁴ Kandlousi et al, 2010

¹⁴⁵ Litterst & Eyo, 1982

information to the employees. Knowing the formal scheme of the organization, the nature of communication flows within the organization may be predictable. Literature shows a positive relationship between formal communication and job satisfaction, overall satisfaction, decreased coordination costs, reduced conflict, reinforced trust, and reduced level of negative effects of rumors¹⁴⁶.

2. Informal communication. Informal communication is no less important than formal communication. In fact, the existence of an informal system in the organization is inevitable as employees do not want to be treated as means to an end¹⁴⁷. Employees interact as a whole and bring their problems and purposes to the workplace, and through social events, employees interact and discover some similarities in attitudes, opinions, and values, which results in them becoming good acquaintances or even friends¹⁴⁸.

The function of informal communication is to support the employees' private purposes, while formal communication should serve the organization's purposes¹⁴⁹. **Informal communication allows employees to discuss their problems, attitudes, job, interests, which consequently leads to employees' higher job satisfaction.** Moreover, informal communication generates the source of information about employees' problems and morale for managers, which helps to understand employees better and successfully lead them¹⁵⁰. Due to insufficiency or ambiguity of the information delivered through the formal channels, such informal channels as grapevine and gossip may complete gaps that formal communication does not consider. Employees rely on informal channels when they do not obtain sufficient information through formal channels. Employees rely on such informal channels as grapevine even stronger when they feel threatened, insecure, under stress, and communication from the management is limited¹⁵¹.

¹⁴⁶ Kandlousi et al., 2010

¹⁴⁷ Øgaard et al., 2008

¹⁴⁸ Hargie et al., 2003

¹⁴⁹ Øgaard et al., 2008

¹⁵⁰ Kandlousi et al., 2010

¹⁵¹ Ibid

2.3 Communication Styles

Norton is the first scholar who introduced and defined communicator styles to scientific literature. He has conceptualized communicator style as “the way one verbally and paraverbally interacts to signal how literal meaning should be taken, interpreted, filtered, or understood.”¹⁵² Later this definition has been challenged by De Vries et al., who proposed the following, more comprehensive definition of communication style as: “the characteristic way a person sends verbal, paraverbal, and nonverbal signals in social interactions denoting (a) who he or she is or wants to (appear to) be, (b) how he or she tends to relate to people with whom he or she interacts, and (c) in what way his or her messages should usually be interpreted.”¹⁵³ The latter definition goes beyond Norton’s one by including identity and interactional aspects of communicative behaviors. For example, “somebody who exhibits conversational dominance, may not only convey that somebody should take the message serious (i.e., [c]), but may also convey status information (i.e., [a]) and how she or he wants the conversational partner to react (i.e., submissive—[b]).”¹⁵⁴

2.3.1 Communication Styles Measures

Well-known instruments to measure general communication styles include the Communicator Style Measure (CSM)¹⁵⁵, Relational Communication Scale (RCS)¹⁵⁶, and Communication Style Inventory (CSI)¹⁵⁷.

2.3.1.1 Communicator Style Measure¹⁵⁸

This measure comprises nine independent variables (descriptive of one’s style) and one dependent variable (the evaluative consequence of the independent variables):

¹⁵² Norton, 1978 (p. 99)

¹⁵³ De Vries et al, 2009 (p. 179)

¹⁵⁴ De Vries et al., 2013 (p. 507)

¹⁵⁵ Norton, 1978; Norton, 1983

¹⁵⁶ Burgoon & Hale, 1987

¹⁵⁷ De Vries et al., 2013

¹⁵⁸ Norton, 1978; Norton, 1983

- *Dominant*. This quality refers to the tendency to take control of social situations. A dominant individual typically speaks quite often in social situations. (e.g., “I try to take charge of things when I am with people.”)
- *Dramatic*. This quality refers to how “verbally alive” an individual is in his/her communication. Usually, such an individual is quite picturesque and tends to exaggerate. (e.g., “Regularly I tell jokes, anecdotes and stories when I communicate.”)
- *Contentious/Argumentative*. Depicts communicating in an aggressive fashion. This quality refers to an individual who tends to quarrel and dispute with others. (e.g., “When I disagree with somebody, I am very quick to challenge them.”)
- *Animated/Expressive*. This quality refers to how an individual is active nonverbally. As a rule, such an individual is facially expressive and active in gesturing. (e.g., “I tend to constantly gesture when I communicate.”)
- *Impression Leaving*. This quality refers to a degree to which an individual is affecting as a communicator. Such an individual manifests a memorable style of communicating. (e.g., “I leave people with an impression of me which the definitely tend to remember.”)
- *Relaxed*. This quality refers to an absence of tension or anxiety in an individual’s speech. Usually, a relaxed communicator is calm and collected when talking. (e.g., “Under pressure I come across as a relaxed speaker.”)
- *Attentive*. An attentive communicator makes sure that others listen carefully to what they have to say. (e.g., “Usually, I deliberately react in such a way that people know that I am listening to them.”)
- *Open*. This quality refers to how self-disclosing an individual is. An open individual tends to reveal personal things or openly show emotions and feelings. (e.g., “I readily reveal personal things about myself.”)
- *Friendly*. This quality refers to an individual who is kind and seldom hostile towards others. Friendly individual is usually regarded with high esteem by others. (e.g., “Whenever I communicate, I tend to be very encouraging to people.”)
- The dependent variable is *Communicator Image* and refers to how good an individual is as a communicator. If the person feels comfortable and finds it easy

when talking to others, he/she has a good communicator image. (e.g., “I always find it very easy to communicate on a one-to-one basis with strangers.”)

Although the Communicator Style Measure (CSM) reported various validation studies, scholars have criticized the partially low internal reliabilities of the scales. Despite this fact, Norton’s definition and description of communicator styles have remained highly influential in the field. As a result, Norton’s research has motivated many studies, particularly in the areas of educational and organizational communication¹⁵⁹.

The CSM has shown that the way people communicate is situationally influenced in the workplace¹⁶⁰. Significant and meaningful differences were recorded between communication in general versus this occurring in stressful work conditions. Furthermore, the empirical evidence shows that communicator style is affected differently by various kinds of job-related stress factors and shows how individuals communicate in unique ways when confronted with stress conditions at work¹⁶¹.

Communicator styles measure was used in many studies within the customer services sector. For example, the research¹⁶² focused on customer-oriented employees has provided evidence that¹⁶³:

- *A contentious communication style* negatively influences the communicator’s persuasive power, which can negatively affect employee effectiveness. This outcome ultimately affects the work results like customers’ service experiences, resulting in their dissatisfaction and/or displeasure.
- *Relaxed communication style* has a positive impact on consumers. It induces calm and peaceful emotions, thus encouraging comfortable and positive emotional responses.
- *Open communication style* was found to have a significant and positive impact on consumers. An open-style communicator shows sociable, unreserved, frank,

¹⁵⁹ Waldherr & Muck, 2011

¹⁶⁰ Data were obtained from a large southeastern university medical center in the US at two points of time, approximately 9 months apart: time 1 = 515; time 2 = 581

¹⁶¹ Pettegrew et al., 1981

¹⁶² A self-report email questionnaire was randomly distributed to 2588 luxury restaurant consumers in all 50 states in the US; 527 respondents returned the questionnaire

¹⁶³ Kang & Hyun, 2012

non-secretive, and self-disclosed behaviors, thus inducing the listener's trust. Supervisor's open communication style was resulting in employees' wish to stay in the organization.

- *Attentive communication style* has shown a substantial impact on consumers. Expressing empathy and exhibiting total engagement in interaction with other communicators maximizes communication efficiency.
- *Impression leaving communication style* played an essential role in a service provider's customer orientation. When a person perceives significant and favorable stimuli from a communicator, they tend to maintain a compelling memory of the communicator for an extended period.

The above research focused on customer-oriented employees, and the results showed the most effective communication styles that are critical determinants for a service provider to be successfully customer-oriented. Five types of communication styles were shown to have a positive impact, while the *contentious communication* style was revealed to have a negative effect. These results are consistent with existing communication theory, which explains the impact of communication style on building close relationships among individuals.

Another research in the customer services sector¹⁶⁴ has shown that a service provider's communication style significantly related to customer satisfaction. This relationship was moderated by service criticality and service nature. Customers relied on the service provider's communication style when assessing the services they received. It was recorded that the assessments of the provider's communication were significantly related to assessments of the service. For example, customers were more satisfied with the provided service when the provider's communication was more satisfying for the customer. It was found that affiliative and dominant styles were related strongly to evaluations of the service. While affiliative style generally produced higher satisfaction, dominant/active style generated less favorable evaluations. In addition, it was shown that the criticality of the service moderated the relationship between the dominant style of communication and

¹⁶⁴ The data was drawn from 366 adult consumers who had purchased financial, legal, and tax-related services from 12 professional service firms in the US.

customer satisfaction. The highly critical situation is defined as the one seen as very important by the customer, while the low critical situation is seen as less important or provoking less anxiety. In highly critical situations, providers with a more dominant communication style were similarly satisfying to their customers compared to providers with a less dominant style. What mattered was that someone was in control over the situation. However, in the less critical situations, the customers were less satisfied when the provider adopted a more dominant communication style¹⁶⁵.

Furthermore, CSM was used in the research¹⁶⁶ that explored the relationship between communicator style and humor use. The research revealed that both managers and subordinates engaged in positive humor; however, subordinates reported using considerably more positive humor than managers. Subordinates used more positive humor when they were less inclined to employ expressive or negative humor due to power differentials. Furthermore, it was found that individuals who adopted a more dominant communication style used considerably more humor than individuals with a less dominant communication style did¹⁶⁷.

2.3.1.2 Relational Communication Scale¹⁶⁸

The primary purpose of this scale was to conceptualize relational communication as the verbal and nonverbal patterns present in communication that determines interpersonal relationships. As a result, the following 12 relation communication dimensions were identified: Dominance-Submission, Intimacy, Affection-Hostility, Intensity of Involvement, Inclusion-Exclusion, Trust, Depth-Superficiality, Emotional Arousal, Composure, Similarity, Formality, and Task-Social Orientation. Based on the related measures, 32 items were constructed that reflected the relational themes. Subsequently, a few possible factor solutions for the 12 dimensions were generated, and in the end, an 8-factor solution was recommended:

- Immediacy/Affection (“Person A was highly involved in the conversation.”)

¹⁶⁵ Webster & Sundaram, 2009

¹⁶⁶ The data was collected from 222 students in the US. Only 106 valid manager/subordinate dyads.

¹⁶⁷ Martin et al., 2004

¹⁶⁸ Burgoon & Hale, 1987

- Similarity/Depth (“A didn’t care what B thinks.”)
- Receptivity/Trust (“A wanted B to trust him/her.”)
- Composure (“A was calm and poised with B.”)
- Formality (“A made the interaction very formal.”)
- Dominance (“A was dominating the conversation.”)
- Equality (“A didn’t treat B as an equal.”)
- Task Orientation (“A wanted to stick to the main purpose of the interaction.”).

This solution best captured “the relational meanings that are imbedded in all communication interchanges¹⁶⁹.”

While developing the Relational Communication Style, different concepts were synthesized into seven dimensions. The focus of the research was not to define the term communication style but to describe and classify the relational messages that individuals transmit while interacting¹⁷⁰.

The RCS has been used to examine relational messages in several communication contexts; however, it was not popular among workplace studies. The RCS has measured relational meanings associated with immediacy behaviors, expectancy violations, conflict behaviors, deceptive cues, reticence cues, and reciprocal and compensatory behavior patterns. In the broader sense, the RCS was used in studies of physician-patient interaction, marital satisfaction, computer-mediated interaction, and relational development¹⁷¹.

2.3.1.3 Communication Styles Inventory (CSI)¹⁷²

The above-listed measures are based on pre-existing conceptions about the content and form of communication styles. In the later research, the lexical approach has emerged to minimize the bias from deciding what items should be included in the questionnaires. The lexical approach to study communication styles is based on the premise that anything that can be said about how we communicate must be encoded in language and documented in a

¹⁶⁹ Burgoon & Hale, 1987, (p. 40)

¹⁷⁰ Waldherr & Muck, 2011

¹⁷¹ Hale et al., 2004

¹⁷² De Vries et al., 2013

dictionary. Therefore, a dictionary should be a starting point for acquiring a comprehensive list of words on communication styles¹⁷³.

De Vries, et al. (2009) conducted a study on exploring communication styles using a lexical approach. The study's goal was to identify the main factors in the variety of adjectives and verbs to describe communicative behavior. A list of 744 adjectives and 837 verbs was created, and from that list seven factors were extracted: preciseness, reflectiveness, expressiveness, supportiveness, emotionality, niceness, and threateningness¹⁷⁴. Drawing on the lexical study, personality studies, and deception, as well as impression management studies, the Communication Styles Inventory (CSI) was developed¹⁷⁵. CSI represents six behavioral communication style dimensions, where each dimension consists of four facets:

- Expressiveness (X):
 - Talkativeness (e.g., "I have a hard time keeping myself silent when around other people.")
 - Conversational dominance (e.g., "I often determine which topics are talked about during a conversation.")
 - Humor (e.g., "Because of my humor, I'm often the center of attention among a group of people.")
 - Informality (e.g., "I address others in a very casual way.")
- Preciseness (P)
 - Structuredness (e.g., "I always express a clear chain of thoughts when I argue a point.")
 - Thoughtfulness (e.g., "I think carefully before I say something.")
 - Substantiveness (e.g., "Conversations with me always involve some important topic.")
 - Conciseness (e.g., "Most of the time, I only need a few words to explain something.")

¹⁷³ De Vries et al., 2009

¹⁷⁴ Waldherr & Muck, 2011

¹⁷⁵ De Vries et al., 2013

- Verbal Aggressiveness (VA; which comprises the lexical factors Threateningness, reversed Niceness, and reversed Supportiveness)
 - Angriness (e.g., “I can sometimes react somewhat irritably to people.”)
 - Authoritarianism (e.g., “When I feel others should do something for me, I ask for it in a demanding tone of voice.”)
 - Derogatoriness (e.g., “I have at times made people look like fools.”)
 - Nonsupportiveness (e.g., “I always show a lot of understanding for other people’s problems.” Reversed.)
- Questioningness (Q; in the lexical study this factor was named Reflectiveness)
 - Unconventionality (e.g., “In discussions, I often put forward unusual points of view.”)
 - Philosophicalness (e.g., “I like to talk with others about the deeper aspects of our existence.”)
 - Inquisitiveness (e.g., “I always ask how people arrive at their conclusions.”)
 - Argumentativeness (e.g., “To stimulate discussion, I sometimes express a view different from that of my conversation partner.”)
- Emotionality (E)
 - Sentimentality (e.g., “People can tell that I am emotionally touched by some topics of conversation.”)
 - Worrisomeness (e.g., “When I’m worried about something, I find it hard to talk about anything else.”)
 - Tension (e.g., “Because of stress, I am sometimes unable to express myself properly.”)
 - Defensiveness (e.g., “I am not always able to cope easily with critical remarks.”)
- Impression Manipulativeness (IM)
 - Ingratiation (e.g., “Sometimes I use flattery to get someone in a favorable mood.”)
 - Charm (e.g., “I sometimes flirt a little bit to win somebody over.”)
 - Inscrutableness (e.g., “I make sure that people cannot read it from my face when I don’t appreciate them.”)

- Concealingness (e.g., “I sometimes conceal information to make me look better.”)

The Communication Styles Inventory is considered an instrument that grasps most of the primary lexical dimensions of communication styles and behavioral communication styles. What is more, the association of this Inventory with personality-based instruments implies that, to some extent, the communication styles can be considered communicative expressions of personality traits¹⁷⁶.

The usage of this measure takes an international path. One research¹⁷⁷ used CSI to investigate the effects of perceived transformational and transactional leadership styles on communication styles among employees in manufacturing organizations within South Africa. It was recorded that leaders can utilize a specific communication style to enhance the relationship with subordinates¹⁷⁸. Another study¹⁷⁹ focused on exploring the impact of a leader’s communication style on the quality of interpersonal exchanges between leaders and followers and how it turns into the employee’s affective organizational commitment. This research took into consideration the context of Peru. The precise communication style has reported a significant direct association to affective organizational commitment. Expressiveness, preciseness, and questioningness have shown a significant positive relation to LMX, while verbal aggressiveness recorded an important negative one¹⁸⁰:

- Preciseness in a leader’s communication showed that employees value a leader’s ability to communicate in a concise, precise, and structured manner. Leaders who adopt precise communication style can build trust through projecting effectiveness, professionalism, and expertise;
- Expressiveness and questioningness contribute to LMX by building closeness with the leader and a healthy exchange of opinions. Such closeness allows to feel employees that they take part in defining their tasks and are included in a decision-making process that affects their work;

¹⁷⁶ De Vries et al., 2013

¹⁷⁷ Crews et al., 2019

¹⁷⁸ The data was collected from 564 employees of South African manufacturing organizations.

¹⁷⁹ Brown et al., 2019

¹⁸⁰ The data was collected from 253 students at ESAN Graduate School of Business in Peru.

- A leader's verbal aggressiveness triggers negative emotions among employees.

Table 8

Content Assessment of the Four General Communication Instruments

CSM	Relational CS	CSI
Dominant	Immediacy/Affection	Expressiveness
Contentious	Similarity/Depth	Preciseness
Attentive	Receptivity/Trust	Verbal aggressiveness
Open	Composure	Questioningness
Friendly	Formality	Emotionality
Dramatic	Dominance	Impression manipulation
Animated	Equality	
Impression leaving		
Relaxed		

2.3.2 Organizational Communication Styles Measures

As has already been mentioned, communication is vital to the operation of every organization. The knowledge of the efficiency of the communication processes is crucial to achieving organizational effectiveness. The well-known and widely used communication scales were developed in the 1970s and included Organizational Communication

Questionnaire (OCQ)¹⁸¹, LTT Communication Audit Questionnaire (LTT), Communication Satisfaction Questionnaire (CSQ)¹⁸², and Communication Audit Survey Questionnaire (CAS). Foremost, these measures concentrated upon communication climate, information flow, communication structure, and message characteristics¹⁸³.

2.3.2.1 Organizational Communication Questionnaire (OCQ)¹⁸⁴

The OCQ was designed to compare communication across organizations. The dimensions of the questionnaire include 13 communication variables and three communication-related variables¹⁸⁵.

Communication variables

- *Desire for interaction*. (e.g., “How desirable do you feel it is in your organization to be in contact frequently with others at the same job level?”)
- *Directionality upward*. (e.g., “While working, what percentage of the time do you spend in contact with superiors?”)
- *Directionality downward*. (e.g., “While working, what percentage of the time do you spend in contact with subordinates?”)
- *Directionality lateral*. (e.g., “While working, what percentage of the time do you spend in contact with others at the same job level?”)
- *Accuracy*. (e.g., “When receiving information from the sources listed below (superior, subordinate, peers), how accurate would you estimate it usually is?”)
- *Summarization*. (e.g., “When transmitting information to your immediate superiors, how often do you summarize by emphasizing aspects that are important and minimizing those aspects that are unimportant?”)

¹⁸¹ Roberts & O’Reilly, 1974

¹⁸² Downs & Hazen, 1977

¹⁸³ Greenbaum et al., 1988

¹⁸⁴ Roberts & O’Reilly, 1974 (p. 323)

¹⁸⁵ Ibid

- *Gatekeeping*. (e.g., “Of the total amount of information you receive at work, how much do you pass on to your immediate superior?”)
- *Overload*. (e.g., “Do you ever feel that you receive more information than you can efficiently use?”)
- *Satisfaction*. (e.g., “Put a check under the face that expresses how you feel about communication in general, including the amount of information you receive, contacts with your superiors and others, the accuracy of information available, etc.”)
- *Modalities*. (e.g., “Of the total time you engage in communications while on the job, about what percentage of the time do you use the following methods: written, face-to-face, telephone, other.”)

Communication-related variables

- *Trust in supervisor*. (e.g., “How free do you feel to discuss with your immediate superior the problems and difficulties you have in your job without jeopardizing your position or having it “held against” you later?”)
- *Influence of supervisor*. (e.g., “In general, how much do you feel that your immediate superior can do to further your career in this organization?”)
- *Mobility aspirations*. (e.g., “How important is it for you to progress upward in your present organization?”)

The research on organizational communication¹⁸⁶ has shown a significant and positive relationship between **organizational communication and job satisfaction**. The study results also show that the dimension of satisfaction with the nature of work (feeling of an employee about the current job) predicted such dimensions of organizational communication as trust, desire for interaction, summarization, communication satisfaction, and openness. For instance, good supervisor-employee and peer relationships improve trust. As a result, an employee would feel open and free to interact with the supervisor and peers, and due to trust, the job performed by the employee would be well accepted by the

¹⁸⁶ The data was collected from 380 employees at junior, middle, and top-level management from various telecom and banking sectors in India.

supervisor. All of these would contribute to an employee's improved satisfaction and overall feelings about the current job¹⁸⁷.

2.3.2.2 Communication Satisfaction Questionnaire (CSQ)¹⁸⁸.

The CSQ was developed to measure communication satisfaction within the organization. One of the conclusions of this study noted that communication satisfaction is a multidimensional construct. Moreover, the fundamental dimensions of communication satisfaction encompass the following: general organizational perspective, organizational integration, personal feedback, and relation with supervisor, horizontal-informal communication, relation with subordinates, media quality, and communication climate. This questionnaire consists of 51 questions, where four are end-product variables (employee satisfaction and productivity), two are open-ended questions (changes needed to improve job satisfaction), four relate to demographic information, and the rest 40 questions relate to the degree of communication satisfaction along eight dimensions¹⁸⁹. Later the concept of the questionnaire was refined, and the current form composed of five items for each of the following eight components¹⁹⁰:

- Communication Climate – refers to organizational and personal levels. This dimension incorporates items such as the degree to which the communication in the organization motivates and stimulates employees to achieve its goals and the degree to which communication makes employees identify with the organization. On the other side, this dimension includes assessments of whether employees' attitudes towards communication are healthy in the organization.
- Supervisory Communication – covers both upward and downward communication. This dimension involved three main items:
 - the degree to which a supervisor is open to employees' ideas,
 - the degree to which a supervisor attentively listens and pays attention to employees,

¹⁸⁷ Pavan Kumar & Giri, 2009

¹⁸⁸ Downs, 1988

¹⁸⁹ Downs, & Hazen, 1977

¹⁹⁰ Greenbaum et al., 1988

- the degree to which a supervisor guides employees in solving job-related issues.
- Organizational Integration – focuses on the extent to which employees get information about the immediate work environment. It includes satisfaction with information about personnel news, the requirements of employees' jobs, and departmental plans.
- Media Quality – relates to how well meetings are organized, especially concerning written directions (whether they are short and clear) and the right amount of provided information.
- Co-worker Communication – focuses on the degree to which informal and horizontal communication is precise and open. This dimension also pays attention to satisfaction with how active the grapevine is.
- Corporate Information – this component is related to information about the organization as a whole, such as financial standing, overall policies, and goals.
- Personal Feedback – deals with employees' need to know how they are judged and how their performance is evaluated. Such information is expected to be passed through formal channels from supervisor to subordinate.
- Subordinate Communication – also covers both upward and downward communication. This dimension includes the employees' responsiveness to downward communication and how often they initiate upward communication.

Research found evidence that all eight of the communication satisfaction dimensions influenced employees' productivity. Moreover, findings from the communication satisfaction factors affected the employees' productivity in different ways¹⁹¹.

- Personal Feedback – was one of the highest-rated factors that influenced employees' productivity. It was reported that personal feedback motivated employees to work harder, reducing the level of uncertainty about how they perform. It was revealed that over 60 percent of employees associate their productivity with receiving feedback. Moreover, feedback was ranked high in impact for both supervisory and nonsupervisory employees.

¹⁹¹ Clampitt & Downs, 1993

- Co-worker Communication, Media Quality, and Corporate Information – have shown a relatively low impact on employees’ productivity compared to other factors.
- Supervisory Communication – was also rated low in terms of impact on employees’ productivity. The results suggest that they had enough knowledge about their job duties and responsibilities that the supervisor had less effect on them.
- Corporate Information – again was reported as having low impact. However, data shows that the ratings varied depending on the level in the hierarchy of the employee — the higher the employee in terms of the hierarchy, the more significant impact on their productivity.

Another study¹⁹² used a modified version of the Communication Satisfaction Questionnaire. It showed that communication satisfaction was linked to both job satisfaction and productivity, where the relationship with job satisfaction was more robust¹⁹³. The following research¹⁹⁴ on communication satisfaction revealed that part-time employees were somewhat more dissatisfied than full-time employees with communication satisfaction factors what focus on the level of satisfaction with the content and flow of information within the organization¹⁹⁵.

The study that focused on organizational communication satisfaction in the virtual groups¹⁹⁶ has revealed that virtual office employees have experienced a high level of communication satisfaction¹⁹⁷. These results are opposite to the previous studies¹⁹⁸, where extensive negative impacts of the virtual workplace were reported on communication satisfaction. This study focused on comparing communication satisfaction levels between virtual workplace and traditional workplace employees in a single firm and explore the potential causes of the differences. The findings show that virtual office workers

¹⁹² Pincus, 1986

¹⁹³ The data was collected from 327 hospital nurses in the US.

¹⁹⁴ Study was conducted in a major Australian retail organisation, resulting in 127 useable responses

¹⁹⁵ Gray & Laidlaw, 2002

¹⁹⁶ Akkirman & Harris, 2005

¹⁹⁷ The questionnaire was distributed via employees. 46 virtual office workers and 22 traditional office workers have returned filled out questionnaire.

¹⁹⁸ Duxbury & Neufeld, 1999; Gray & Laidlaw, 2002; Hargie et al., 2002; Venkatesh & Johnson, 2002

experience higher levels of communication satisfaction.¹⁹⁹ The result is quite surprising since previous research has shown quite the opposite results – a negative impact on communication satisfaction. The authors suggest that the sample itself might be a reason for such results. The difference between two samples (traditional and virtual teams) was significantly different in age, length of tenure in work, and gender except for educational level. Nonetheless, this issue requires further research and analysis. Another finding of the study was that personal feedback was considered as the least satisfying communication factor for both groups.

This instrument also was used to study²⁰⁰ the relationship between flexible work arrangements and communication satisfaction in Australia²⁰¹. The key finding of this research is that surveyed employees were generally dissatisfied with all communication aspects (which is contrary to the study as mentioned earlier²⁰²). Supervisory and subordinate communication was rated between “neutral” and “satisfied.” The most significant employees’ concerns were that the quality of communication, the arrogance of some senior colleagues, and general rudeness negatively affected the commitment. Furthermore, respondents referred to communication as a scarce recourse because information did not go down the organizational hierarchy, but rather stayed at the management level. Horizontal communication was also rated between “neutral” and “slightly satisfying” because employees complained that the “second hand” quality. Employees mainly were dissatisfied with the *personal feedback* because of a lack of it. Some comments showed that respondents required recognition, information about their performance, and prize from management. The overall dissatisfaction was also with the *organizational perspective*, which related to the lack of communication about organizational policies, goals, and changes. The research shows that there is a significant difference between part-time and full-time employees in terms of communication satisfaction.

¹⁹⁹ Akkirman & Harris, 2005

²⁰⁰ Gray & Laidlaw, 2002

²⁰¹ The data was collected from 127 employees in Australia. Respondents discussed their satisfaction with communication in response to the question “How satisfied are you with communication at work?” and “What suggestions do you have to improve communication at work?” 103 respondents provided comments in response to the open-ended questions.

²⁰² Akkirman & Harris, 2005

Another research²⁰³ has explored the extent to which the quality of leader-member exchange (LMX) affects subordinates' perceptions of communication satisfaction in multiple contexts. The findings²⁰⁴ showed that the quality of LMX appeared to be connected positively and strongly to communication satisfaction in the management and organizational contexts. This means that subordinates are satisfied with the *personal feedback* and *supervisory communication* and communication practices within the group (*co-worker communication*) and organizational context.

Another study²⁰⁵ examined the perceived supervisor support (PSS) concept, which identified the level of employees' satisfaction with communication of their supervisor and organization-based self-esteem. Three Indian manufacturing private organizations participated in the study²⁰⁶, and the results showed that supervisors primarily used the following three communication styles: passive, aggressive, and assertive. It has been found that the assertive communication style of a supervisor in comparison to the passive one is considered more supportive, while the aggressive style decreases perceived supervisor support. The research results show that assertive and passive communication styles support employees and create a trustworthy environment. Nonetheless, assertive supervisors showed a higher level of support than supervisors with passive communication style. Even though passive supervisors can maintain positive relationships with subordinates, they are found to be indecisive and poor mentors.

Furthermore, some employees might find it hard to get support from passive supervisors for their ideas and initiatives. Contrary to passive leaders, the assertive one would consider the rights and needs of all employees. Furthermore, assertive leaders support and connect employees both rationally and emotionally. A leader's supportive communication establishes the relationship with employees and increases employee's communication satisfaction. Authors suggest that with communication support a supervisor meets employees' needs and develops employees' organizational-based self-esteem.

²⁰³ Mueller & Lee, 2002

²⁰⁴ The data was collected from 192 employees in four organizations that provide emergency financial assistance, medical treatment, and other programs to people in need in the US.

²⁰⁵ Dasgupta et al., 2012

²⁰⁶ The data was collected from 400 manufacturing private organizations

Additionally, a leader's supportive communication style can help develop a sense of job autonomy and enhance the employees' scope of decision-making. In addition, the research suggests that employees are motivated to perform at a higher level when a leader exhibits confidence and trust in employees. Moreover, it was recorded that a leader's confidence in employees is shown through a willingness to listen, which encourages employees' participation and enhances employees' self-esteem, which results in organizational commitment. Contrary to the preceding research, the current study results do not see the relationship between self-esteem and commitment to organizations. It suggests that when employees are trusted and given challenging work, the enhanced self-esteem may trigger changing the scope of work or even switching to another organization²⁰⁷.

2.3.2.3 Communication Audit Survey (CAS)²⁰⁸.

International Communication Association developed this survey to assess the communication systems of organizations. The Questionnaire was intended to measure employees' attitudes and perceptions about the communication sources, channels, and messages. The survey covered topics about such concepts as information accessibility, communication content, communication satisfaction, information adequacy, communication relationships, and communication outcomes. The CAS includes 122 items and the following 13 dimensions²⁰⁹:

- Receiving information from others (e.g., current conditions: "In respect to how I am being judged, this is the amount of information I receive NOW"; ideal condition: "In respect to how I am being judged, this is the amount of information I NEED to receive.")
- Sending information to others (e.g., current condition "In respect to reporting what I am doing in my job, this is the amount of information I send NOW"; ideal condition "In respect to reporting what I am doing in my job, this is the amount of information I NEED to send now.")

²⁰⁷ Dasgupta et al., 2012

²⁰⁸ Once known as the ICA Audit Questionnaire

²⁰⁹ Greenbaum et al., 1988

- Follow-up on information sent (e.g., current condition “In respect to the information I send to my immediate supervisor, this is the amount of follow-up NOW”; ideal condition “In respect to the information I send to my immediate supervisor, this is the amount of follow-up NEEDED.”)
- Sources of information (e.g., current condition “In respect to information received from Department Meetings, this is the amount of information I receive NOW”; ideal condition “In respect to information received from Department Meetings, this is the amount of information I NEED to receive.”)
- Timeliness of information received from key sources (e.g., “In respect to information received from your immediate supervisor, to what extent can you say the information is usually timely – not too early, not too late?”)
- Organizational communication relationships (e.g., “To what extent can you say “I trust my co-workers?” or “To what extent can you say “My immediate supervisor listens to me?”)
- Organizational outcomes (e.g., “Indicate the extent to which you are satisfied with your job.”)
- Channels of communication (e.g., current condition “In respect to Bulletin Boards, this is the amount of information I receive NOW;” ideal condition “In respect to Bulletin Boards, this is the amount of information I NEED to receive.”)

2.3.2.4 Organizational Communication Audit Questionnaire (OCD)²¹⁰.

This instrument was developed to establish how well the communication system helps the organization translate its goals into the desired result. This questionnaire was constructed as part of an assessment package built around the Delphi technique (a structured communication technique, initially developed as a systematic, interactive forecasting method that relies on a panel of experts). The measurement is to be performed by:

- measuring communication climate, characterized as a perceived atmosphere of attitudes and opinions,
- estimating both communication and job satisfaction,
- finding possible bottlenecks in organizational communication,

²¹⁰ Ibid

- enabling the comparison of findings between organizations.

The OCD questionnaire has two different procedures – OCD1 and OCD2.

- The OCD1 procedure looks as follows:
 - locating problems by interviewing some groups of employees within the organization,
 - selecting other randomly chosen employees with the organization to detail those problems (based on the questionnaire developed from the previous stage),
 - producing recommendations based on the questionnaire results.
- The OCD2 integrates the OCD1 with a standardized questionnaire consisted of 76 items.

The standardized 76-item questionnaire comprises of the following 12 dimensions:

- Overall communication satisfaction (e.g., “Are you satisfied or dissatisfied with communication and the availability of information in your organization?”)
- Amount of information received from different sources – now²¹¹ (e.g., “How much information about your work and organization do you get now from supervisors and managers?”)
- Amount of information received from different sources – ideal (e.g., “How much information about your work and organization would you like to get from fellow employees?”)
- Amount of information received about specific job items – now (e.g., “This is the amount of information I receive now about the following job items: economic situation of the organization”)
- Amount of information received about specific job items – ideal (e.g., “This is the amount of information I should like to receive about the following job items: employment situation of the organization”)
- Areas of communication that need improvement (e.g., “I should like to see improved communication from personnel to superiors and management”)
- Job satisfaction (e.g., “Are you dissatisfied or satisfied with the supervision of work?”)

²¹¹ By “now,” the author asks about the current situation in the organization, while “ideal” means what would be the best (compared to the current situation) for the employee.

- Availability of computer information system
- Allocation of time in a workday
- Respondent's general communication behavior
- Organization specific questions
- Information-seeking pattern

Table 9

Content Assessment of the Four Organizational Communication Instruments

Common Communication Issues Considered				
Communication structure and flow dimensions:				
sources of information received				
receivers of information sent				
channels of communication				
directionality: upward, downward, horizontal				
Communication climate dimensions:				
desire for interaction				
communication climate				
relations with supervisors and subordinates				
Communication message characteristics and content:				
topical nature of information received				
topical nature of information sent				
adequacy of information sent: underload and overload				
media quality: speed, accuracy, summarization, etc.				
personal feedback				
Unique Communication Issues Considered	OCQ	CSQ	CAS	OCD
follow-up on information sent			X	
gatekeeping	X			
general organizational perspective		X	X	
information accuracy	X			
information - seeking patterns				X
respondent's general communication patterns				X

summarization frequency	X	
time involved in specific communication activities	X	X
timeliness of information		X
use of computer based information		X

Source: Greenbaum et al., 1988

2.4 Cross-Cultural Communication

Many studies are devoted to the analysis of culture as a phenomenon of its own, but here it is not the primary focus. It is essential to understand that culture is a collection of specific features that are acquired, learned, and formed by members of a particular society. These features are shared within a society. These processes create **a unique mindset, a way of thinking, feeling, understanding, and perceiving the environment, which distinguish society from others and transmit this knowledge and experience from one generation to another**. Considering all, communication, as mentioned earlier, plays a crucial role in these processes because it serves as a means to share acquired knowledge and experience²¹².

Nowadays, communication across cultures is crucial due to the irreversible process of opening borders and sharing knowledge and experience. A number of studies have been conducted to analyze the attitudes and communication patterns between representatives from different cultures who interact due to multiple needs. In the scientific literature, such interactions are called *intercultural communication* or *cross-cultural communication*. The core concept of intercultural communication is described as a process of interaction of two representatives from different cultures with diverse backgrounds, different communication practices, and preferences²¹³.

“By their very nature, cultural patterns convey meaning only to those who participate in them; as with other uses of symbols, the meaning we attribute is learned and socially agreed upon, rather than somehow inherent to behavior. However, patterns do not continue

²¹² Wilczewski, 2015

²¹³ Ibid

to exist by themselves once they have been created; they must continually be given new life by passing the meanings down to a new generation. We do this through various sorts of communication²¹⁴”. Therefore, **the relationship between culture and communication exists for the fact that individuals interact by means of communication** – a method to preserve the established patterns of meaning, thinking, feeling, and acting²¹⁵.

In the late 1970s, anthropologist Edward Hall developed a theoretical model of cultural variability contingent on the use of context, time, and space²¹⁶.

- **Context orientation**, the most widely used dimension, describes cultures as being high- or low-context. The high-context (HC) cultures communicate more indirectly, and implicit meaning is enclosed in the context. In contrast, low-context (LC) cultures depend on explicit information for interpreting the meaning of a message.
- **Time dimension** relates to the concept that cultures can be categorized as monochronic (M-time) or polychronic (P-time). Individuals coming from M-time cultures emphasize schedules and promptness and expect meetings to start and finish on time, while P-time individuals focus on the involvement of people and completion of transactions; therefore, they would change plans and agenda according to the daily events.
- **Space** is defined as a personal space in a figurative sense. It is also described as invisible boundaries that are more difficult to define but are just as accurate; those boundaries relate to the individual’s personal space. The smaller the personal space, the more likely individuals share intimate details and allow others to come closer in a relational sense.

Most studies integrate the high- and low-context concept, and relatively a few studies consider the concept of space or time. There is little empirical evidence to contextualize these concepts²¹⁷. Some scholars have used directness as a dimension to describe context orientation. For example, it was reported that HC cultures depend on nonverbal communication and emphasize indirect forms of communication, while LC cultures

²¹⁴ Leeds-Hurwitz, 1989 (p. 65)

²¹⁵ Korac-Kakabadse et al., 2001

²¹⁶ Hall, 1976

²¹⁷ Holtbrügge et al., 2013

depend on information rather than the context in verbal or written messages²¹⁸. Another research²¹⁹ employed the context concept to study Israel, Germany, Sweden, and the USA as LC, and Hong Kong, Japan, Russia, and Thailand as HC. It has been found that context orientation plays a role as an indicator for directness, confirming, “low-context cultures should favor direct communication, and negotiators in high-context cultures should favor indirect communication”²²⁰. Another research has explored the HC/LC differences in the use of an internet-based negotiation support system. It was recorded that high-context users sent more messages with the CMC tools than low-context users, proving that high-context users prefer indirect communication. On the other hand, low-context users consider the internet negotiation means useful, which can be attributed to the low-context individuals’ preference for systematic problem solving and task orientation²²¹.

Cultures also communicate differently in **the context of formality**. It was found that high-context cultures are more disposed to use vague and indirect communication styles compared to low-context cultures. In some cases, high-context cultures exaggerate the use of formal language in communication, with clear demarcations in formality contingent on the context of the relationship. Some scholars refer to formality more as politeness, suggesting that some cultures are more polite overall when communicating with one another. The empirical evidence showed that some high-context cultures in the email correspondence often used titles when addressing recipients and were uneasy addressing counterparts by their first name, demonstrating that high-context cultures prefer formal communication when corresponding via email²²².

Quite a few studies explore **time orientation** in the field of culture. The majority deal with polychronicity because it applies to multitasking, pointing to the fact that P-time cultures often overlap tasks and schedules, while monochronic cultures focus on one activity at a time. Polychronic cultures are associated with high-context, and monochronic cultures with low-context. It was also shown that polychronic individuals are comfortable

²¹⁸ Gudykunst & Nishida, 1986

²¹⁹ Adair, 2003. The study was conducted in the USA and in English language, thereby possibly hampering the results as negotiators from the East were expected to adapt to the communication styles of the West.

²²⁰ Adair, 2003 (p. 288)

²²¹ Koeszegi et al., 2004

²²² Holtbrügge et al., 2013

performing several activities simultaneously, do not find procedures important, organize work activities to suit themselves, and perceive the world in a less compartmental form. Additionally, a negative correlation was established between polychronicity and punctuality, as well as between schedules and deadlines²²³.

Nowadays, communication across cultures is extremely important for multinational organizations as globalization is an irreversible process of opening borders and sharing knowledge and experience. Consequently, a number of studies have been conducted to analyze the attitudes and communication patterns between representatives from different cultures who interact due to multiple needs (intercultural communication or cross-cultural communication). The core concept of intercultural communication described as a process of interaction of two representatives from different cultures with diverse backgrounds, distinct communication practices and preferences²²⁴.

In the modern business world, with multiple and diverse cultures within one organization, it is crucial to have a knowledge of intercultural communication strategies and cultural nuances. This knowledge helps to avoid potential conflicts and misunderstanding in the business environment and allows to establish long-term and smooth working relations²²⁵. A study²²⁶ that analyzed the cross-cultural business communication between South Asians immigrants and English people in England showed that communication practices lead to misunderstanding. Such problems are typically based on the lack of understanding of the true nature of cultural-interactional differences and a tendency to attribute problems to national stereotypes. Other research²²⁷ which has been done to examine intercultural communication shows what impact the political dimension has on communication. It reveals that some communication patterns used by representatives of diverse cultures can be explained by the influence of laws and new political strategies. Therefore, participants may behave in a particular way just to avoid potential legal consequences²²⁸.

²²³ Ibid

²²⁴ Wilczewski, 2015

²²⁵ Ibid

²²⁶ Gumperz, 1982

²²⁷ Bailey, 2000

²²⁸ Bargiela -Chiappini, 2009

Attention has also been paid to an undeniable bias towards the dominance of English in international business. Some researchers even describe it as an international business language. Some studies investigate the French-German companies to analyze what languages they use in the correspondence. The research showed that 42% of French companies use the German language and 30% use English in communication with German companies. Additionally, 30% of the German companies use English, and only 25% use French in correspondence with French companies²²⁹.

²²⁹ Ibid

Chapter 3. Leadership and Communication

Leading and managing is all about talking²³⁰. Most definitions of leadership involve communication as a tool leaders and managers use to remove obstacles from subordinates' paths, clarify the subordinates' roles²³¹, and influence others to attain set goals²³². It was found that a leader is identified through such abilities as guiding followers toward shared goals²³³ and influencing others²³⁴. Most definitions describe leadership as a behavior enacted through communication or seen as a group of communicative behaviors²³⁵. Communication is involved in leaders' day-to-day work and is an inseparable part of leaders' and managers' roles. Numerous empirical studies show that **managers spend up to 82 percent of their working time on communicating** - they transmit goals to subordinates, provide information, clarify standards, instruct, direct, coordinate, and give feedback²³⁶.

There is substantial consensus about the critical need for communication skills for leaders²³⁷. There is a growing recognition that a leader's emergence, performance, and effectiveness depend upon the level of communication skills. Thus, this chapter focuses on identifying the role that communication plays in leadership and how it makes leaders and managers effective or ineffective; which communication styles exhibited by leaders are preferable by subordinates and which are not.

3.1 Communication in Leader Emergence

The scientific research on leadership reveals that **interpersonal communication** skills play an important role in **leader emergence**. However, it has been quite challenging to

²³⁰ King, 2003

²³¹ Penley, 1991

²³² Baker & Ganster, 1985

²³³ Madlock, 2008

²³⁴ Holmes et al., 2007

²³⁵ Holladay & Coombs, 1993; Luo et al., 2016

²³⁶ Jablin, 1979; Sarros et al., 2014; Riggio et al., 2003; Madlock, 2008

²³⁷ Penley, 1991

operationalize communication skills or communication competence in researching the communication skills of emergent and established leaders²³⁸.

The literature suggests that such traits as extraversion, sociability, and possession of basic communication skills is associated with a higher level of communication in discussion groups without leaders and as the result predict the emergence of leaders in these groups²³⁹. Nonetheless, a large amount of communication itself may not predict the appearance of a leader, particularly in groups that do not depend so much on the amount of communication. For instance, in task-oriented groups, the quality of communication, rather than the quantity, can better predict the emergence of a leader²⁴⁰. A higher level of extraversion or sociability will not be as important for becoming a leader as being able to say the right things at the right time — tactful communication skills.

Indeed, research showed that individuals with a higher level of **self-monitoring** (understood as an ability to monitor and manage own emotions, behaviors, and self-presentation in response to a social situations) are more likely to become leaders than those with low self-monitoring. Self-monitoring is defined as the ability to interpret social situations and adjust one's behavior accordingly to blend in and act adequately in social situations. Apparently, individuals with a high level of self-monitoring can adapt to situational constraints — the ability that facilitates **leader emergence**. It is important to note that previous research²⁴¹ has shown a **strong link between self-monitoring and basic communication skills** (as a part of basic social skills). Therefore, individuals with better communication skills, like self-control, would more easily adapt to situational constraints and thus be more likely to emerge as leaders than individuals without basic communication skills²⁴².

²³⁸ Riggio et al., 2003

²³⁹ Lord et al., 1986

²⁴⁰ Sorrentino & Boutillier, 1975, as cited in Riggio et al., 2003

²⁴¹ Riggio, 1986

²⁴² Riggio et al., 2003

3.2 Communication and Leader Effectiveness

Communication was also shown to be an important predictor of leader's effectiveness. "Successful managers and supervisors may consciously change and manipulate their style of communication to accomplish different kinds of communicative "work" with superiors, subordinates, and peers²⁴³." A few examples of how leaders may manipulate their communication style to achieve desired outcomes are listed below²⁴⁴:

- Managers who want to build a **trusting relationship** with their superiors should adopt a more **open communication style**. Thus, willingness to disclose personal matters about the self can demonstrate confidence and trust in the superior. On the other hand, superiors can potentially appreciate the involvement of the outspoken, uninhibited, and willing subordinates which allows them to provide constructive feedback.
- Managers who want to build a **cooperative relationship** and demonstrate loyalty may adopt **less contentious and argumentative communication styles**. To encourage harmonious supervisor-subordinate relationship and prevent defensiveness, it is suggested to evade disputes in a workplace.
- Leaders, who want to be perceived as **effective**, may deliberately be **more precise** in communication with their subordinates to reduce ambiguity. A precise communication style eliminates any confusion concerning workplace policies and procedures that are important for subordinates. What is more, it is expected from managers to reduce any uncertainty about expectations for performance, rewards, goals, and deadlines.
- To demonstrate that the **communicative process is functioning**, leaders may adopt an **attentive communication style**. An attentive attitude demonstrates interest in the communication process and its sincerity.

²⁴³ Bednar, 1982, p. 72

²⁴⁴ Bednar, 1982

The above-listed hints may help leaders establish and maintain essential information channels with their own followers, as well as with managers and supervisors in other departments or teams²⁴⁵.

While success is defined through the ability to adopt a specific behavior or communication style, the leader's effectiveness is quite a complex notion and involves multiple aspects. The leadership literature consistently draws attention to the essential role of the leader's ability to communicate both verbally and nonverbally. At the same time, not much research has been done on investigating **how a leader's communication skills make a leader effective**. In particular, this is true for the research on nonverbal communication. However, in the literature on the role of nonverbal communication in leadership evidence can be found that being nonverbally, or emotionally, expressive is positively evaluated in social situations and is associated with perceptions of an individual's charisma²⁴⁶.

Additionally, research suggests that there are **multiple ways of how communication skills may influence leader effectiveness**. As has already been mentioned, leaders and managers spend most of their time communicating with subordinates. An effective leader must possess such skills as **verbal message sending** or **encoding**²⁴⁷. Moreover, to be able to build and maintain good relationships with subordinates and peers, an effective leader must have great interpersonal skills. In particular, a leader's **listening and decoding** skills (known as interpersonal sensitivity) are essential for developing good interpersonal relationships. In the leader-member exchange model example, the quality of leader-subordinate relationships is fundamental to leader effectiveness. Furthermore, research on charismatic and transformational leadership suggests that charismatic–transformational leaders can have a strong impact on **subordinates' satisfaction** with a leader – probably because of the ability to communicate effectively to excite, inspire, and motivate subordinates²⁴⁸.

²⁴⁵ Ibid.

²⁴⁶ Riggio et al., 2003

²⁴⁷ Riggio, 2001, as cited in Riggio et al., 2003

²⁴⁸ Lowe et al., 1996, as cited in Riggio et al., 2003

Besides interpersonal sensitivity, an **effective leader must be good at role-playing**, meaning be skilled in self-presentation and impression management²⁴⁹. For example, the path-goal leadership theory focuses on the idea that an effective leader must play a particular role in empowering subordinates to accomplish desired goals. Role-playing skills are analogous to self-monitoring skills, as both involve highly developed communication skills²⁵⁰.

A related stream of research focused on effectiveness of supervisors. The research on exploring and analyzing what represents good supervision versus poor supervision²⁵¹ presents the following summary on what qualities make supervisors more effective²⁵²:

- **Communication-inclined** supervisors are perceived to be better supervisors. Such supervisors generally enjoy talking and are expressive in the meetings. Furthermore, they are able to interpret instructions and policies to subordinates.
- Such qualities as a **willingness to listen and being empathic** also characterize more influential supervisors. They usually kindly respond to silly questions from subordinates and are generally approachable. Such supervisors attentively listen to subordinates' suggestions and complaints with a fair consideration attitude and respond appropriately.
- Better supervisors prefer **asking** for something to be done rather than giving orders; also, they **persuade** subordinates but do not make demands.
- **Sensitivity** to subordinates' feelings and needs also identifies a better supervisor. Such supervisors are careful to reprimand their subordinates and prefer to do it in private.
- **Openly sharing information** is yet another characteristic. Such supervisors are more cautious to give an advance notice of upcoming changes within policies and regulations and provide reasoning of those changes.

²⁴⁹ Chemers, 1997; Leary, 1989, as cited in as cited in Riggio et al., 2003

²⁵⁰ Riggio et al., 2003

²⁵¹ Redding, 1972, as cited in Jablin, 1979

²⁵² Jablin, 1979

Communication has also emerged as an important topic in the scientific research on leadership conducted at Ohio State University during the 1950s and early 1960s revealed **two basic dimensions of leadership behavior**:

- **Leader consideration** – was represented by such characteristics as friendliness and warmth, mutual trust, ability to build rapport and being tolerant, as well as two-way communication between a leader and subordinates²⁵³. This dimension is quite analogous to the **employee orientation dimension**²⁵⁴.
- **Initiating structure** – is a dimension that focuses on achieving organizational goals. Here leaders attempt to arrange and redefine group activities, as well as their relation to their groups²⁵⁵. This dimension is respectively analogous to the **production orientation dimension**²⁵⁶.

The above research focuses on the similarity between consideration and employee orientation construct and communication construct. The general consequence taken from previous research has shown that **leaders who scored high in both consideration and leadership structures were rated as more effective**²⁵⁷. Leaders scoring high in consideration (great communication skills) increase structure within their teams and continue to be perceived as effective leaders.

3.3 Satisfaction with a Leader's Communication Style

Based on Norton's research two general communication styles have been established²⁵⁸:

- **Affiliation** is a group of behaviors that determine and maintain a **positive relationship between a leader and subordinates**. The person with a high affiliation level usually expresses more humor, interest, friendliness, empathy, and warmth.

²⁵³ Fleishman et al., 1955, as cited in Jablin, 1979

²⁵⁴ Katz et al., 1950, as cited in Jablin, 1979

²⁵⁵ Fleishman & Harris, 1962, as cited in Jablin, 1979

²⁵⁶ Katz et al., 1950, as cited in Jablin, 1979

²⁵⁷ Stogdill, 1974, as cited in Jablin, 1979

²⁵⁸ Buller & Buller, 1987

- **Control/dominance** is a group of behaviors that determine and maintain a **leader's control in the leader-subordinate relationship**.

The study²⁵⁹ conducted to evaluate physicians' communication style, and their patients'²⁶⁰ satisfaction with the services received reported a strong relationship between physician's communication style and patient's satisfaction with their physicians. Patients were experiencing more satisfaction with their physician when the physician displayed a more affiliative communication style. However, patients were less satisfied with the physician who adopted a less affiliative and a more dominant communication style. Later, the study²⁶¹ in the customer services sector²⁶² has shown the same result. It was found that affiliative and dominant styles were strongly related to evaluations of the service. While affiliative styles generally produced higher satisfaction, dominant styles generated less favorable evaluations. It is possible to imagine that these findings can be extrapolated to the leader-subordinate relationship.

Another study²⁶³ using Norton's Communicator Style Measure, has reported the following results²⁶⁴:

- **Subordinates were less satisfied with the leaders** who were very **nonverbally expressive, frequently discussed non-work topics, and employed dramatic style**. These findings appear to contradict to the previous findings – the positive relationship between consideration and satisfaction. It can be explained that in the current study, leaders could be overbearing and socially insensitive, or they failed to provide sufficient structure on the job, spending their communication time discussing non-work issues.
- **Followers were less satisfied with leaders** who were recognized as **dominant in social situations**, very expressive nonverbally, dramatized extensively, and regularly told jokes, stories, and anecdotes.

²⁵⁹ Ibid.

²⁶⁰ The study was conducted in the USA interviewing 219 patients via telephone over one-month period.

²⁶¹ Webster & Sundaram, 2009

²⁶² The study was conducted in the USA. 366 individuals who had purchased financial, legal, and tax-related services from 12 professional service firms have completed the questionnaire.

²⁶³ The study was conducted in the USA, 117 employees have filled out the questionnaire.

²⁶⁴ Baker & Ganster, 1985

- **Subordinates were more satisfied with the leaders who were warm, open, relaxed, and attentive communicators.**

3.4 Relationship between Leadership Styles and Communication

Communication styles seem to be related to some, but not all, leadership styles. For example, **transformational leadership** was shown to be related to follower communication. Leaders who displayed more transformational leadership style fostered a culture of effective communication among followers. Furthermore, when transformational leaders exhibit a higher level of perceived moral reasoning, it increases the probability that employees will feel comfortable voicing their concerns with both their leader and peers²⁶⁵.

Inspirational motivation and *intellectual stimulation* – two of the four typical, transformational behaviors discussed in Chapter 1 - are both likely to encourage communication between employees through a variety of means. It was shown that leaders who use inspirational motivation emphasize the importance of collective action and achieving goals. With no less importance, leaders encourage questioning assumptions, thinking outside the box, and coming up with creative solutions by leveraging each other's strengths. Inspirational motivation and intellectual stimulation are likely to stimulate communication among employees, though it is likely to be expressed distinctly. On the other hand, leaders using the inspirational motivation style potentially initiate more discussions around strategic planning and organizing work towards the goals. Leaders using intellectual stimulation might stimulate more inclusive discussion among subordinates, as well as foster an environment where employees can share ideas and knowledge freely²⁶⁶.

Furthermore, the research²⁶⁷ on communication styles shows a relationship between transformational and transactional leadership styles and communication styles and the impact it has on leader-member exchange amongst employees²⁶⁸. The results revealed that:

²⁶⁵ Boies et al., 2015

²⁶⁶ Ibid.

²⁶⁷ Nicolescu et al., 2016

- **transformational leadership** positively predicts expressiveness, preciseness, and questioningness and negatively predicts verbal aggressiveness, emotionality, and impression manipulateness as leader communication styles;
- **transactional leadership** predicts high levels of expressiveness, questioningness, emotionality, and preciseness, and lower levels of verbal aggressiveness as leader communication styles.

Another research²⁶⁹ that has been undertaken to assess the possible link of communication styles with leadership styles and leadership outcomes revealed²⁷⁰:

- a **human-oriented leadership** is strongly associated with supportive and expressive communication styles and to a lesser degree with verbal aggressiveness as leader communication styles;
- a **task-oriented leadership** was found to be characterized by precise and assured communication styles.

3.5 Humor in the Workplace and Communication Style

Although the literature on communication does not specifically categorize humor as one of the communication styles, **both leaders and subordinates often use humor in the workplace**. There is a substantial consensus about the importance of humor in the workplace – joking, telling stories, and anecdotes enable subordinates to reduce tension, alleviate boredom, and generally build group cohesiveness. In the first instance, **humor helps subordinates** create their identities, assimilate new employees, and save face by communicating ambiguity. Contrariwise, **humor can be used to exercise control over subordinates** or even to disparage oneself. The literature on humor puts forward three leading theories that illustrate how humor functions in communication²⁷¹:

- **relief** – where humor facilitates the release of tension and stress,

²⁶⁸ The research was conducted among employees in a US banking sector; 213 bank workers have completed the questionnaire.

²⁶⁹ The research was conducted among 279 employees of the Dutch Ministry of Education, Culture and Science

²⁷⁰ De Vries et al., 2010

²⁷¹ Martin et al., 2004

- **incongruity** – where humor usage intentionally abuses the regular language or behavior patterns,
- **superiority** – when humor gives a feeling of great satisfaction and pride resulting from success or victory.

These theories bear on social function and on how individuals perceive a particular social function of a humorous event depending on their theoretical background since humorous events are ambiguous. The same event may have a number of meanings or serve different purposes²⁷². The **Uses of Humor Index (UHI)**²⁷³ was developed to explore how humor works in social interactions. The Index includes three social functions of humor – **positive, expressive, and negative**, which can be correlated with three leading humor theories²⁷⁴.

Although both leaders and subordinates exercise positive humor, it was reported that **subordinates use positive humor considerably more** than leaders²⁷⁵. Due to power differentials, subordinates are likely to use more positive and less expressive or negative humor. The research proposes that subordinates' concern about how they can be perceived may alter their communication and use of certain humor. Moreover, it is suggested that:

- individuals who perceive themselves as **good communicators** (high communicator image), use considerably more **positive and expressive humor**;
- individuals with a high level of **dominant communication style** were found to be using **significantly more humor** than individuals who are low in dominance.

The research on humor also demonstrates the role of organizational status and the relationship between communication style and the use of humor²⁷⁶:

- leaders with a high **communicator image** can **take control of the social situation** and take a chance to use wit or self-ridicule to build rapport with subordinates;

²⁷² Meyer, 2000, as cited in Martin et al., 2004

²⁷³ Graham et al., 1992

²⁷⁴ Ibid.

²⁷⁵ Martin et al., 2004

²⁷⁶ Ibid.

- **leaders** who reported high scores in **dominant communication style** engaged in more **negative humor** compared to leaders low in dominant communication behaviors;
- **subordinates** high in **dominant communication style** were also reported to be engaged in more **negative humor** than subordinates low in dominant communication style.

The main outcome of these findings is that **dominance is the best predictor of negative humor**. Thus, it is implied that leaders have the power to exert control or maintain boundaries.

3.6 Leader - Subordinate Relationship and the Role of Communication

The way in which supervisors and subordinates communicate to achieve desirable goals has been an object of exploration by social scientists for a number of decades. Therefore, in most organizations, both formal (task-oriented) and informal (relationship-building) superior-subordinate relations are present. What is more, most research evidence reports that informal superior-subordinate relationships may be as essential as formal relations in determining communicative behavior²⁷⁷.

Table 10

Comparison of Downward and Upward Communication

Downward Communication	Upward Communication
job instructions	information about the subordinate provided by himself/herself
job rationale	information about co-workers and their problems
organizational procedures and practices	information about organizational practices and policies
feedback about subordinate performance	information about what needs to be done and how it can be done

²⁷⁷ Jablin, 1979

Source: Jablin, 1979

The way managers and leaders communicate with subordinates has changed over time, reflecting the change in how employees are seen by an organization. Initially, employees were regarded as the greatest asset of an organization, whereas now they are recognized as the human capital owners and investors of their education, experience, intelligence, skills, health. When managers and leaders communicate with subordinates the emphasis shifts from **content** to **behavior** since subordinates pay attention not only to **what** is said but also to **how** it is said²⁷⁸.

The previous research on communication exchange in superior-subordinate interaction has provided a comprehensive description of the types of such interactions²⁷⁹. Per vertical supervisor-subordinate dyad, the research suggests five types of downward communication and four primary forms of upward communication (Table 10).

Previous research findings on interaction patterns between superiors and subordinates suggest the following conclusions:

- **leaders** believe that they **communicate more with their subordinates** than subordinates perceive; although **subordinates** believe that they **send more messages** to the leader than the leader perceives²⁸⁰
- **leaders reported low on their leadership abilities more reluctant to have one-on-one discussions** with their subordinates compared to more confident leaders²⁸¹
- **ambiguity about subordinate's job responsibilities and incompatibility of the subordinate with the given job highly correlates with the leader's behavior**, which leads to rather direct than indirect relation with subordinates²⁸²

²⁷⁸ Dasgupta et al., 2012

²⁷⁹ Jablin, 1979

²⁸⁰ Webber, 1970

²⁸¹ Kipnis & Lane, 1962

²⁸² Rizzo et al., 1970

- in the case when **subordinates** require any informal assistance, they **tend to ask for the help of their supervisor** rather than peers²⁸³
- **leaders are more likely to act as links in production communication** than as links in maintenance or innovation²⁸⁴.

Overall, research on interaction patterns between leaders and subordinates proposes habitual task-oriented communication yet different perspectives and perceptions of these interactions. Furthermore, both leader's and subordinates' individual qualities and demands appear to mediate their desire for and perceptions of communication. The study findings reveal that subordinate's satisfaction with their job is higher when openness of communication prevails in leader-subordinate interactions²⁸⁵.

3.7 Leader-follower congruence in communication styles

My aim in this dissertation is to go beyond the preceding research and explore how the compatibility in communication styles between leaders and followers impact leadership outcomes (such as trust or employee well-being). There are two main theoretical approaches that justify my expectation that at least with respect to some communication style, compatibility might prove to be more important in predicting such outcomes than communication styles solely expressed by the leader – the Leader-member exchange (LMX) theory and person-environment (P-E) fit theory. The LMX theory provides the basic justification for the importance of personalized dyadic relationship between a leader and a follower. Person-environment fit theory supplies a more direct justification of my hypotheses by providing empirical justification of the importance of compatibility in leader-follower relationships.

3.7.1 Leader-member Exchange Theory

The **LMX** theory helps to further the understanding of the effects of leadership on subordinates, teams, and organization. The LMX theory assumes that leaders have limited amounts of personal, social, and organizational resources (like energy, time, and power).

²⁸³ Burke et al., 1976

²⁸⁴ MacDonald, 1976

²⁸⁵ Jablin, 1979

For this reason, leaders try to distribute these resources among their subordinates selectively. Therefore, the relationships' effectiveness between a leader and subordinates depends on the **leader's communication style and the way the leader distributes the resources**²⁸⁶. As a result, leaders interact differently with their subordinates depending on subordinates' abilities and values. The LMX theory suggests two main types of these relationships:

- **High quality** (relationship-oriented) relationships usually engage communication styles that encourage subordinate participation and the feedback culture. Leaders promote information exchange, mutual support, trust, and subordinates' input in the decision-making process.
- **Low quality** (task-oriented) relationships imply using a more formal communication style and not encouraging the feedback culture. Therefore, the leader provides less support, and subordinates receive less trust and attention from their leader.

According to the Leader-Exchange Model, a successful leader ought to recognize when it is necessary to use relationship-oriented communication and when to use a more formal communication style, regardless of the quality of the relationship²⁸⁷. However, generally, subordinates with high-quality relationships with their leaders report more favorable outcomes than those who experience low-quality LMX relationships. Positive outcomes include leader support and attention, performance appraisal, challenging assignments, informal influence, job satisfaction, commitment, empowerment, salary/pay, fairness in distributive and procedural justice, and career progress²⁸⁸. For instance:

- **high quality LMX subordinates** received **favorable ratings**, regardless of poor performance²⁸⁹;
- **high-quality LMX subordinates** systematically receive **greater formal and informal rewards**²⁹⁰;

²⁸⁶ Mueller & Lee, 2002

²⁸⁷ Ibid.

²⁸⁸ Ibid.

²⁸⁹ Duarte et al., 1994

²⁹⁰ Dienesch & Liden, 1986

- **low quality LMX subordinates** may experience an **unfair attitude** towards them, which leads to affiliation with minor status²⁹¹.

The leader-subordinate dyad is viewed as a vertical communication relationship. These relationships have been studied in terms of the frequency and initiation of interactions, focus upon task or self, and satisfaction with communication²⁹². The research on dyadic communication styles employed by leaders and subordinates in organizations reveals that both use a variety of **verbal strategies either to convey meaning or feeling or to strengthen power differentials**. The research identifies twelve communication patterns in leader-member interactions, which were classified into three communication categories:

- **aligning behaviors** – leader and subordinates communication patterns supported by value congruence, out of box problem solving, help, and fostering relationships with individuals lower in power;
- **accommodating behaviors** – leader and subordinates' reaction to each other through negotiation, and polite expression of disagreement, and adjustment of communicative strategies through the interaction progresses;
- **polarizing behaviors** – characterizes lower quality relationships between the leader and subordinates through distancing, micromanagement, power games, competitive conflict, or face-threatening acts²⁹³.

In contrast to the LMX theory, where leaders have high-quality and low-quality relationships with their subordinates, another approach²⁹⁴ suggests that leaders do not use **different behavioral strategies toward each subordinate** for the following two reasons:

- a belief that equal consideration of subordinates would be perceived as more professional,
- saving time and energy associated with building relationships with subordinates.

²⁹¹ Yukl, 1994, as cited in as cited in Mueller & Lee, 2002

²⁹² Infante & Gorden, 1982

²⁹³ Fairhurst, 1993, as cited in Martin et al, 2004

²⁹⁴ Cummings, 1975, as cited in Baker & Ganster, 1985

Additionally, according to the **Vertical Dyad Linkage Model**²⁹⁵, leaders show variability in their behavior strategies across subordinates. It suggests that subordinates are differentiated according to the following criteria:

- competence and skill,
- the extent to which subordinates can be trusted,
- motivation to assume greater responsibility within the team.

According to the leader's view, **subordinates who score high on the above dimensions** would receive preferential treatment and be identified as **in-group**. On the contrary, when **subordinates score low on these dimensions**, they would be considered as the **out-group**. Usually, **in-group** subordinates **get substantial attention, support, and understanding from the leader**, while **out-group** subordinates perform **routine and monotonous work** and receive a rather formal exchange²⁹⁶.

3.7.2 Person-environment Fit

Person-environment fit is generally depicted as the compatibility between an individual and a work environment that appears when their characteristics are suited²⁹⁷. There are two types of person-environment congruence – supplementary and complementary. Supplementary fit suggests that interacting partners possess similar or matching characteristics. While complementary fit refers to occasions where individual weaknesses are offset by the strength of the interacting partner and conversely²⁹⁸.

Initially, scholars have defined and described four distinct dimensions within which person-environment fit has been explored²⁹⁹:

- Person-vocation fit – relates to vocational choice theories, which focus on matching people with compatible career opportunities;
- Person-job fit – revolves around the relationship between a person's abilities and

²⁹⁵ Liden & Graen, 1980

²⁹⁶ Baker & Ganster, 1985

²⁹⁷ Kristof-Brown et al., 2005

²⁹⁸ Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987

²⁹⁹ Jansen & Kristof-Brown, 2006

demands of a specific job;

- Person-organization fit – represents congruity between a person and an entire organization;
- Person-group fit – relates to the skill computability between persons and their workgroup.

Later on, interest in the other dimensions of fit emerged, like fit between an applicant and an interviewer, supervisor and subordinate, and mentor and protégé, so called person-person fit³⁰⁰. Here, the focus will lie on the subordinate-supervisor fit, or as it also can be found in the literature – person-supervisor fit.

The **person-supervisor fit** focuses on the correspondence of values, set goals, and personality of both parties. It is suggested that similarities generate positive personal and organizational outcomes. Reduced uncertainty leads to the increased interpersonal attraction, suggesting that leader and subordinate similarity presumes mutual attraction. For example, it was shown that:

- The personality similarity between a first-line supervisor and an employee in more individualistic work units was shown to be positively associated with promotion possibilities. Supervisors were also more likely to build trusting, high-commitment relationships with employees that were similar to them in personality³⁰¹.
- Newcomers' job commitment was enhanced when both the newcomer and the supervisor demonstrated a high level of concern for people. Such a fit also affected new employees' turnover intentions; turnover was lowest when newcomer and supervisor concern for people preferences matched³⁰².
- The fit between the employee's and the supervisor's goals may address the negative impact of organizational politics (i.e., behaviors of organizational actors that are designed to promote self-interest). While employees' perceptions of organizational policies have been shown to negatively affect their commitment

³⁰⁰ Jansen & Kristof-Brown, 2006

³⁰¹ Schaubroeck & Lam, 2002

³⁰² van Vianen, 2000

and performance, when employees' priorities were similar to those of supervisors, the politics were relatively inconsequential³⁰³.

- Congruence between the leader's and the follower's proactive personality (a tendency to improve work processes and outcomes) increased leader-member exchange (characterized by higher trust, loyalty, and respect). As a result, such a fit positively affected the follower's performance, job satisfaction, and affective commitment³⁰⁴.

Importantly, it's not always similarity that best predicts positive outcomes. Sometimes dissimilarity is more desirable. For example, one research³⁰⁵ has shown that dissimilarity in extraversion keeps a balance between leaders and employees. Particularly, individuals who exhibit a higher level of extraversion emerge as leaders, while individuals with low extraversion fall in the subordinate roles. Complementary fit may also foster adaptation to organizational changes, as low levels of fit on values and organizational responses may help to avoid groupthink and stagnation³⁰⁶. Additionally, complementary fit allows employees to contribute to their organization contingent on their unique characteristics. In this way, employees may achieve personal distinctiveness within group settings³⁰⁷. Even though supplementary fit (similarity) and complementary fit (dissimilarity) operate through different processes, both are crucial for the interactions among employees and the formation of positive work attitudes³⁰⁸.

3.8 Leader-Follower Compatibility in Communication Styles

These positive outcomes of similarity were also shown for communication, although most research on this topic has for example:

- Similarity in communication may increase how well individuals can predict another one's behavior³⁰⁹.

³⁰³ Witt, 1998

³⁰⁴ Zhang, Wang, & Shi, 2012

³⁰⁵ Neuman et. al., 1999

³⁰⁶ Kristof, 1996

³⁰⁷ Guan et al., 2011

³⁰⁸ Piasentin & Chapman, 2007

³⁰⁹ Berger & Calabrese, 1975

- The similarity in communication styles of patients and health providers has shown a significant impact on patient satisfaction with the provided services for patients who were less physically healthy and not employed³¹⁰.
- Following research on collaborative work vs. individual work showed that team performance exceeded the efficiency of an individual worker. The analysis showed that the magnitude of the collaborative benefit was positively mediated by the strength of the similarity of verbal communication and social affiliation among team members³¹¹.
- The physician-patient communication similarity found to be related to patient expectations of and perceptions about the interaction. Notably, greater generalized trust of doctors before the interaction was related to low communication similarity, and greater specific trust in their physician following the interaction was connected with higher communication similarity. Consequently, interaction with a physician characterized by communication similarity was associated with greater subsequent trust in that physician³¹².

When it comes to leader-follower dyads, research on communication style compatibility has been extremely limited up to this date. However, the initial findings presented below suggest that more interest in this area of study would be beneficial.

The literature suggests that similarity in communication may increase how well individuals can predict one's behavior³¹³. It was theorized that since **reduced uncertainty leads to the increased interpersonal attraction**, a higher **leader and subordinate communication similarity could presume mutual attraction**. At the same time, if a subordinate likes a leader for any other reason than communication similarity, it might be due to adopting some of the leader's communication behaviors. Subordinates can perceive such an approach to communication as a means to being liked more by their leader³¹⁴.

³¹⁰ Trant et al., 2019

³¹¹ Brennan & Enns, 2014

³¹² Vrana et al., 2017

³¹³ Berger & Calabrese, 1975

³¹⁴ Larsen et al., 1977

It is theorized that **similarity** in communication is **highly related to attraction**, **occasionally dissimilarity may help achieve desired communication outcomes**. Scholars offer an **instrumentality**³¹⁵ term to explain the properties of similarity and dissimilarity in communication. The importance of similarity or difference in a communication relationship depends upon whether or not this similarity helps to achieve the goals. As a result, dissimilarity may enhance a relationship as well³¹⁶.

The research on similarities and dissimilarities³¹⁷ of communication styles has revealed that:

- subordinates were most **satisfied** with leaders when **both were similar in dramatic and animated communication styles and different in being relaxed, open, and attentive**;
- subordinates **prefer** leaders and managers who are **more relaxed, open, and attentive** than subordinates themselves;
- the actual scale position of a leader on each communication style is not specifically important as the **position of the leader in relation to the subordinate**. This concept underlines the interactive, dynamic, and contingent nature of organizational communication.

The most recent research on this topic focused on two communication styles: task orientation and interaction orientation. Results showed that the higher the fit between leader's and follower's communication styles, the higher LMX quality³¹⁸. For example, when both followers and leaders exhibited a high level of task-oriented communication style, the higher was the level of followers' job satisfaction and task performance. Additionally, it was shown that misfit in leader's and follower's task orientation leads to a lower quality of LMX. Particularly when the leader's level of task orientation is higher than that of the follower. On the other hand, complementarity in interaction orientation communication resulted into a higher LMX quality (when the leader's level of interaction orientation is higher than that of the follower). Also, alignment at a high level of

³¹⁵ Simons et al., 1970

³¹⁶ Infante, 1978, as cited in Infante & Gorden, 1982

³¹⁷ Infante & Gorden, 1982

³¹⁸ Fan & Han, 2018

task/interaction orientation increased LMX quality. This study is an unique example that supports my expectations regarding the importance of an alignment of communication styles between leaders and followers. In my research I decided to expand these results to a wider range of communication styles.

4. Summary

Leadership is a complex phenomenon and is contingent on such factors as social situations, resources, and employee characteristics. There is no single leadership style that is used or should be used by one leader or manager. Following the contingency theory, there is no optimum leadership style. An effective leader should use different styles depending on the contingencies of the situation—e.g. needs and characteristics of an employee. Consequently, a leadership style used once in the past might not be effective in the present³¹⁹.

The leader-member exchange (LMX) theory assumes that leaders build different relationships with employees, so-called dyads. According to the LMX approach, employees are members of either an in-group or an out-group. The in-group employees tend to have a closer relationship with their leader based on trust, respect, and mutual influence. On the other hand, the out-group categorized employees have a rather transactional relationship with their leader, bound to employment agreements, represented by low trust, respect, and obligation.

Literature suggests that dyadic communication within an organization has been related to multiple coworker relationship outcomes like degree of intimacy, self-disclosure, relational closeness, relational expectations, and interaction richness³²⁰. The research has shown that both fit and misfit contribute to the dyadic relationship; however, when it comes to the LMX relationship, fit is more positively associated with higher LMX quality³²¹. For instance, when leaders and employees are task-oriented, their understanding of work objectives may stimulate them to make a greater effort to achieve those objectives and improve efficiency³²². Quality of LMX relationship is not directly associated with the

³¹⁹ Harrison, 2018

³²⁰ Fan & Han, 2018

³²¹ Matta et al., 2015

³²² Williams & Spiro, 1985

leaders' communication style. A satisfying relationship between leader and employees can be established provided that both communicate using a similar style³²³.

Literature review suggests that managers and leaders must train and develop their communication skills in order to be successful and efficient, as successful leaders consciously change and manipulate their style of communication to accomplish different kinds of communicative work³²⁴. An effective leader must possess such skills as verbal message sending or encoding³²⁵. Moreover, to be able to build and maintain good relationships with subordinates and peers, an effective leader must have great interpersonal skills. In particular, a leader's listening and decoding skills (known as interpersonal sensitivity) are essential for developing good interpersonal relationships³²⁶.

Similarly, there is no single communication style used by an individual, it is contingent on the situation we are in and people we are interacting with. For example, using the Communication Styles Measure has shown that the way people communicate is situationally influenced in the workplace. Significant and meaningful differences were recorded between communication in general versus a stressful work condition. The empirical evidence shows that communicator style is affected differently by various kinds of job-related stress factors and shows how individuals communicate in unique ways when confronted with stress.

³²³ Fan & Han, 2018

³²⁴ Bednar, 1982, p. 72

³²⁵ Riggio, 2001, as cited in Riggio et al., 2003

³²⁶ Lowe et al., 1996, as cited in Riggio et al, 2003

Empirical Part

5. Justification of the Research Problem and the Aim of the Studies

Dyadic communication is the essence of relational dynamics both within and outside of the organizational context³²⁷. It was shown to predict various elements of co-worker relationship quality, e.g. self-disclosure, relational closeness and richness, relational expectation, and degree of intimacy³²⁸. Unfortunately, extant communication styles research in the management field focused on evaluating immediate supervisor's or customer-oriented employees' communication style and how it impacts employees' or customers' outcomes. With a few notable exceptions³²⁹, the receiver's communication style was not taken into consideration. Thus, previous research largely focused on leader's characteristics that are independent of the environment.

However, according to the **LMX model and Person-Environment Fit** (specifically, Person-Supervisor Fit) **theories**, the compatibility between leaders and followers might be even more important in predicting leadership outcomes than independent characteristics of individuals. As put forward by Fan & Han³³⁰: "An agreement or fit in this communication style can guide the group regulation process and promote interaction quality, which, in turn, nurtures a sense of belonging among the work-group members (p. 1084)." Such positive effects of compatibility between leaders and followers were previously shown for values, goals, and personality³³¹. For instance, the similarity in personality between leaders and followers predicted an increase in positive leader-member exchange and, as a result, a higher commitment, trust, job satisfaction, and even performance³³². The LMX model considers a leader-subordinate dyad as a vertical communication relationship, where the high-quality relationships are achieved through aligning and accommodating

³²⁷ Bakar & McCann, 2015; Yrle et al., 2002

³²⁸ Barry & Crant, 2000; Berscheid et al., 1989; Kelley & Burgoon, 1991; Prager, 1989; Tesch & Whitbourne, 1982

³²⁹ Bakar & McCann, 2015; Fan & Han, 2018; Infante & Gorden, 1982

³³⁰ Fan & Han, 2018

³³¹ Schaubroeck & Lam, 2002; van Vianen, 2000; Witt, 1998; Zhang et al., 2012

³³² Schaubroeck & Lam, 2002; Zhang et al., 2012

behaviors³³³. Communicative strategies are the most effective if properly adjusted as the interaction progresses³³⁴. Such alignment increases understanding and improve predictability of another person's behaviour³³⁵, as well as increase interpersonal attraction and satisfaction with the relationship³³⁶. When necessitated by the situation, leaders may also willingly adopt subordinate-oriented communication to increase mutual understanding and obtain their commitment³³⁷. Therefore, the dyadic agreement in communication styles seems to play a crucial role in explaining work outcomes in line with the LMX model. This prediction is further strengthened by Person-supervisor fit theory, according to which a good relationship with the leader is fostered by employees' feeling that their personal characteristics match those of the leader³³⁸.

A support for the positive impact of leader-follower communication style compatibility is also offered by some of the **leadership theories** discussed in the theoretical section of this dissertation. According to some approaches, leadership should be considered as a process rather than a state and is assigned in the process of interaction between the involved parties³³⁹. Since in such interactions the meaning is created largely through communication, a leader who can adjust the communication style to the needs of the followers is more likely to exert desired influence. What is more, according to contingency theories, leadership outcomes depend on the leaders' ability to tune their behavior to the maturity and needs of the employees³⁴⁰. Communication style is one of the most prominent and visible of leader's everyday behaviors, hence its compatibility with the needs of the employees seems to be of paramount importance. Such an adjustment of leadership communication style seems to be especially beneficial in case of high interpersonal stress, as predicted by cognitive resources theory³⁴¹.

³³³ Infante & Gorden, 1982

³³⁴ Fairhurst, 1993, as cited in Martin et al., 2004

³³⁵ Berger & Calabrese, 1975

³³⁶ Simons et al., 1970, as cited in Infante & Gorden, 1982

³³⁷ Luo et al., 2016

³³⁸ van Vianen et al., 2011

³³⁹ Northouse, 2019

³⁴⁰ Yukl, 2011

³⁴¹ Fiedler & Garcia, 1987

Final justification of my research comes from the area of communication itself. Communication is a tool by which members design, distribute, and pursue organizational goals³⁴². It helps to form the social domain, as well as to create and reproduce the shared understanding of goals, objectives, and organizational roles and responsibilities³⁴³. Individuals interpret the social environment, create meaningful perceptions, and act according to their interpretations. Hence, a leader-follower communication that is not aligned may foster misunderstanding and/or unnecessary conflict that undermines the achievement of desired outcomes. Such misunderstandings might be especially pronounced in multinational organizations, in which the meaning creation could be undermined by differences in cultural values and practices³⁴⁴. That is why leaders' attempts at adjusting their communication styles to employee needs and characteristics can be especially beneficial in multicultural contexts.

Consequently, the aim of the current work is to explore to what extent the compatibility in communication styles between leaders and followers affect leadership outcomes. Namely, generalized perception of the leader (Study 1), as well as the job-related well-being and organizational trust in a multinational organization (Study 2).

In the Study 1, I decided to focus on just one communication style that is 1) present in all communication style conceptualizations³⁴⁵ and 2) was shown to negatively affect leadership outcomes—a **dominant communication style**. Previous research showed that followers were less satisfied with leaders who communicated in a dominant manner³⁴⁶ and that dominant behaviour can be even perceived as a form of incivility³⁴⁷. However, a recent study³⁴⁸ showed that the employees' job satisfaction was higher when their dominance control preference was aligned with that their leaders. So, in Study 1, I decided to make a preliminary investigation of communication style compatibility, and

³⁴² Giri & Pavan Kumar, 2010

³⁴³ Donsbach, 2008

³⁴⁴ E.g. Smith, 2011

³⁴⁵ Norton, 1978; Norton, 1983; Burgoon & Hale, 1987; De Vries et al., 2013

³⁴⁶ E.g. Baker & Ganster, 1985

³⁴⁷ Cortina et al., 2001; Cortina et al., 2013; Gabriel et al., 2018; Martin & Hine, 2005

³⁴⁸ Kuzminska & Pazura, 2018

experimentally verify what is the impact of CS dominance on the perception of a leader and, more importantly, whether it depends on the CS dominance of the follower.

In Study 2, I decided to extend my investigation to a wider selection of communication styles that I deemed relevant for leader-follower interactions: **Openness, Confidence, Dominance, Preciseness, Friendliness, Frankness/ Directness, Contentious/ Argumentative, Attentiveness, and Expressiveness**. Additionally, I performed this study in a multinational organization and collected data on communication styles from both team leaders and team members. Thanks to this approach, I obtained a unique set of data for leader-follower dyads. In other words, I did not have to rely on followers' perception of leader's communication styles, which can be confounded by other variables (e.g. liking). What is more, in analysing the data I abstained from using difference scores³⁴⁹, but instead used a polynomial regression with surface analysis, which further increased the spectrum of information I was able to gather from the study.

³⁴⁹ E.g. Bakar & McCann, 2015

6. Research Task (Study) 1

The aim of Research Task 1 was to experimentally explore how manager's **dominant** and **non-dominant communication style** impact employees' attitudes toward that manager, depending on employee's own level of CS dominance. This was a preliminary experiment performed in order to validate a further investigation of leader-follower compatibility across a wider range of communication styles in a multinational organization.

This experiment was informed by previous results showing that, on one hand, leader's dominance was associated with lower employee job satisfaction and generated less favorable evaluations³⁵⁰, but, on the other hand, this effect seems to be dependent on employee own level of dominance. That is, recent research³⁵¹ showed that the highest job satisfaction is observed if employees and their supervisors are characterized by a similar level of dominance. What is more, employees high in dominance control preference were especially dissatisfied with their jobs, if their supervisors were very low in dominance control preference.

Therefore, I have decided to experimentally test the following research hypotheses:

H1: Participants declare more negative attitude towards the manager with a dominant communication style, compared to a manager with a nondominant communication style

H2: The above effect is moderated by participant's own CS dominance. The attitude towards the manager is the more positive, if the manager and the participant are similar in the level of CS dominance, compared to when they are dissimilar in the level of CS dominance.

³⁵⁰ Baker & Ganster, 1985; Buller & Buller, 1987; Cortina et al., 2001; Cortina et al., 2013; Gabriel et al., 2018; Martin & Hine, 2005; Webster & Sundaram, 2009

³⁵¹ Kuzminska & Pazura, 2018

6.1 Method

6.1.1 Participants and experimental design

I recruited 252 U.S. participants via the Amazon Mechanical Turk, using the CloudResearch platform in exchange for \$0.65. Two participants from the *dominant* condition and one from the *non-dominant* condition were excluded due to failing the attention check questions described below. The final sample consisted of 249 participants (135 men and 114 women, ages 23-74, $M = 40.98$, $SD = 11.17$). All participants except three were currently employed (years of experience in their industry ranged between 2 and 49, $M = 13.73$, $SD = 9.88$, *median* = 9) 85.31% worked full-time, while 13.49% worked part-time. Participants were randomly assigned to one of the two experimental conditions: the dominant leader condition ($n = 126$) versus the non-dominant leader condition ($n = 123$). Collection of the data was not continued after data analysis.

6.1.2 Procedure

After providing an informed consent, participants were presented either with an experimental manipulation or with the measurement of the dependent variable followed by the measurement of participants' own communication style, or they were first asked about their own communication style and then presented with the experimental manipulation. The order of these two sections (measurements of the independent and dependent variables) was counterbalanced to ensure that the order effects did not affect the results of the study. Both of these sections are described in detail below. Finally, participants filled in their socio-demographic information (gender, age, occupation status, job title at work, and job tenure).

6.1.3 Materials

6.1.3.1 Experimental manipulation and the dependent variable

On the experimental manipulation screen, depending on the condition, participants were presented with one of the two scenarios describing the communication style of a hypothetical Manager X.

Table 11

Scenarios of a Hypothetical Manager X

Dominant Manager	Non-Dominant Manager
Manager X always dominates conversations during team meetings. When others start to talk about something unrelated to the main topic of the conversation, X immediately interrupts them . During a conversation, X rarely listens to what others want to say. Some employees appreciate X for decisiveness and control over the situation. Others complain that X doesn't take their knowledge and experience into account .	Manager X always listens to team members' ideas during team meetings. When others start to talk about something unrelated to the main topic of the conversation, X rarely interrupts them. During a conversation, X usually waits patiently until everybody had chance to speak up. Some employees appreciate X for taking their knowledge and experience into account . Others complain that X lacks decisiveness and control over the situation .

Participants were asked to read the scenario and imagine that it describes the manager they had to work with. To check the experimental manipulation, on the next screen, the participants were asked how dominant the communication style of the manager X was (1 – very low in dominance to 5 – very high in dominance). In order to control for the participants' personal experience, they were also asked to indicate whether they have ever worked for a manager whose communication style was similar to Xs. On the next screen, participants answered a number of questions designed to measure their attitude towards a leader presented in the scenario and used as a dependent variable.

6.1.3.2 Dependent variables

As a dependent variable, I measured the participant's **attitude towards the Manager X**. This measure was an aggregate of the items measuring the attitudinal aspects described below.

- (1) **Emotions expected if working with Manager X**. This component was composed of 10 emotions taken from the Job-related Affective Well-being scale³⁵²: enthusiastic, content, angry, depressed, anxious, inspired, energetic, at ease, bored, discouraged. JAWS scale is formed out of 4 subscales: high pleasure and high arousal emotions, high pleasure low arousal emotions, low pleasure high arousal emotions, and low pleasure low arousal emotions. For my purposes, I removed the ones that were the most extreme (e.g. ecstatic, excited, furious) and those that captured similar emotions (e.g. for "calm" and "at ease" I decided to keep "at ease"). Participants were asked to declare to what extent do they think they would experience the above positive and negative emotions on a scale from 1 = "not at all" to 5 = "to a large extent". The answers to negative emotions were then reversed and a joint index of emotions at work was computed, where a high score indicates a high level of positive emotions and a low level of negative emotions. Cronbach's alpha for the scale = 0.92.
- (2) **Willingness to work for Manager X** measured using scale from 1 to 5 (where 1: *under no circumstances*, 2: *only if there was no other option*, 3: *I could, but with no enthusiasm*, 4: *gladly*, and 5: *with great pleasure*).
- (3) **Expected satisfaction with Manager X's communication style** (Scale: 1: *very dissatisfied*, and 5: *very satisfied*).
- (4) **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*).

Due to high correlations between the above four scales (Table 12), I created an index of employee attitude towards the leader, computed as an average of expected emotions, trust,

³⁵² Katwyk et al., 2000

and satisfaction with the described leader. High score on the scale indicates a positive attitude towards the described leader.

Table 12

Correlations Between the Scales of Emotions, Satisfaction, and Trust

	Level of positive emotions	Satisfaction with Trust in Manager X	Manager X's CS
Satisfaction with Manager X's CS	$r = .841^{***}$		
Trust in Manager X	$r = .827^{***}$	$r = .844^{***}$	
Willingness to Work for Manager X	$r = .814^{***}$	$r = .887^{***}$	$r = .828^{***}$

6.1.3.3 Dominant communication style of the participant

Dominant communication style of the participant was measured using the items based on the scale developed by Norton³⁵³, participants were asked to read nine statements referring to their general communication in social situations and indicate the degree to which each statement applies to them. The response scale ranged from 1: *strongly disagree* to 5: *strongly agree*.

Dominant communication style items:

1. I find myself speaking very frequently
2. I am rather silent even if I have something important to say
3. If people talk nonsense, I readily interrupt them
4. I usually wait for my turn to speak up
5. When speakers give wrong information, I always wait until they finish to correct them
6. During meetings, I'm the person who is ready to comment on almost everything
7. I'm very cautious in finding the right words to provide feedback to others
8. During meetings, I am impulsive in confronting others
9. Other people think that I speak too much.

³⁵³ Norton, 1978

6.1.3.4 Attention checks

Throughout the study, participants were twice asked to choose the particular answer to ensure their responses were not random (e.g., “Attention check. Please choose the answer ‘Satisfied’”).

6.2 Results and Discussion

To test the hypothesis, I performed a multiple regression analysis (Table 13), in which the attitude towards Manager X was a dependent variable and the experimental manipulation (Manager X dominant vs. nondominant) and participant’s level of CS dominance were the predictors (histograms for the variables used in this study can be found in Appendix 8). The regression model was significant and accounted for 64% of variance in the attitude towards the leader, $F(6, 242) = 73.32$, $p < .001$. The results showed a significant main effect of experimental manipulation and indicated that Manager X’s dominance significantly predicted participants’ attitudes ($\beta = -0.77$, $p < 0.001$) – participants declared significantly more negative attitudes towards the dominant Manager X than towards the nondominant Manager X.

Table 13

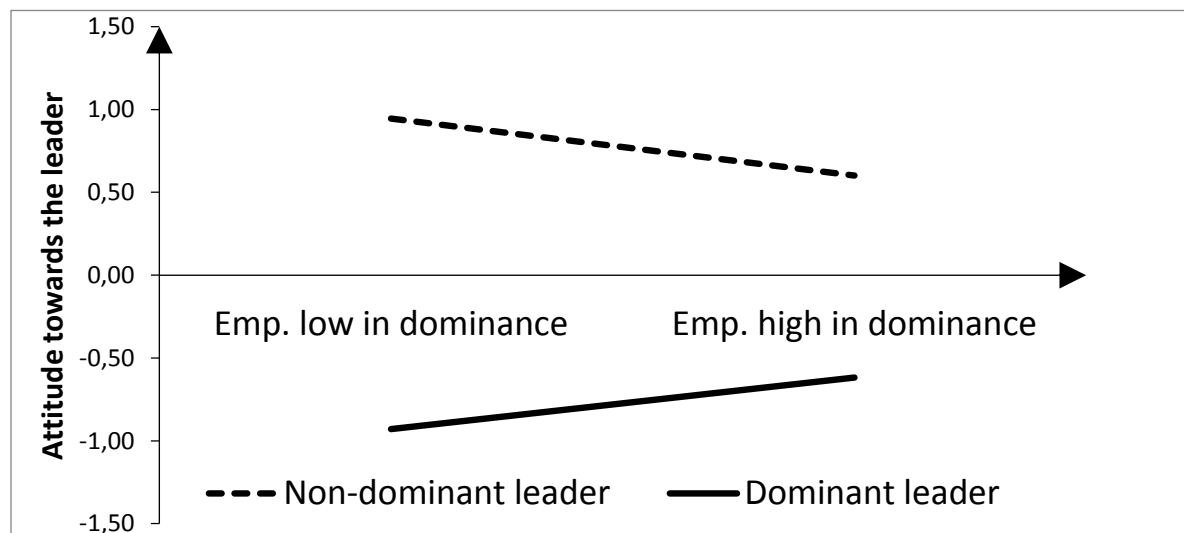
Multiple Regression Analysis

	<i>b</i>	<i>SE</i>	Beta	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Constant	3.382	.212		15.956	<.001
Gender (1 = male; 2 = female)	-.073	.090	-.032	-.817	.415
Age	-.007	.006	-.073	-1.300	.195
Years of Experience	4.933E-6	.006	<.001	.001	.999
Experimental manipulation (1 = not dominant; 2 = dominant)	-.883	.044	-.774	-20.108	<.001
Employee Dominance	-.010	.045	-.008	-.213	.831
Manipulation x Participant’s Dominance	.187	.046	.164	4.092	<.001
R ²	.636				

An interaction between experimental manipulation and participant's CS dominance was also significant ($\beta = .164$ $p < 0.001$). This interaction is presented on Figure 1, where the attitude towards Manager X is marked on the X axis and the level of employee CS dominance is marked on the Y axis). It can be seen that all employees, regardless of their level of dominance in communicating, expressed more positive attitudes towards the manager who adopts a non-dominant communication style. However, this effect was especially prominent for those who were low in dominance themselves. For those who are high in dominance the preferences were not as high apart, indicating that dominant participants expressed a higher acceptance of dominant communication style of a leader.

Figure 1

Employees' Attitude Towards the Leader



To sum up, all participants declared preference to cooperate with a less dominant leader regardless of their level of dominance, confirming Hypothesis 1. However, participants who adopt a more dominant communication style were seemingly more compatible with dominant leaders than participants with a less dominant communication style. The results of this interaction provide a partial support for Hypothesis 2. The results did not fully confirm that the attitude towards the leader would be more positive if they were similar in the level of CS dominance, but they showed that participants' CS dominance indeed moderated the impact of manager's CS dominance in the predicted direction. Those who are low in dominance might find it very difficult to share their opinions and expertise when the leader dominates the discussion, because they are not ready to interrupt or push for

being heard. For this reason, people who are low in dominance might feel disregarded or unheard. On the other hand, employees with a dominant CS might find it easier to work with dominant leaders, as they can feel more confident to interrupt them during the conversation or find another way to add into the conversation.

7. Research Task (Study) 2

Experimental Study 1 provided a tentative confirmation of my expectation that compatibility in communication styles (a focus on dyads) might provide a fuller prediction of leadership outcomes, compared to independent measurements of leaders' or employees' communication styles (a focus on individuals). For this reason, in Study 2, I decided to extend my investigation to a wider range of communication styles relevant for the daily leader-follower interactions (Openness, Confidence, Dominance, Preciseness, Friendliness, Frankness/directness, Contentious/Argumentative, Attentiveness, Expressiveness) and to perform this study among the actual employees of a multinational organization. In this way, I was able to obtain the communication style data for the leader-follower dyads and explore how the leadership outcomes such as job well-being and trust depend of the CS compatibility in these dyads.

I decided to focus on these two leadership outcomes—job-related well-being and trust—due to a variety of research that proved their association with both communication styles³⁵⁴, communication satisfaction³⁵⁵, as well as other organization outcomes, such as employee performance³⁵⁶, organizational citizenship behaviors³⁵⁷, etc. My hypotheses in this study were developed based on the results of a variety of earlier research on both communication styles, as well as the consequences of other forms of leader's behaviors.

Previous research suggests that a supervisor's open communication style resulted in employees' wish to stay in the organization³⁵⁸. It was also found that employees value a leader's ability to communicate in a concise, precise, and structured manner. Leaders who adopt precise communication style can build trust through projecting effectiveness, professionalism, and expertise³⁵⁹. As frankness and directness in communication is being clear about own opinion and vision, it may lead to tendency to clarify role related duties. It

³⁵⁴ Kandlousi et al., 2010; Pavan Kumar, & Giri, 2009

³⁵⁵ Clampitt & Downs, 1993

³⁵⁶ Siengthai & Pila-Ngarm, 2016

³⁵⁷ Swaminathan & Jawahar, 2013

³⁵⁸ Kang & Hyun, 2012

³⁵⁹ Brown et al., 2019

was shown that role clarity as a job-related resource predict higher LMX quality, which was connected to lower levels of emotional exhaustion or burnout³⁶⁰.

What is more, previous research has shown that the degree of argumentativeness might affect perceptions of leadership. More argumentative leaders were chosen over those less argumentative. However, if a leader exhibits an extreme level of argumentativeness, he or she may be rejected or lose status if another form of leadership is available to followers³⁶¹.

Leader confidence is associated with visionary and inspirational processes. For example, “inspiration refers to the extent to which a leader stimulates enthusiasm among subordinates for the work of the group and says things to build subordinate confidence in the ability to perform assignments successfully and attain group objectives.”³⁶² It was found that leader can exhibit two types of confidence: self-confidence and confidence in a follower. It was shown that self-confidence generates followers’ decisive beliefs in organizational success, while confidence in followers impacts followers’ own self-confidence and levels of motivation³⁶³.

Friendliness in communication is the way people express admiration for others, encourage others, and are interested in other people’s opinions and ideas. Leader’s encouragement of creativity was shown to facilitate followers’ engagement in creative processes, particularly in the higher LMX reported by followers³⁶⁴. Another research³⁶⁵ has reported that leader’s encouragement of teamwork affects members’ displays of team and organizational citizenship behaviors.

Preceding study results also showed that assertive leader’s communication styles are connected with supporting employees and creating trustworthy environment³⁶⁶. Assertive communication facilitates positive interpersonal interaction and is described by honesty, objectivity, openness, tolerance, accuracy, self-expression, and respect for self and others.

³⁶⁰ Gregersen et al., 2016

³⁶¹ Schultz, 1982

³⁶² Yukl, 1981 (p. 121)

³⁶³ Fu et al., 2016

³⁶⁴ Huang et al., 2016

³⁶⁵ Afolabi et al., 2009

³⁶⁶ Dasgupta et al., 2012

As a result, managers with an assertive communication style are able to express opinions explicitly without attacking others, give constructive feedback, recognize employees, motivate, ask effective questions, and create a collaborative work environment. A relaxed communication style of the leader has a positive impact on employees, as it induces calm and peaceful emotions, thus encouraging comfortable and positive emotional responses. Furthermore, leaders with assertive communication style tend to support and connect employees both rationally and emotionally³⁶⁷. Moreover, leader's open communication style induces employees' trust, and leader's attentive communication style maximizes communication efficiency³⁶⁸.

Based on the review of the literature, in the current study I proposed the following hypothesis:

H3: Supervisor's communication style is directly related to employee outcomes.

- The higher the level of **friendliness** the higher the level of job well-being (**H3a**) of the employees.
- The higher the level of **openness** the higher the level of trust (**H3b**) and job well-being (**H3c**) of the employees.
- The higher the level of **confidence** the higher the level of trust (**H3d**) and job well-being (**H3e**) of the employees.
- The higher the level of **preciseness** the higher the level of trust (**H3f**) and job well-being (**H3g**) of the employees.
- The higher the level of **frankness/directness** the higher the level of trust (**H3h**) and job well-being (**H3i**) of the employees.
- The higher the level of **argumentativeness** of the leader, the lower the level of job well-being (**H3j**) of the employees

H4: The level of congruence in communication styles between supervisor and employee impacts employee outcomes.

³⁶⁷ Dasgupta et al., 2012

³⁶⁸ Kang & Hyun, 2012

- The employee level of job well-being (**H4a**) and trust (**H4b**) is lower when both supervisor and employee exhibit **non-confident** communication style.
- The employee level of job well-being (**H4c**) and trust (**H4d**) is higher when the supervisor and the employee are aligned in the level of **dominance**
- The employee level of job well-being (**H4e**) and trust (**H4f**) is higher when the supervisor and the employee are similar in the level of **preciseness**.

7.1 Method

7.1.1 Participants and design

The study was conducted at the shared services office of a global law firm located in Warsaw. For the purposes of the study, I needed to collect data separately for each team. Hence, I have identified teams and sent separate survey to each team. The questionnaire was sent to over 200 people and 156 participants have returned the filled out questionnaires (78%). One team (5 participants) were excluded from further analyses because the team leader did not fill in the questionnaire. In total, the analyzed sample was composed of 29 teams (between 2 and 16 people; 151 participants in total – 29 leaders and 122 team members), including 67 men and 74 women (one person did not disclose their gender; nine participants preferred not to disclose their gender; gender was treated as a missing value for those participants in the correlation and regression analyses), ages 21-62, $M_{age} = 33.23$, $SD = 7.03$). The sample consisted of the following nationalities³⁶⁹: 124 of Eastern European Group³⁷⁰, 23 of Western Europe and other groups³⁷¹, 2 of Asia and the Pacific Groups³⁷², and 2 of African Group³⁷³. The tenure in the company was measured in month, as there were many employees, who worked less than a year for the company. The range of tenure is 49 month (which is a bit more than 4 years) with minimum 1 month and maximum 50 month within the company ($M = 23.45$, $SD = 14.68$). Most participants have reported that they frequently worked directly with other members of their team ($M = 4.63$, $SD = 1.377$).

³⁶⁹ Country division according to United Nations Regional Groups

³⁷⁰ Azerbaijan, Belarus, Czech Republic, Poland, Romania, Hungary, Ukraine, Russia

³⁷¹ United Kingdom, France, Austria, Spain, Greece, Turkey, Portugal, Belgium

³⁷² Uzbekistan, South Korea

³⁷³ South Africa

7.1.2 Procedure

After accepting an informed consent, participants were asked to select one of the following options: *I am a Team Leader/Manager* or *I am a Team Member*. Depending on their choice, they were directed to one of the two versions of the survey. The difference between these versions was only in questions about trust. Team members received questions about trust towards their team leader/manager and the team, which were not present in the team leader's version of the survey. Each participant was asked to rate their own communication style in the following dimensions: openness, confidence, dominance, directness, preciseness, friendliness, argumentativeness, attentiveness, expressiveness (in explorative fashion, I also tested expressiveness even though I do not have particular expectations about it). The order of the independent variables (communication styles) and dependent variables (trust and job-related well-being) measurement was counterbalanced to ensure that the order effects did not affect the results of the study. Therefore, either participants were presented with the measurement of the dependent variables followed by the measurement of their communication style, or they were first asked about their communication style and then presented with the dependent variables. Both of these sections are described in detail below. Finally, participants filled in their socio-demographic information (gender, age, nationality, tenure in the company, tenure in the team, number of team members, how often they cooperate with the team and how often work individually).

7.2 Materials

7.2.1 Communication styles

The measurement of the communication style was based on the two scales developed by Norton³⁷⁴ and Yuan et al³⁷⁵. The latter scale was developed by using different sources, including studies that explored the relationships between competence and communication

³⁷⁴ Norton, 1978

³⁷⁵ Yuan et al., 2019

styles and those that documented various communication styles. Furthermore, the chosen items of Yuan's scale were slightly changed to reflect the method of the study (the original scale can be found in Appendix 9). The final scale that was used for this study can also be found in Appendix 10. Participants were asked to decide to what extent they agree with each of the 20 statements. The response scale ranged from 1: *strongly disagree* to 5: *strongly agree*. The following communication styles were measured in this study:

- **Openness** (e.g., "As a rule, I openly express my feelings and emotions")
- **Confidence** (e.g., "I am usually self-confident while talking")
- **Dominance** (e.g., "I find myself speaking very frequently")
- **Preciseness** (e.g., "I like to be strictly accurate when I communicate")
- **Friendliness** (e.g., "Whenever I communicate, I tend to be very encouraging to people")
- **Frankness/directness** (e.g., "I will let the others know clearly where I stand on an issue")
- **Contentious/Argumentative** (e.g., "Once I get wound up in a heated discussion, I have a hard time stopping myself").

7.2.2 Dependent variables

Job-related well-being was measured as an aggregate of two, highly correlated ($r = 0.63$) subconstructs: job satisfaction and job-related emotions.

- **Satisfaction** was measured with a scale developed by Bajcar et al. (2011), in which participants are asked to evaluate to what extent they are satisfied with the following aspects of their work: colleagues, direct supervisor, type of tasks performed at work, working conditions, professional development, financial rewards, work time, the stability of employment, the job as whole. Items were answered on a 5-point scale (1 = *very dissatisfied*, 5 = *very satisfied*). Cronbach's for the scale = 0.84
- **Emotions** were measured with the same method as in Study 1. Participants were asked to identify how often they experienced positive and negative emotions at

work (e.g., *energetic, inspired, anxious, angry*). The response scale ranged from 1: *never* to 5: *extremely often or always*. Cronbach's for the scale = 0.73.

Trust in this study was measured with two subscales (full questionnaire can be found in Appendix 11): 1) trust in the team members (e.g., *"I can count on my team colleagues to have my back"*; $\alpha = 0.73$), 2) trust in the leader (e.g., *"I feel confident that my leader will always try to treat me fairly"*; $\alpha = 0.86$). The response scale ranged from 1: *strongly disagree* to 5: *strongly agree*. Because the two scales were highly correlated ($r = 0.5$), I computed a global scale of trust ($\alpha = 0.83$).

7.2.3 Control variables

As control variables, I have measured the:

- Seniority in the team ("For how long have you been with your current team (months)?")
- Seniority in the company ("How many months have you been with your current employer?")
- Frequency of collaboration directly with other members ("How often do you work directly with other members of your team?"), and
- Frequency of working independently ("How often do you work independently of those within your team?").

7.3 Results

In the first step, I checked the descriptive statistics and distributions of the variables (histograms for the variables used in this study can be found in Appendix 12), as well as performed a correlation analysis for the variables measured in the study, excluding the communication styles measured for the employees (Table 14). The correlation table for the communication styles (measured for the employees and for the leaders) can be found in Appendix 13. The analysis indicated that the frequency of working directly with other team members is highly correlated with employees' trust ($r = .36$; $p < 0.001$), and employees' job well-being ($r = .63$; $p < 0.001$). This correlation suggests that the more frequently both employees and leaders work directly with each other, the higher the level

of employees' positive emotions and employees' job satisfaction. Also, the correlation between age and time spend with the team suggests that older employees spent more time with the team compare to younger ($r = .35$; $p < 0.001$). Further, employee job well-being is strongly associated with trust ($r = .63$; $p < 0.001$). It suggests that employees who experience positive emotions at work and are satisfied with their job feel more trust within their teams. Leader job satisfaction is highly correlated with leader frankness ($r = .40$; $p < 0.001$). The more frank is the communication style a leader adopts, the more are followers satisfied with their job.

Table 14***Descriptive statistics and intercorrelations for the variables measured in Study 2***

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Gender	-	-	1													
2. Age	33.06	7.08	-.09	1												
3. Doing teamwork	4.63	1.37	-.17*	.11	1											
4. Time with the team	18.08	13.08	-.08	.35***	.20**	1										
5. Trust	3.90	0.62	-.07	-.03	.36***	.11	1									
6. LJS	4.87	0.50	.17	-.00	.02	-.14	-.20**	1								
7. EJWB	4.16	0.54	-.05	.13	.23**	.00	.63***	.08	1							
8. LO	2.91	0.69	.01	.12	-.08	.11	.03	.06	.01	1						
9. LE	3.58	0.82	.06	-.07	.10	-.11	-.02	.22**	.03	-.39***	1					
10. LFRNK	3.96	0.62	-.07	.07	-.05	.01	-.02	-.00	.07	.44***	-.34***	1				
11. LP	3.87	0.63	-.03	.09	-.04	-.24**	-.07	-.08	-.02	.02	-.31***	.08	1			
12. LA	3.13	0.81	-.16	.03	.16	-.05	.08	-.05	.04	-.59***	.39***	-.19*	.12	1		
13. LD	3.36	0.41	-.17*	.17*	.16	.08	.08	-.12	-.03	-.03	.17*	.27**	.02	.57***	1	
14. LFRND	4.16	0.42	.05	.09	.00	-.07	-.17*	.40***	-.01	.25**	-.36***	.43***	.27**	.03	.32***	1
15. LC	4.00	0.61	-.07	.07	-.02	.17*	-.22**	.05	-.06	.26**	-.33***	.50***	.11	.09	.37***	.57***

Note 1: LGS – leader’s job satisfaction; EJS – employee’s job well-being; LO – leader’s openness; LE – leader’s expressiveness; LFRNK – leader’s frankness; LP – leader’s preciseness; LA – leader’s argumentativeness; LD – leader’s dominance; LFRND – leader’s friendliness; LC – leader’s confidence

Note 2: Gender (1 = male; 2 = female)

Note 3: Table with descriptive statistics and intercorrelations for the variables measured in Study 2 (employee CSs) can be found in Appendix 14

Note 4: * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$

7.3.1 Hypotheses testing

To test the hypotheses, I performed 16 multinomial regression analyses. The dependent variables were trust and job well-being while the predictors were 1) employee's communication style (e.g., openness), 2) team leader's communication style (e.g., leader's openness), 3) the interaction between the employee's and leader's communication styles, 4) the square terms for employee's communication style, 5) the square term for team leader's communication style. Additionally, in all analyses, I controlled for the frequency of teamwork and the length of time an employee was with the current team. For analyses that proved significant I additionally performed a surface analysis in line with the guidelines developed by Shanock, Baran, Gentry, Pattison, and Heggestad (2010). This approach allows examining how combinations of two predictors jointly relate to an outcome variable. It is of particular interest when the discrepancy or congruence between the two predictors is a central consideration. In polynomial regression, the dependent variable (Z) is regressed on two predictors (X and Y), the interaction between the two predictors, and the squared terms for both predictors. The obtained coefficients are then plotted in a three-dimensional space, creating the "response surface pattern". On the resulting graph, two lines are of special interest in the analysis of fit³⁷⁶:

1. the line of congruence ($X = Y$), which represents how the dependent variable is affected by the agreement between the two predictors. The significance of the test for slope of the line of congruence represents how the agreement between the two predictors (a similarity on a continuum from low ratings on both predictor variables to high ratings on both predictor variables) affects the level of the dependent variable. The significance of the test for curvature along the line of congruence shows whether the effect of agreement between the two predictors on the dependent variable is nonlinear.
2. the line of incongruence ($X = -Y$), which represents the discrepancy between the two predictors. If the degree of discrepancy between X and Y affected the level of the dependent variable, the test for curvature of the incongruence line would be significant. The test of slope of the line of incongruence represents whether the direction of the discrepancy between predictors matter in predicting the dependent

³⁷⁶ Shanock et al., 2010

variable. In this dissertation, the congruence line ($X = Y$) is plotted on all graphs from the front corner (where $X = Y = -2$) to the rear corner (where $X = Y = 2$), whereas the incongruence line ($X = -Y$) is from the left corner to the right corner. In all of our analyses, X represents the scores of a follower (an employee) on a given predictor variable, Y represents the scores of a leader on a given predictor variable, and Z represents the level of DV (job well-being or trust). The Excel spreadsheet developed by Shanock et al. (2010) that we used to create surface plots included the corrected formulas, as specified in the erratum to the article³⁷⁷.

7.3.1.1 Openness

The first two analyses checked how the level of openness (employee's and team leader's) affects employee's trust and job well-being. Table 15 shows the estimated regression coefficients for the polynomial regression predicting trust. The model was significant, $F(7, 113) = 2.74$, $p = .012$ and accounted for 9.2% of variance in trust. The only variable that significantly predicted trust in this analysis was the frequency of teamwork ($\beta = 0.35$, $p < 0.001$) – the more frequently employees worked with their teams, the more trust they felt.

Table 15

Polynomial regression of open communication style on employee trust

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	Beta	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Constant	3.172	.219		14.481	<.001
Doing teamwork	.161	.042	.345	3.815	<.001
Time spend with the team	.002	.005	.028	.306	.760
Openness of the employee (EO)	.064	.072	.083	.897	.372
Openness of the leader (LO)	.043	.092	.047	.468	.641
EO ²	-.005	.072	-.006	-.064	.949
LO ²	.004	.110	.004	.037	.970
EO x LO	.070	.113	.055	.622	.535
Adjusted R ²	.092				

Table 16 shows the results of the regression analysis for job well-being. The model was also significant, $F(7, 113) = 2.45$, $p = .022$ and accounted for 7.8% of variance in trust. As in the previous analysis, the frequency of teamwork significantly predicted job well-being ($\beta = 0.24$, $p = 0.009$) – the more frequently employees worked with their teams, the more

³⁷⁷ Ibid.

job-related well-being they reported. No other variables were significantly related to job well-being in this analysis.

Table 16

Polynomial Regression of Open Communication Style on Employee Job Well-Being

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	Beta	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Constant	3.817	.201		18.983	<.001
Doing teamwork	.104	.039	.243	2.664	.009
Time spend with the team	-.005	.005	-.093	-.996	.321
Openness of the employee (EO)	.065	.066	.092	.985	.327
Openness of the leader (LO)	.076	.084	.091	.908	.366
EO ²	-.122	.066	-.175	-1.855	.066
LO ²	.062	.101	.063	.614	.541
EO x LO	.110	.095	.095	1.061	.291
Adjusted R ²	.078				

7.3.1.2 Frankness

A similar pattern of results could be seen for frankness (Table 18). The regression analysis predicting trust was significant, $F(7,113) = 3.66$, $p = 0.001$, with the only significant predictor being the frequency of teamwork ($\beta = 0.32$, $p < 0.001$). The analysis predicting job well-being was not significant, $F(7,113) = 1.44$, $p = 0.197$.

Table 17

Polynomial Regression of Frank Communication Style on Employee Trust

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	Beta	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Constant	2.970	.231		12.861	<.001
Doing teamwork	.151	.041	.322	3.634	<.001
Time spend with the team	.001	.005	.014	.154	.878
Frankness of the employee (EF)	.197	.199	.209	.992	.324
Frankness of the leader (LF)	.193	.221	.191	.873	.385
EF ²	.098	.090	.146	1.088	.279
LF ²	-.058	.093	-.114	-.629	.531
EF x LF	-.122	.137	-.175	-.890	.375
Adjusted R ²	.134				

7.3.1.3 Preciseness

Next, I checked whether the level of preciseness of an employee and of a team leader, as well as their similarity affects employee's level of trust. Table 19 shows the estimated regression coefficients for the polynomial regression predicting trust, together with slopes and curvatures along the congruence and incongruence lines. Figure 2 presents the response surface plotted with these coefficients. The model was significant, $F(7,113) = 4.18$, $p < .001$, and accounted for 15.6% of variance in trust.

Table 18

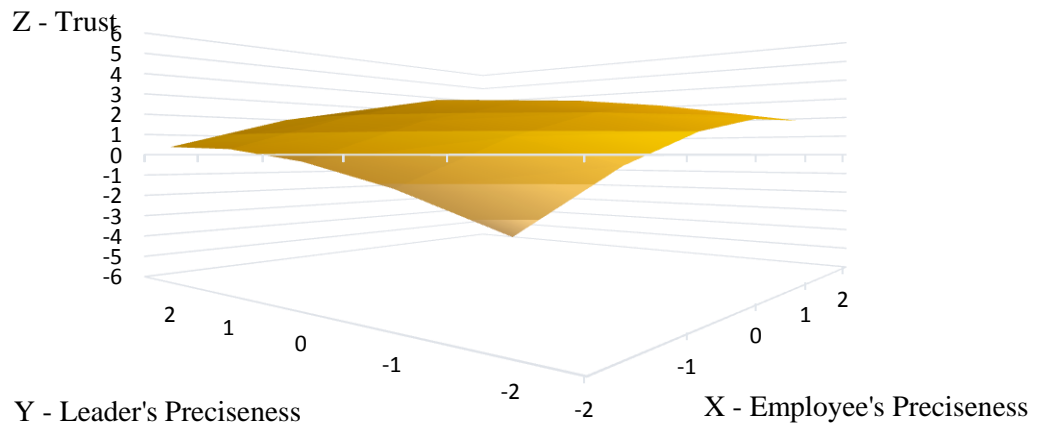
Polynomial Regression of Precise Communication Style on Employee Trust

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	Beta	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Constant	2.629	.325		8.084	<.001
Doing teamwork	.180	.041	.384	4.397	<.001
Time spend with the team	.001	.005	.026	.297	.767
Preciseness of the employee (EP)	.821	.329	.754	2.499	.014
Preciseness of the leader (LP)	.437	.259	.444	1.687	.094
(EP) ²	-.312	.128	-.606	-2.443	.016
(LP) ²	-.191	.096	-.396	-1.994	.049
EP x LP	-.129	.163	-.187	-.787	.433
Adjusted R ²	.156				
<i>Congruence</i>					
Slope	1.26	0.50		2.509	0.013
Curvature	-0.63	0.25		-2.535	0.013
<i>Incongruence</i>					
Slope	0.38	0.32		1.218	0.225
Curvature	-0.37	0.21		-1.821	0.071

As previously, trust was predicted by frequency of contact with the other team members ($\beta = 0.38$, $p < 0.001$). Response surface analysis shows a significant slope of the congruence (EP = LP) line indicating a linear (additive) relationship between Employee and Leader Preciseness on trust. The slope is positive, which means that trust increases as both EP and LP increase. In addition to the slope ($p = .013$), the curvature of the line of congruence is also significant ($p = .012$). This means that the level of trust was highest when both the employees and their leaders reported an “average” level of preciseness. The lowest trust was observed when both the employees and their leaders were very low in preciseness. The level of trust was diminishing when both leaders and employees' level of preciseness was very high.

Analysis predicting job well-being was not significant, $F(7,113) = 1.69$, $p = .118$.

Figure 2
Preciseness and Trust



7.3.1.4 Argumentativeness

The regression model predicting trust with argumentativeness was significant, $F(7,113) = 3.07$, $p = .005$, and accounted for 10.7% of variability in employee trust (Table 20). The only significant predictor of trust for this analysis was frequency of teamwork ($\beta = 0.35$, $p < 0.001$). The polynomial model predicting job well-being was not significant, $F(7,113) = 1.74$, $p = .107$.

Table 19

Regression Analysis Predicting Trust With Argumentative Communication Style

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	Beta	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Constant	3.135	.203		15.416	<.001
Doing teamwork	.165	.042	.352	3.894	<.001
Time spend with the team	.003	.005	.050	.564	.574
Argumentativeness of the employee (EA)	-.112	.077	-.141	-1.445	.151
Argumentativeness of the leader (LA)	.091	.081	.117	1.130	.261
EA ²	-.016	.068	-.022	-.229	.819

LA ²	-.057	.079	-.067	-.720	.473
EA x LA	.098	.099	.102	.995	.322
Adjusted R ²	.107				

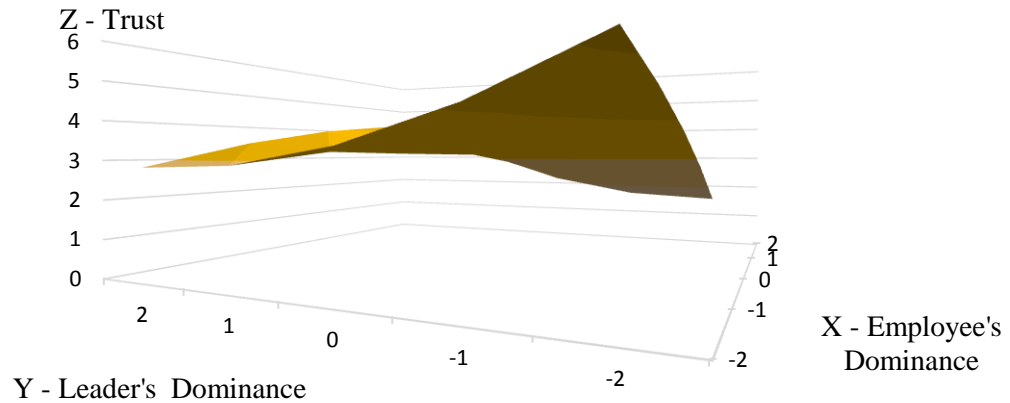
7.3.1.5 Dominance

Table 20

Polynomial Regression of Dominant Communication Style on Employee Trust

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	Beta	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Constant	3.130	.198		15.798	<.001
Doing teamwork	.158	.042	.338	3.740	<.001
Time spend with the team	.001	.005	.021	.230	.819
Dominance of the employee (ED)	-.288	.134	-.283	-2.139	.035
Dominance of the leader (LD)	.034	.185	.022	.183	.855
ED ²	-.093	.133	-.067	-.702	.484
LD ²	.180	.238	.090	.754	.452
ED X LD	.323	.237	.183	1.364	.175
Adjusted R ²	.129				
<i>Congruence</i>					
Slope	-0.25	0.19		-1.335	0.184
Curvature	0.41	0.13		3.192	0.002
<i>Incongruence</i>					
Slope	-0.32	0.26		-1.233	0.220
Curvature	-0.24	0.42		-0.562	0.575

The next series of analysis investigated the relationship between the level of employee and leader dominance on trust and job well-being. The model predicting trust was significant $F(7,113) = 3.54$, $p = .002$ and accounted for 12.9% of variability in trust. Table 21 shows the estimated regression coefficients for the polynomial regression predicting trust, together with slopes and curvatures along the congruence and incongruence lines. Figure 3 presents the response surface plotted with these coefficients. Apart from that, so far, consistent effect of teamwork frequency ($\beta = 0.34$, $p < 0.001$), an analysis also revealed a significant effect of employee dominance ($\beta = -0.28$, $p = 0.035$). An analysis of response surface plot showed a significant ($p = 0.002$) curvature of the congruence line ($ED = LD$).

Figure 3***Dominance and Trust*****Table 21*****Polynomial Regression of Dominant Communication Style on Employee Job Well-Being***

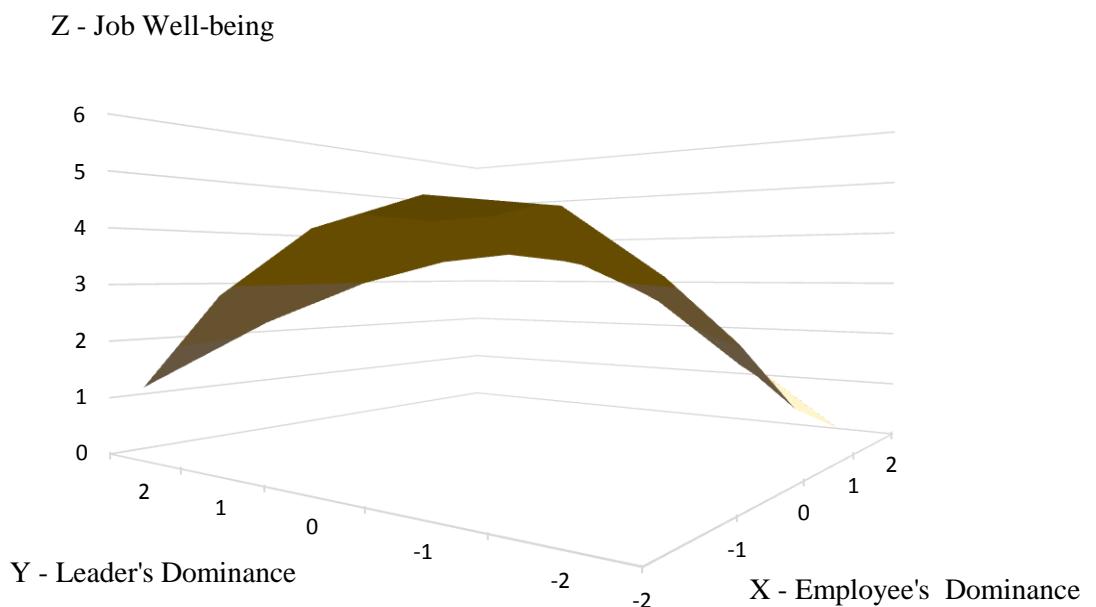
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	Beta	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Constant	3.744	.188		19.966	<.001
Doing teamwork	.110	.040	.258	2.746	.007
Time spend with the team	-.004	.005	-.079	-.852	.396
Dominance of the employee (ED)	-.303	.127	-.327	-2.381	.019
Dominance of the leader (LD)	.233	.175	.167	1.329	.186
ED ²	-.129	.126	-.102	-1.025	.308
LD ²	-.305	.226	-.168	-1.353	.179
ED X LD	.455	.224	.283	2.026	.045
Adjusted R ²	.061				
<i>Congruence</i>					
Slope	-0.07	0.18		-0.387	0.700
Curvature	0.02	0.26		0.080	0.936
<i>Incongruence</i>					
Slope	-0.54	0.25		-2.175	0.032
Curvature	-0.89	0.32		-2.796	0.006

The regression model predicting job well-being was also significant, $F(7,113) = 2.16$, $p = 0.048$, and explained 6.1% of variability in trust. Table 22 shows the estimated regression coefficients for the polynomial regression predicting job well-being, together with slopes and curvatures along the congruence and incongruence lines. Figure 4 presents the

response surface plotted with these coefficients. Model showed a significant effect of teamwork frequency ($\beta = 0.26$, $p = 0.007$), an analysis also revealed a significant effect of employee dominance ($\beta = -0.33$, $p = 0.019$) and an interaction effect between employee and leader's dominance ($\beta = 0.28$, $p = 0.045$). An analysis of response surface plot showed a significant slope ($p = 0.032$) and curvature ($p = 0.006$) of the line of incongruence (ED = -LD). This effect indicates that the highest level of job well-being was observed for those participants for whom the level of dominance in communication style was congruent with that of the leader, with a steep decrease in declared well-being as the level of similarity decreased (Figure 4).

Figure 4

Dominance and Well-Being



7.3.1.6 Friendliness

Table 22

Regression Analysis Predicting Trust with Friendly Communication Style

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	Beta	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Constant	3.124	.432		7.231	<.001
Doing teamwork	.156	.041	.334	3.790	<.001
Time spend with the team	.001	.005	.014	.151	.880
Friendliness of the employee (EF)	-.004	.338	-.004	-.013	.989
Friendliness of the leader (LF)	.343	.692	.234	.496	.621
EF ²	.113	.141	.157	.802	.424

LF ²	-.268	.302	-.392	-.889	.376
EF x LF	-.019	.232	-.020	-.081	.935
Adjusted R ²	.140				

The regression analysis predicting trust was significant, $F(7, 113) = 3.66$, $p = 0.001$ and accounted for 14% of variance in declared trust (Table 23), the only significant predictor being the frequency of teamwork ($\beta = 0.33$, $p < 0.001$).

The analysis predicting job well-being was marginally non-significant, $F(7, 113) = 2.05$, $p = 0.055$. Frequency of teamwork ($\beta = 0.24$, $p = 0.011$), as well as the main effect of leader's friendliness ($\beta = 1.042$, $p = 0.037$) and the square root of leader's friendliness ($\beta = -0.98$, $p = 0.037$) were significant for this analysis. For this reason, I also performed an analysis of response surface plot. Table 24 shows the estimated regression coefficients for the polynomial regression predicting job well-being, together with slopes and curvatures along the congruence and incongruence lines. Figure 5 presents the response surface plotted with these coefficients. This analysis revealed a significant slope ($p = 0.025$) and curvature ($p = 0.023$) along the line of congruence ($EF = LF$). Employee's well-being was the lowest when both the leader and employee declared using a communication style that was low in friendliness.

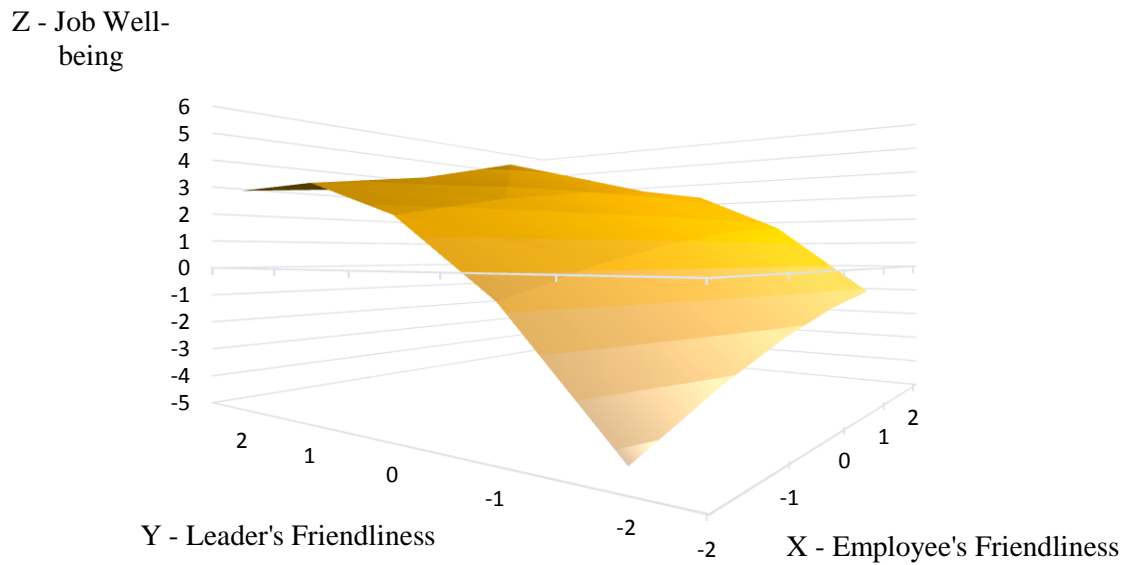
Table 23

Polynomial Regression of Friendly Communication Style on Employee Job Well-Being

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>Beta</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Constant	2.960	.412		7.185	<.001
Doing teamwork	.101	.039	.238	2.579	.011
Time spend with the team	-.002	.005	-.036	-.382	.703
Friendliness of the employee (EF)	.425	.322	.384	1.318	.190
Friendliness of the leader (LF)	1.395	.660	1.046	2.116	.037
EF ²	-.115	.135	-.174	-.850	.397
LF ²	-.608	.288	-.976	-2.112	.037
EF x LF	-.188	.222	-.223	-.850	.397
Adjusted R ²	.058				
<i>Congruence</i>					
Slope	1.82	0.80		2.276	0.025
Curvature	-0.91	0.40		-2.303	0.023
<i>Incongruence</i>					
Slope	-0.97	0.66		-1.464	0.146
Curvature	-0.54	0.41		-1.304	0.195

Figure 5

Friendliness and Well-Being



7.3.1.7 Confidence

Table 24

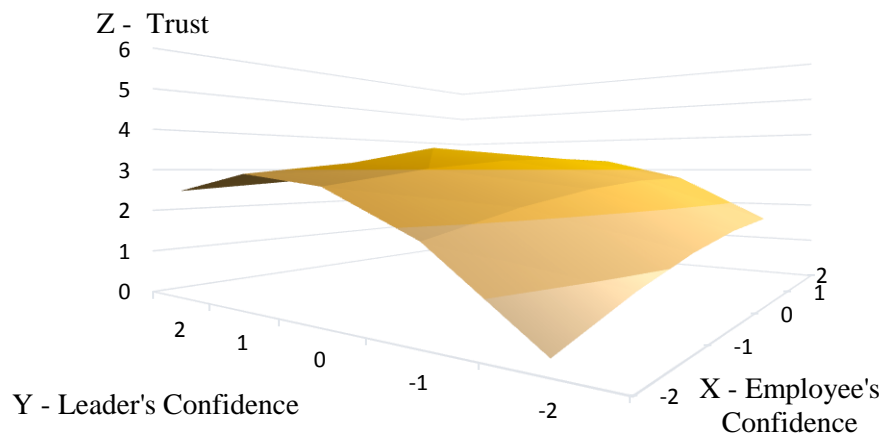
Polynomial Regression of Confident Communication Style on Employee Trust

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	Beta	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Constant	3.244	.234		13.865	<.001
Doing teamwork	.151	.039	.323	3.827	<.001
Time spend with the team	.004	.005	.064	.756	.451
Confidence of the employee (EC)	.152	.123	.186	1.236	.219
Confidence of the leader (LE)	.388	.233	.381	1.668	.098
EC ²	-.065	.077	-.084	-.833	.407
LC ²	-.322	.108	-.628	-2.975	.004
EC x LC	-.083	.113	-.121	-.733	.465
Adjusted R ²	.212				
<i>Congruence</i>					
Slope	0.54	0.30		1.826	0.070
Curvature	-0.47	0.17		-2.791	0.006
<i>Incongruence</i>					
Slope	-0.24	0.23		-1.041	0.300
Curvature	-0.30	0.21		-1.443	0.152

Finally, I analyzed the effects of confident communication style on employee trust and job well-being. The analysis predicting trust was significant, $F(7,113) = 5.61$, $p < 0.001$ and accounted for 21.2% of variance in trust (Table 25). Trust was significantly predicted by teamwork frequency ($\beta = 0.32$, $p < 0.001$) and the square root of leader's confidence ($\beta = -0.63$, $p = 0.004$). Table 25 shows the estimated regression coefficients for the polynomial regression predicting job trust, together with slopes and curvatures along the congruence and incongruence lines. Figure 6 presents the response surface plotted with these coefficients. The curvature of the line of congruence proved to be significant ($p = 0.006$) indicating that the level of employee trust was the highest when both the leader and the employee used a communication style that was “average” – not too very high and not very low.

Figure 6

Confidence and Trust



The regression model predicting job well-being was also significant, $F(7,113) = 2.28$, $p = 0.033$ and accounted for 6,9% of variability in trust (Table 26). The pattern of the results was similar to the one observed for trust. Job well-being was significantly predicted by teamwork frequency ($\beta = 0.22$, $p = 0.016$) and approached significance for the square root of leader's confidence ($\beta = -0.44$, $p = 0.059$). Table 26 shows the estimated regression

coefficients for the polynomial regression predicting job trust, together with slopes and curvatures along the congruence and incongruence lines. Figure 7 presents the response surface plotted with these coefficients. The curvature of the line of congruence proved to be significant ($p = 0.006$) indicating that the level of employee trust was the highest when both the leader and the employee used a communication style that was “average” – not too very high and not very low.

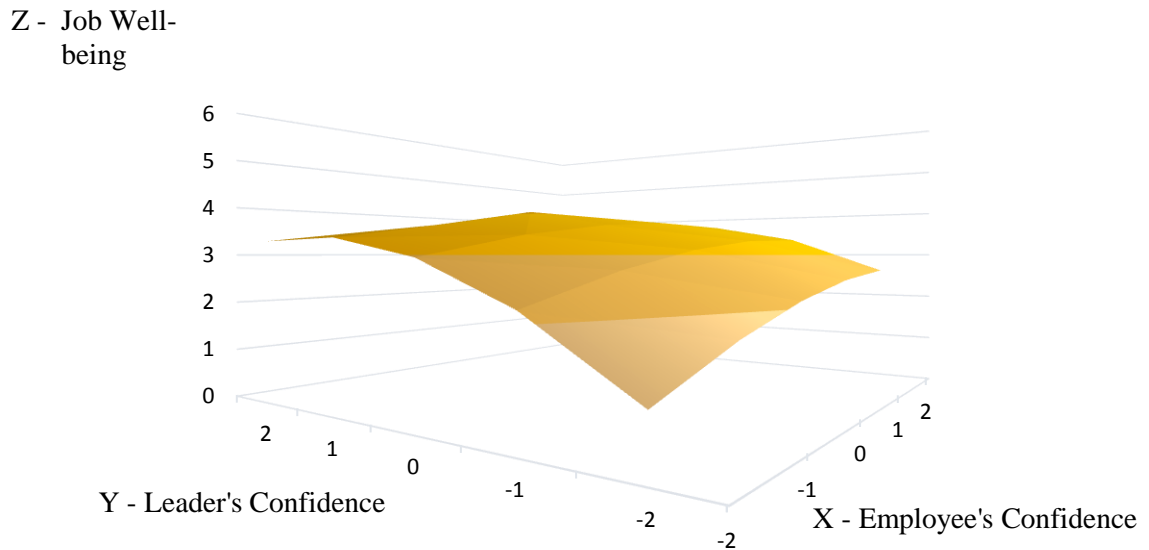
Table 25

Polynomial regression of Confident Communication Style on Employee Job Well-Being

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	Beta	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Constant	3.684	.232		15.898	<.001
Doing teamwork	.096	.039	.224	2.448	.016
Time spend with the team	-.003	.005	-.066	-.720	.473
Confidence of the employee (EC)	.204	.122	.273	1.673	.097
Confidence of the leader (LE)	.370	.230	.399	1.607	.111
EC ²	-.079	.077	-.113	-1.027	.306
LC ²	-.205	.107	-.439	-1.911	.059
EC x LC	-.099	.111	-.159	-.886	.378
Adjusted R ²	.069				
<i>Congruence</i>					
Slope	0.57	0.29		1.960	0.052
Curvature	-0.38	0.17		-2.301	0.023
<i>Incongruence</i>					
Slope	-0.17	0.22		-0.744	0.458
Curvature	-0.19	0.21		-0.885	0.378

Figure 7

Confidence and Well-Being



7.3.1.8 Expressiveness

In the next two analysis, I checked whether trust depends on the level of expressiveness (employee's and team leader's). The model predicting employee trust was significant, $F(7, 113) = 2.73$, $p = 0.012$ (Table 17). However, as far as openness is concerned, the only significant variable was the frequency of teamwork ($\beta = 0.36$, $p < 0.001$). The regression analysis predicting job well-being was not significant, $F(7, 113) = 1.19$, $p = 0.315$.

Table 26

Polynomial Regression of Expressive Communication Style on Employee Trust

	B	SE	Beta	t	p
Constant	3.110	.202		15.401	<.001
Doing teamwork	.167	.042	.356	3.926	<.001
Time spend with the team	.002	.005	.032	.345	.731
Expressiveness of the employee (EE)	-.054	.097	-.069	-.554	.581
Expressiveness of the leader (LE)	-.057	.127	-.074	-.448	.655
EE ²	.069	.068	.115	1.016	.312
LE ²	.013	.079	.026	.171	.864
EE x LE	.020	.093	.027	.216	.829
Adjusted R ²	.092				

To sum up, the results confirmed that communication styles compatibility between leaders and followers is more important than independently measured leader's communication styles in predicting employee job satisfaction, trust, and emotions they experience at work. Particularly:

- **a compatibility between supervisor and employee in friendliness matters for employee job well-being** – the lowest job well-being can be seen when both exhibit unfriendly CS and EJ well-being increases as their joint friendliness increases;
- **confident communication style matters for employee trust.** The level of employee trust was the highest when both the leader and the employee used confident CS that was average – not very high and not very low;
- **congruence in dominant communication style matters for employee job well-being.** The highest level of employee job well-being was observed for those participants for whom the level of dominance in communicating was congruent with that of the supervisor, with a steep decline in declared EJ well-being as the level of similarity decreased. **Congruence in dominant communication style mattered for trust in the team** – trust was the highest if the supervisor and the employee are similar in dominance (either both high or both low). Trust was the weakest when the employee is highly dominant, but the supervisor was very low in dominance;
- **congruence in precise communication style matters for employee trust.** Trust was highest when both the employees and their supervisors reported an average level (not too very high and not very low) of preciseness. The lowest trust was observed when both the employees and their supervisors were very low in preciseness. The level of trust was diminishing when both supervisors and employees' level of preciseness was very high.

8. General Discussion

The aim of the current work was to explore to what extent and how the compatibility in communication styles between leaders and employees affect leadership outcomes. In Research Task 1, I focused on how the generalized perception of the leader is affected by the level of leader's CS dominance and the similarity of CS dominance between leader and "employee". In Research Task 2, I expanded my focus to nine different communication styles and explored how the (dis)similarity in those styles between team leader and team members affect employees' job-related well-being and organizational trust in a multinational organization. According to the **LMX model and Person-Environment Fit** (specifically, Person-Supervisor Fit) **theories**, the compatibility between leaders and followers might be even more important in predicting leadership outcomes than independent characteristics of individuals. As put forward by Fan & Han³⁷⁸: "An agreement or fit in this communication style can guide the group regulation process and promote interaction quality, which, in turn, nurtures a sense of belonging among the work-group members (p. 1084)." Such positive effects of compatibility between leaders and followers were previously shown for values, goals, and personality³⁷⁹. For instance, the similarity in personality between leaders and followers predicted an increase in positive leader-member exchange and, as a result, a higher commitment, trust, job satisfaction, and even performance³⁸⁰. No previous investigation has—to my knowledge—focused on a wide variety of communication styles in the context of compatibility between leaders and employees. My research was aimed to fill this gap.

In **Study 1**, performed to realize Research Task 1, I decided to focus on just one communication style that is 1) present in all communication style conceptualizations³⁸¹ and 2) was shown to negatively affect leadership outcomes — a dominant communication style. In this study I decided to make a preliminary investigation of communication style compatibility, and experimentally verify what is the impact of dominant CS on the perception of a leader and, more importantly, whether it depends on the CS dominance of the follower. This experiment was guided by previous results which showed that a similarity in the preference for dominance between leaders and employees predicts the

³⁷⁸ Fan & Han, 2018

³⁷⁹ Schaubroeck & Lam, 2002; van Vianen, 2000; Witt, 1998; Zhang et al., 2012

³⁸⁰ Schaubroeck & Lam, 2002; Zhang et al., 2012

³⁸¹ Norton, 1978; Norton, 1983; Burgoon & Hale, 1987; De Vries et al., 2013

higher job satisfaction of the latter group³⁸². My research aimed at verifying whether these results replicate and also apply to communication styles.

In Hypothesis 1, I proposed that participants declare a more negative attitude towards the manager with a dominant communication style, compared to a manager with a non-dominant communication style. The results of Study 1 have shown that all employees, regardless of their level of dominance in communicating, expressed more positive attitudes towards the manager who adopts a non-dominant communication style, **confirming Hypothesis 1**. However, participants who adopted a more dominant communication style were seemingly more compatible with dominant leaders than participants with a less dominant communication style. The results of this interaction provide **partial support for Hypothesis 2**, where I proposed that the attitude towards the manager is the more positive, if the manager and the participant are similar in the level of CS dominance, compared to when they are dissimilar in the level of CS dominance. The results did not fully confirm that the attitude towards the leader would be more positive if they were similar in the level of CS dominance, but they showed that participants' CS dominance indeed moderated the impact of manager's CS dominance in the predicted direction. Those who are low in dominance might find it very difficult to share their opinions and expertise when the leader dominates the discussion, because they are not ready to interrupt or push for being heard. For this reason, people who are low in dominance might feel disregarded or unheard. On the other hand, employees with a dominant CS might find it easier to work with dominant leaders, as they can feel more confident to interrupt them during the conversation or find another way to add into the conversation.

In **Study 2**, performed to realize Research Task 2, I decided to extend my investigation to a wider selection of communication styles that I deemed relevant for leader-follower interactions: **Openness, Confidence, Dominance, Preciseness, Friendliness, Frankness/Directness, Contentious/Argumentative, Attentiveness, and Expressiveness**. When analysing the data, I abstained from basing on difference scores³⁸³, but instead used a polynomial regression with surface analysis, which greatly increased the spectrum of information I was able to gather from the study.

³⁸² Kuzminska & Pazura, 2019

³⁸³ E.g. Bakar & McCann, 2015

In hypothesis 3, I suggested that leader's communication style is directly related to leadership outcomes was generally not empirically supported. These findings contradict previous research, where leader communication style was shown to impact employee trust and emotions³⁸⁴. I believe that such an outcome could happen because previous research measured perceived leader communication style, while in my study, leaders have evaluated their own communication style. Additionally, I might not have received strong enough results due to a relatively small sample.

The only main effect of leader's CS was visible for leader's friendliness, which significantly predicted employee job-related well-being (**H3a**). These findings are in line with previous research which showed that leader's encouragement, which is a part of friendly communication, facilitates follower's engagement in creative processes³⁸⁵, team citizenship behaviors and organizational citizenship behaviors³⁸⁶, which may relate to employee job well-being at work.

Hypothesis 4 suggested that the level of congruence in communication styles between supervisor and employee impacts employee outcomes. The results of Study 2 showed that the level of employee well-being and trust were the highest when both the leader and the employee used a communication style that was "average" in confidence – not too high and not too low, with the lowest trust and well-being visible when both of their confidence was very low. This result supported H4a and H4b (the employee level of job well-being and trust is lower when both supervisor and employee exhibit non-confident communication style). The previous research has found that communicators who are high in confident communication style were more likely to be perceived as having expertise regardless of their actual level of expertise. However, it is easy to imagine that long-term cooperation with leaders who are extremely high in confident communication style may reveal the discrepancy between the perceived and actual level of expertise, which might undermine trust (especially if confidence borders on arrogance). As well as long-term cooperation with leaders who are low in confidence may not develop trustworthy relationships, as they can be unsure about their expertise or doubt their own work. Therefore, the average level

³⁸⁴ Brown et al., 2019

³⁸⁵ Huang et al., 2016

³⁸⁶ Afolabi et al., 2009

of confidence exhibited by both a manager and a subordinate seems the right amount to build a trustworthy relationship.

Another result has revealed that the highest level of employee job well-being was observed for those participants for whom the level of dominance in communication style was congruent with that of the leader, with a steep decrease in declared well-being as the level of similarity decreased, supporting H4c (the employee level of job well-being is higher when the supervisor and the employee are aligned in the level of dominance). Congruence in dominant communication style mattered for trust in the team in line with hypothesis H4d (the employee level of trust is higher when the supervisor and the employee are aligned in the level of dominance), trust was the highest if the supervisor and the employee are similar in dominance (either both high or both low). Trust was the weakest if the employee was highly dominant, but the supervisor was very low in dominance. This result is an exact replication of what Kuzminska and Pazura (2019) found in their study on control preference fit. They found that higher job satisfaction was observed among employees who perceived their bosses to be similar in dominant control preference to themselves. Hence, this result provides a further support for the importance of leader-follower compatibility in dominance.

Hypotheses H4e and H4f predicting that the employee level of job well-being and trust are higher when the supervisor and the employee are similar in the level of preciseness were partially confirmed. The results have shown that the level of trust was highest when both the employees and their leaders reported an *average* (not too high and not too low) level of preciseness. The lowest trust was observed when both the employees and their leaders were very low in preciseness. The level of trust was diminishing when both leaders and employees' level of preciseness was very high. The previous research has found that a leader's precise way of communicating reduces ambiguity and enhances clarity on roles and processes³⁸⁷. Therefore, the outcome of the current research is quite surprising. However, it is possible to imagine if both leader and employee are high in preciseness, they might point out some discrepancies of each other works, which may lead to a lower level of trust. On the opposite end, a very low level of preciseness for both the leader and employee might mean that the leader is not giving enough role clarity to the team member,

³⁸⁷ Bakker-Pieper & De Vries, 2013

while the latter is unable to generate structure him/herself. This result needs to be further confirmed.

I have tested the expressiveness in an exploratory fashion; however, it had no effect on trust or employee job well-being. Importantly, the results revealed that a compatibility between supervisor and employee in friendliness matters for employee job well-being – the lowest job well-being can be seen when both exhibit unfriendly CS and EJ well-being increases as their joint friendliness increases. It is easy to imagine that an individual who exhibits friendliness finds it important to see friendliness in others. The research shows that for employees to sustain exhibition of team citizenship behaviors and organizational citizenship behaviors leaders must continuously encourage employees with all incentives at their disposal³⁸⁸. The results may suggest that if an employee exhibits the same level of friendliness, it is highly possible that appreciation of leader encouragement may be higher than less friendly employees. On the opposite end, when both of them exhibit unfriendly CS, the work atmosphere may become unbearable, further reducing employee well-being.

Furthermore, across all of the analyses, employees' job well-being and trust were positively related to the frequency of collaboration between team members. The more frequently employees worked with their teams, the more trust and job-related well-being they reported. This results highly emphasizes the importance of building long-lasting teams. Organizations should take great care at reducing turnover among employees. These findings are in line with previous research. For example, it was found that employees who were highly connected and had higher closeness with all others tended to remain in their positions³⁸⁹. Building long-lasting teams seems to be especially crucial for multicultural teams. Cultural differences can create significant difficulties to effective teamwork; however, these may be subtle and hard to recognize until substantial damage has already been done³⁹⁰. Team members require time to adapt to and familiarize themselves with cultural differences and build long-term working relationships³⁹¹.

Moreover, the results show that leaders declare higher level of CS Dominance, Friendliness, Confidence, and Openness. Nevertheless, there was no discrepancy in terms

³⁸⁸ Afolabi et al., 2009

³⁸⁹ Feeley, 2000

³⁹⁰ Brett, 2006

³⁹¹ Cramton & Hinds, 2014

of Precision and Expressiveness. Based on the data, it is not clear whether these differences stem from the fact that people who communicate more confidently, dominantly, and openly are more likely to become leaders, whether these differences appear once someone becomes a leader, or maybe they just reflect socially desirable or more confident responding of leaders. Further research is needed to answer this question. For example, in the next research study, to get a more clear picture, team leaders and managers would evaluate their own communication style and get an evaluation of their communication style from their subordinates and peers. The study results may help to see if there are discrepancies between how managers and team leaders see themselves as communicator and how subordinates and peers evaluate them.

Table 27

Summary of the hypotheses from Study 1 and Study 2

Hypotheses	Supported/Not Supported
H1: Participants declare more negative attitude towards the manager with a dominant communication style, compared to a manager with a nondominant communication style	Supported
H2: The above effect is moderated by participant's own CS dominance. The attitude towards the manager is the more positive, if the manager and the participant are similar in the level of CS dominance, compared to when they are dissimilar in the level of CS dominance.	Partially Supported
H3a: The higher the level of friendliness the higher the level of job well-being of the employees.	Supported
H3b: The higher the level of openness the higher the level of trust of the employees.	Not Supported
H3c: The higher the level of openness the higher the level of job well-being of the employees.	Not Supported
H3d: The higher the level of confidence the higher the level of trust of the employees.	Not Supported
H3e: The higher the level of confidence the higher the level of job well-being of the employees.	Not Supported
H3f: The higher the level of preciseness the higher the level of trust of the employees.	Not Supported
H3g: The higher the level of preciseness the higher the level of job well-being of the employees.	Not Supported
H3h: The higher the level of frankness/directness the higher the level of trust of the employees.	Not Supported

H3i: The higher the level of frankness/directness the higher the level of job well-being of the employees.	Not Supported
H3j: The higher the level of argumentativeness of the leader, the lower the level of job well-being of the employees.	Not Supported
H4a: The employee level of job well-being is lower when both supervisor and employee exhibit non-confident communication style.	Supported
H4b: The employee level of job trust is lower when both supervisor and employee exhibit non-confident communication style.	Supported
H4c: The employee level of job well-being is higher when the supervisor and the employee are aligned in the level of dominance.	Supported
H4d: The employee level of job trust is higher when the supervisor and the employee are aligned in the level of dominance.	Supported
H4e: The employee level of job well-being is higher when the supervisor and the employee are similar in the level of preciseness.	Not Supported
H4f: The employee level of job trust is higher when the supervisor and the employee are similar in the level of preciseness.	Not Supported

8.1 Study limitations and future research

The findings of both of my studies have several limitations, which should be addressed in the further research projects.

Firstly, Study 1 presented a limited spectrum of what communication style a leader could exhibit – dominant vs. non-dominant. However, a leader can present a more balanced approach, for example, be more dominant when needed and give others a possibility to speak in other situations. Next, this study did not provide any particular context. In uncertain times employees might prefer a leader to be dominant³⁹², while at some other times they could prefer to speak up and have more influence over the situation. As previous research shows, depending on the situation, people have different preferences in terms of the level of dominance exhibited by the individual they interact with. For example, it was shown that the criticality of the service moderates the relationship between the dominant style of communication and customer satisfaction. The highly critical situation occurs when the customer sees the encounter as very important, while a non-critical situation is less important or less anxiety provoking. In highly critical situations, providers with a more dominant communication style were no less satisfying to their

³⁹² Kakkar & Sivanathan, 2017

customers compared to providers with a less dominant style. However, when the situation was less critical and the provider adopted a more dominant communication style, the customers were less satisfied³⁹³. Finally, Study 1 was conducted only among US citizens, limiting these results only to the Western culture. To remedy this problem, Study 2 have been conducted in the multinational organization, where I considered the actual teams. Employees and team leaders have evaluated their own communication styles. Moreover, employees of this organization were representatives of more than 11 different nationalities, which expanded the cultural factor of the study.

However, the findings of the Study 2 also should be considered in light of several limitations. The first limitation is the situational context in which the study was performed. This study was conducted in the shared services center for a global law firm at the beginning of summer 2020 when the pandemic concurred the world. During this period of time, the company was reviewing employees' salaries, and the results were displeasing. Most employees expected to get a salary raise and bonuses, but the company not only did not meet their expectations but also cut the benefits. Such an outcome resulted from the pandemic situation in the world, and many companies were laying off employees, cutting down their remuneration, or minimizing working hours per week. Therefore, participants' answers could be affected by the unpleasant situation in the company in the time the study was conducted. Thus, one of the recommendations for future research would be to conduct the study in a post-pandemic time, when the situation in the company would be stable.

Second, as was stated by the management, around 35% of the employees have been with their team less than a year and the frequency of working directly with other team members varied significantly. The shared services center has been operating for only four years when the study was conducted. The center counted almost 300 employees at that moment, which shows how dynamic processes are in the center. Due to the nature of such a center, some teams were growing fast, and new projects were coming in, requesting to create new teams. Therefore, many people were joining the company or changing teams, which caused the fact that 35% of the employees have been with their team less than a year. Furthermore, depending on the team or project the team was working on, different working modes were required (working independently or in a group). Consequently, the frequency

³⁹³ Webster & Sundaram, 2009

of working directly with other team members varies significantly. Therefore, it would be good to check the communication style compatibility in teams, where members worked longer than a year or two. Similarly, it would be beneficial to compare teams where team members work mostly independently with teams where team members frequently cooperate with each other. It is possible to imagine that the emotions experienced by the employees who frequently cooperate with their team leaders differ from those of employees who rarely cooperate with their team leaders.

The next problem was a relatively small sample size – 151 participants. The nature of the study requires teams with a team leader/manager and at least two team members. The studied organization has a complex structure, with many small teams (sometimes consisting only of a team leader and a team member) and many employees who do not have a team (e.g., financial advisors or programmers). Furthermore, if only one member out of the team returned the filled-out questionnaire or the team leader/manager did not fill out the questionnaire, then the whole team was disqualified. For this reason, the sample size is relatively small, which might affect the power of statistical test and increase the probability of the Type II error. For further research, it would be good to conduct such a study using a bigger sample size and on the teams that are more equal in size.

One of the caveats of this study can be the self-descriptive nature of CS measurement. The desired features of a leader/manager (typically related to high confidence, dominance, preciseness) may put pressure on the individual who holds such a role and can result in providing socially desirable answers. Therefore, future research should attempt to gather a less subjective evaluation of CSs or collect self-descriptive, as well as other-descriptive measurement. This way it could be seen what matters more for leadership outcomes – leader's own self-perception of CS, employee's perception of leader's CS, or some independent objective measurement of leader's CS.

Additionally, not everyone in the team has filled out the questionnaire. There are many teams, where some team members have rejected to take part in this study, and these answers could be very important for the study. It is possible to imagine that employees, who rejected to take part in the study, have particular attitudes and communication styles, which could change the outcome of the study. Ideally, it would be great to conduct a study in teams where all team members take part.

Finally, further research could take a more direct look at the cultural aspects that might shape communication in a multinational context. For example, do cultural values and practices moderate the obtained results? Does it matter how culturally homo- or heterogenous in a team? Are compatibility effects moderated by the cultural similarity of the leader?

8.2 Conclusion

The LMX model considers a leader-subordinate dyad as a vertical communication relationship, where the high-quality relationships are achieved through aligning and accommodating behaviors. Communicative strategies are the most effective if properly adjusted as the interaction progresses. Such alignment increases understanding and improve predictability of another person's behavior, as well as increase interpersonal attraction and satisfaction with the relationship. When necessitated by the situation, leaders may also willingly adopt subordinate-oriented communication to increase mutual understanding and obtain their commitment. Therefore, the dyadic agreement in communication styles seems to play a crucial role in explaining work outcomes in line with the LMX model. This prediction is further strengthened by Person-supervisor fit theory, according to which a good relationship with the leader is fostered by employees' feeling that their personal characteristics match those of the leader.

My research shows that leaders' CSs do not entirely predict leadership outcomes unless the employees' CS is also taken into consideration. Such a finding expands the theory of Person-environment fit, which so far focused mostly on leader-follower compatibility in terms of values,³⁹⁴ and confirms that no characteristics or behaviors should be analyzed without the knowledge of their context. Previous studies on intraorganizational dyadic communication, although extremely scarce, found it to be related to various aspects of coworker relationship like self-disclosure, relational closeness, and interactional richness³⁹⁵. However, these initial attempts at investigating CS compatibility focused only on a small sample of communication styles – current research fills this gap. This is the first research that studied such a wide variety of CSs with respect to person-supervisor fit.

³⁹⁴ van Vianen, 2000; Witt, 1998; Zhang et al., 2012

³⁹⁵ Fan & Han, 2018

The research purpose of the dissertation was to explore the role of managers' and team members' communication styles' compatibility on leadership outcomes within multinational organizations. This aim was realized through two research tasks. Even though experimental Study 1 (performed among 252 U.S. employees) confirmed results present in the literature that high CS dominance of a leader negatively impacts employees' perceptions (moderated by employees' own level of CS dominance), Study 2 (performed among 151 employees of a large, multinational company – 29 team leaders and their 122 subordinates) showed that the analysis of compatibility provides a much more nuanced picture. While the lowest level of trust and employee well-being were observed for leader-employee dyads that were characterized by a large discrepancy in their dominance (especially when a leader was much less dominant than an employee), the most positive outcomes were visible for the higher levels of similarity. The role of fit was also shown for preciseness, friendliness, and confidence, providing further insight into the role of communication styles within multinational organizations. Study 2 is especially valuable as it was conducted within a multinational organization, which might be even more susceptible to problems arising from CS incompatibility.

8.2.1 Contribution of the dissertation

This doctoral dissertation has the following three contributions to the scientific literature.

Theoretical (cognitive)

Research presented within this dissertation showed that leaders' CSs do not entirely predict leadership outcomes unless the employees' CS is also taken into consideration. Such a finding expands the theory of Person-environment fit, which so far focused mostly on leader-follower compatibility in terms of values,³⁹⁶ and confirms that no characteristics or behaviors should be analyzed without the knowledge of their context. Previous studies on intraorganizational dyadic communication, although extremely scarce, found it to be related to various aspects of coworker relationship like self-disclosure, relational closeness, and interactional richness³⁹⁷. However, these initial attempts at investigating CS compatibility focused only on a small sample of communication styles – current research

³⁹⁶ van Vianen, 2000; Witt, 1998; Zhang et al., 2012

³⁹⁷ Fan & Han, 2018

fills this gap. This is the first research that studied such a wide variety of CSs with respect to person-supervisor fit.

Even though experimental Study 1 confirmed results present in the literature that high CS dominance of a leader negatively impacts employees' perceptions (moderated by employees' own level of CS dominance), Study 2 showed that the analysis of compatibility provides a much more nuanced picture. While the lowest level of trust and employee well-being were observed for leader-employee dyads that were characterized by a large discrepancy in their dominance (especially when a leader was much less dominant than an employee), the most positive outcomes were visible for the higher levels of similarity. The role of fit was also shown for preciseness, friendliness, and confidence, providing further insight into the role of communication styles within multinational organizations.

What is more, Study 2 was conducted within a multinational organization, which might be especially susceptible to problems arising from CS incompatibility (as discussed in the Theoretical Background section of my dissertation). The data was collected from employees with diverse level of experience and who were representatives of different nationalities³⁹⁸:

- Eastern European Group³⁹⁹: 124 representatives;
- Western Europe and Other Groups⁴⁰⁰: 24 representatives;
- Asia and the Pacific Groups⁴⁰¹: 2 representatives;
- African Group⁴⁰²: 2 representatives.

Finally, as the two research tasks I performed employed different methodological approaches, I was able to expand the validity of the obtained results. Experimental design of Study 1 allowed me to confirm the internal validity of the previous results showing that the dominance of the leader might differentially affect employees depending on their own level of dominance. In other words, I could show that the obtained results are really a factor of leader's dominance and are not due to a spurious correlation. On the other hand, in Study 2, I expanded the external validity by collecting data on communication styles

³⁹⁸ Country division according to United Nations Regional Groups

³⁹⁹ Azerbaijan, Belarus, Czech Republic, Poland, Romania, Hungary, Ukraine, Russia

⁴⁰⁰ United Kingdom, France, Austria, Spain, Greece, Turkey, Portugal, Belgium

⁴⁰¹ Uzbekistan, South Korea

⁴⁰² South Africa

from actual team leaders and team members. Thanks to this approach, I obtained a unique set of data for leader-follower dyads and did not have to rely on followers' perception of leader's communication styles, which can be confounded by other variables (e.g. liking).

Methodological contribution

Study 2 used a polynomial regression with response surface analysis. This is a technique which, by graphing the results of a polynomial regression analysis in a three-dimensional space, provides a detailed outlook on the complex relationships between a variety combinations of two predictor variables and an outcome variable. This method offers more explanatory potential than difference scores or traditional moderated regression analyses and are applicable to a vast range of research questions⁴⁰³.

Additionally, for the second study, a new communication styles questionnaire was developed, which combined questions from already existing questionnaires. The chosen questions were slightly changed to reflect the method of the study. For the first study, two target descriptions of dominant and non-dominant manager were developed.

Application

The main purpose of this dissertation was to investigate how congruence in communication styles between supervisor and employee impacts leadership outcomes, particularly organizational trust and job-related well-being. Even though I do not argue that supervisors and employees should be matched based on the compatibility of CSs, I believe that managers and employees should be aware of their CSs and how their (mis)fit can affect their well-being. Since people are flexible and can adjust to a variety of contexts and situations, it is reasonable to expect that managers and supervisors would be willing to adjust their communication styles to the needs and preferences of different employees. Such contingent approach to communication could potentially improve its effectiveness and positively affect leadership outcomes. This assumption is in line with Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) theory⁴⁰⁴, according to which relationship quality between leader and followers depends on whether the resources are distributed according to followers' needs. Thus, the knowledge of employees' CSs may help to properly evaluate the relationship with an employee and suitably distribute the resources.

⁴⁰³ Shanock, Baran, Gentry, Pattison & Huggestad, 2010

⁴⁰⁴ Harrison, 2018

Appendices

Appendix 1. Global Convergence in Effective Leader Behaviors and Competencies

Task-oriented	Relationship-oriented	Change-oriented	External behavior	Professional ethics/ emotional intelligence	Building personal relationships and caring	Knowledgeable (expertise and intelligence)	Open sharing	and Fair	Trusting/ approachable	Flexible
<i>Cammock, Nilakant, & Dakin, 1995 (New Zealand)</i> ⁴⁰⁵										
Prioritizing, organizing, and scheduling work <i>(planning)</i>	Friendly and supportive/ Relates well with others <i>(supporting)</i>	Future-oriented and thinking in the long-term <i>(envisioning change)</i>		Straightforward and honest (integrity)		Great capacity for work			Highly visible, approachable	Flexible
Setting direction and instilling a clear sense of purpose <i>(clarifying)</i>	Highlighting the positive and recognizing good performance <i>(recognizing)</i>	Constantly looking for new approaches <i>(encouraging innovation)</i>								
Maintaining the big picture and leaving time to manage <i>(monitoring)</i>	Training successors <i>(developing)</i>									
Getting to the root of problems and fixing causes <i>(problem-solving)</i>	Delegating well and consulting with staff <i>(empowering)</i>									
<i>Bergmann, Hurson, & Russ-Eft, 1999 (The United States and Canada)</i> ⁴⁰⁶										
Managing time, resources, and projects <i>(planning)</i>	Supporting individual/team efforts <i>(supporting)</i>	Creating and describing a vision <i>(envisioning change)</i>	Responding to identified customer needs <i>(networking)</i>	Handle personal emotions/Display professional ethics	Show compassion	Display technical skills, makes credible presentations	Share information			
Managing cross functional		Managing the	Taking							

⁴⁰⁵ 453 public-sector managers (senior, middle, and supervisors) and nonmanagers

⁴⁰⁶ Managers and nonmanagers from more than 450 public and private sector organizations across industries

processes (<i>monitoring</i>) Making decisions that solve problems (<i>problem-solving</i>)		changes required to realize a vision (<i>advocating change</i>)	responsibility for own or group's actions (<i>representing</i>)					
<i>Taormina & Selvarajah, 2005 (5 ASEAN countries)</i> ⁴⁰⁷								
Developing strategies to gain a competitive edge (<i>planning</i>) Maintaining work deadlines/ Focusing on maximizing productivity (<i>monitoring</i>) Consistent in making decisions/ Understanding the problems of others (<i>problem-solving</i>)	Supporting decisions made jointly with others/ Listening when employees want to say something (<i>supporting</i>) Promoting staff welfare and development (<i>developing</i>) Allowing subordinates to have authority and autonomy/ Sharing power/ Listening to the advice of others (<i>empowering</i>)	Having a strategic vision for the organization (<i>envisioning change</i>) Being an initiator, not a follower (progressive) (<i>encouraging innovation</i>) Adapting to changing working conditions (<i>advocating change</i>)	Responding to the expectations of customers (<i>networking</i>) Constantly evaluating emerging technologies (<i>external monitoring</i>)	Deal calmly with tense situations	Respect the self-esteem of others	Knowledgeable about the work of the industry	Objective and consistent in dealing with work conflicts and people	Treat people as if they were trustworthy
<i>Hamlin, Nassar, & Wahba, 2010 (Egypt)</i> ⁴⁰⁸								
Good at planning and organizing (<i>planning</i>) Setting SMART goals, plans, and metrics (<i>clarifying</i>) Attention to	Supporting work-related difficulties (<i>supporting</i>) Praising the good work of staff/ Valuing and respecting staff who work	Promoting good news stories emanating from the department (<i>facilitating collective learning</i>)		Honesty/Control emotions in hard situations/Set a good example	Take care of staff and treat them as family/Take time to know staff at a personal and social level/Support	Share information	Fair, equitable, unbiased work distribution and treatment	Develop a sense of trust with staff/approachable

⁴⁰⁷ 99 senior, middle managers and supervisors in the private and public sectors in Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore, and Thailand

⁴⁰⁸ 55 top, middle, and front-line managers and nonmanagerial staff in the Egyptian public health care sector

monitoring work output, quality, and organizational efficiency (<i>monitoring</i>) Good at controlling and resolving problems, and achieving results (<i>problem-solving</i>)	hard (<i>recognizing</i>) Encouraging staff to attend training programs and learn from mistakes (<i>developing</i>) Giving staff the flexibility to distribute and perform work in the way they consider best (<i>empowering</i>)			personal problems			
Wang, 2011 (China)⁴⁰⁹							
	Providing positive reinforcement (<i>recognizing</i>) Providing job coaching (<i>developing</i>) Empowering and delegating responsibilities (<i>empowering</i>)	Accountable for mistakes (<i>representing</i>)	Lead by example/Do not act selfishly	Care about employees/ Socialize with employees in nonwork settings	Demonstrate knowledge and strong leadership skills	Open communication / Share information	Treat employees fairly and equally
Hamlin, Ruiz, & Wang, 2011 (Mexico)⁴¹⁰							
Maintaining high professional standards of the unit (<i>monitoring</i>) Proactively solving problems in a timely manner (<i>problem-solving</i>)	Supporting employees with work-related problems/ Listening to the needs of employees (<i>supporting</i>) Providing rewards and public	Showing concern for providing good customer service (<i>networking</i>) Understanding employees' mistakes (<i>representing</i>)		Understand personal needs of employees	Provide technical advice and helpful answers related to work	Fair delegation and workload distribution	Flexible

⁴⁰⁹ 35 senior, middle, and entry-level managers in a large state-owned telecommunications company

⁴¹⁰ 27 middle, front-line managers/nonmanagerial staff in the Mexican public health care sector

	recognition of employees (<i>recognizing</i>)								
	Supporting employee education, training, and development (<i>developing</i>)								
	Delegating fairly/ Democratic in decision making (<i>empowering</i>)								
<hr/> <i>Hamlin & Patel, 2012 (Romania)⁴¹¹</i> <hr/>									
Demonstrating good planning (<i>planning</i>)	Reacting quickly and providing help with work-related problems (<i>supporting</i>)	Introducing innovations as appropriate (<i>encouraging innovation</i>)	Collaborating and developing partnerships with suppliers (<i>networking</i>)	Honesty/Integrity	Genuine concern for people	Exhibit personal credibility and competence	Open communication / Share information	Fair/equal treatment	Flexible/adaptable approach
Setting priorities and objectives and providing clear direction for daily work of staff (<i>clarifying</i>)	Showing appreciation when staff deliver good results or efforts (<i>recognizing</i>)		Anticipating trends and potential problems (<i>external monitoring</i>)						
Demonstrating control over projects and monitoring progress (<i>monitoring</i>)	Supporting staff in their learning, training, and self-development (<i>developing</i>)								
Recognizing problems and taking the necessary action (<i>problem-solving</i>)	Empowering staff by giving them freedom to make decisions (<i>empowering</i>)								
<hr/> <i>Patel & Hamlin, 2012 (Germany, the United Kingdom, and Romania)⁴¹²</i> <hr/>									

⁴¹¹ 36 managers and nonmanagerial staff in the Romanian public health care sector

Good at planning and organizing <i>(planning)</i> Responsive and sensitive in difficult situations <i>(problem-solving)</i>	Providing help and support (active supportive leadership) <i>(supporting)</i> Giving recognition and thanks to staff when they do well <i>(recognizing)</i> Addressing their learning and development needs <i>(developing)</i> Delegating and empowering staff/Including staff in decision-making <i>(empowering)</i>	Fighting for the interests of the department and staff <i>(representing)</i>	Use personal approach to manage and lead staff	Keep staff well informed	Open and approachable; Develop a trusting relationship
<i>Hamlin & Hatton, 2013 (the United Kingdom)⁴¹³</i>					
Effective planning and organizing <i>(planning)</i> Proactive execution and control <i>(monitoring)</i>	Active supportive leadership <i>(supporting)</i> Actively attends to their learning and development needs <i>(developing)</i> Delegating and empowering staff/Including staff in decision-making <i>(empowering)</i>		Care and concern for employees	Communicate well with staff; Keeps them informed	Open, personal trusting managerial approach

⁴¹² 308 managers in the private and public sectors

⁴¹³ 487 senior, middle, and front-line managers across the public, private, and third sectors

Producing plans efficiently and effectively/ Aligning work and personal goals of subordinates with the organization's goals (<i>planning</i>)	Actively listening to subordinates' ideas, opinions, or concerns/ Fostering a positive working environment/ Good interpersonal relationship within and between teams (<i>supporting</i>)	Envisioning the Future (<i>envisioning change</i>)	Behave as a role model/ Leads by example	Care for subordinates as individual human-beings, and care about their well-being/Build camaraderie	Produce plans and make decisions based on expertise/Simplify and standardize work processes based on expertise or experience	Share company information that may affect them	Appraise individual performance and provide feedback based on objective criteria	Build trusting relationships such as a family	Adopt a flexible approach and give customized feedback
Giving clear explanations of task goals and expectations and how these are to be achieved (<i>clarifying</i>)	Appraising individual performance/ Providing positive reinforcement using praise, recognition, reward, and/or encouragement (<i>recognizing</i>)								
Simplifying and standardizing work processes based on the leader's expertise and experience (<i>monitoring</i>)	Promoting and facilitating subordinates' personal development (<i>developing</i>)								
Making decisions effectively and efficiently/ Providing helpful and timely feedback on employee behavior, performance, and mistakes (<i>problem-solving</i>)	Empowering and delegating authority and responsibilities to subordinates/ Involving employees in decision-making								

⁴¹⁴ 45 managers (top, middle, front-line) and nonmanagerial employees in Korean. For-profit, large-sized companies

(empowering)

Appendix 2. Communicator Style Measure⁴¹⁵

Instructions: You have impressions of yourself as a communicator. The impressions include your sense of the way you communicate. This measure focuses upon your sensitivity to the way you communicate, or what is called your communicator style. The questions are not designed to look at what is communicated; rather, they explore the way you communicate.

Because there is no such thing as a “correct” style of communication, none of the following items has a right or wrong answer. Please do not spend too much time on the items. Let your first inclination be your guide. Try to answer as honestly as possible. All responses will be strictly confidential.

Some questions will be difficult to answer because you honestly do not know. For these questions, however, please try to determine which way you are leaning and answer in the appropriate direction.

The following scale is used for each item:

YES! = strong agreement with the statement

yes = agreement with the statement

? = neither agreement nor disagreement with the statement

no = disagreement with the statement

NO! = strong disagreement with the statement

For example, if you agree with the following statement, “I dislike the coldness of winter,” then you would circle the “yes” as indicated:

NO!	no	?	yes	YES!
-----	----	---	-----	------

The above scale appears to the right of each item, as shown in Item 1.

Some of the items will be similarly stated. Nonetheless, each item has a slightly different orientation. Try to answer each question as though it were the only question being asked.

⁴¹⁵ Norton, 1978; Norton, 1983

Finally, answer each item as it relates to a general face-to-face communication situation namely, the type of communicator you are most often.

Thank you for helping out.

1. I am comfortable with all varieties of people. [NO! no ? yes YES!]
2. I laugh easily.
3. I readily express admiration for others.
4. What I say usually leaves an impression on people.
5. I leave people with an impression of me which they definitely tend to remember.
6. To be friendly, I habitually acknowledge verbally other's contributions.
7. I am a very good communicator.
8. I have some nervous mannerisms in my speech.
9. I am a very relaxed communicator.
10. When I disagree with somebody, I am very quick to challenge them.
11. I can always repeat back to a person exactly what was meant.
12. The sound of my voice is very easy to recognize.
13. I am a very precise communicator.
14. I leave a definite impression on people.
15. The rhythm or flow of my speech is sometimes affected by my nervousness.
16. Under pressure, I come across as a relaxed speaker.
17. My eyes reflect exactly what I am feeling when I communicate.
18. I dramatize a lot.
19. I always find it very easy to communicate on a one-to-one basis with strangers.
20. Usually, I deliberately react in such a way that people know that I am listening to them.
21. Usually I do not tell people much about myself until I get to know them well.
22. Regularly I tell jokes, anecdotes and stories when I communicate.
23. I tend to constantly gesture when I communicate.

24. I am an extremely open communicator.
25. I am vocally a loud communicator.
26. In a small group of strangers I am a very good communicator.
27. In arguments I insist upon very precise definitions.
28. In most social situations I generally speak very frequently.
29. I find it extremely easy to maintain a conversation with a member of the opposite sex whom I have just met.
30. I like to be strictly accurate when I communicate.
31. Because I have a loud voice I can easily break into a conversation.
32. Often I physically and vocally act out what I want to communicate.
33. I have an assertive voice.
34. I readily reveal personal things about myself.
35. I am dominant in social situations.
36. I am very argumentative.
37. Once I get wound up in a heated discussion I have a hard time stopping myself.
38. I am always an extremely friendly communicator.
39. I really like to listen very carefully to people.
40. Very often, I insist that other people document or present some kind of proof for what they are arguing.
41. I try to take charge of things when I am with people.
42. It bothers me to drop an argument that is not resolved.
43. In most social situations I tend to come on strong.
44. I am very expressive nonverbally in social situations.
45. The way I say something usually leaves an impression on people.
46. Whenever I communicate, I tend to be very encouraging to people.
47. I actively use a lot of facial expressions when I communicate.
48. I very frequently verbally exaggerate to emphasize a point.

49. I am an extremely attentive communicator.

50. As a rule, I openly express my feelings and emotions.

51. Out of a random group of six people, including myself, I would probably have a better communicator style than (circle one choice):

5 of them	4 of them	3 of them	2 of them	1 of them	None of them
-----------	-----------	-----------	-----------	-----------	--------------

Note. Only 45 items are scored. Ten subconstructs with four items per subconstruct can be treated as independent variables. One subconstruct, communicator image, can be treated as a dependent variable. Items 1, 2, 12, 25, 31, and 33 are filler items and should be ignored.

It is advisable, although not necessary, to convert all scores for the respective items to z scores and then average them for the subconstruct. Reverse-coding for items indicated by R.

Friendly	3	6	38	46	
Impression Leaving	4	5	14	45	
Relaxed	8R	9	15R	16	
Contentious/Argumentative	10	36	37	42	
Attentive	11	20	39	49	
Precise	13	27	30	40	
Animated/Expressive	17	23	44	47	
Dramatic	18	22	32	48	
Open	21R	24	34	50	
Dominant	28	35	41	43	
Communicator Image	7	19	26	29	51

Appendix 3. Relational Communication Scale⁴¹⁶

Instructions: Below is a series of statements about the conversation you just completed with your partner. For each one, please circle a number from 1 to 7, depending on the degree to which you agree or disagree with the statement. A 7 means you strongly agree, a 6 means you agree, a 5 means you agree somewhat, a 4 means you are neutral or unsure, a 3 means you disagree somewhat, a 2 means you disagree, and a 1 means you strongly disagree. You may circle 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, or 7. Please complete all items.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Disagree somewhat	Neutral or unsure	Agree somewhat	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

The items listed below represent the eight dimensions recommended by the scale authors; they advocate choosing at least four items per dimension (when possible) from the following pool of items to reflect the dimensions one desires to measure and the length of measure desired.

Immediacy/Affection (Intimacy I)

1. He/she was intensely involved in our conversation.
2. He/she did not want a deeper relationship between us.
3. He/she was not attracted to me.
4. He/she found the conversation stimulating.
5. He/she communicated coldness rather than warmth.
6. He/she created a sense of distance between us.
7. He/she acted bored by our conversation.
8. He/she was interested in talking to me.
9. He/she showed enthusiasm while talking to me.

⁴¹⁶ Burgoon & Hale, 1987

Similarity/Depth (Intimacy II)

- 10. He/she made me feel he/she was similar to me.
- 11. He/she tried to move the conversation to a deeper level.
- 12. He/she acted like we were good friends.
- 13. He/she seemed to desire further communication with me.
- 14. He/she seemed to care if I liked him/her.

Receptivity/Trust (Intimacy III)

- 15. He/she was sincere.
- 16. He/she was interested in talking with me.
- 17. He/she wanted me to trust him/her.
- 18. He/she was willing to listen to me.
- 19. He/she was open to my ideas.
- 20. He/she was honest in communicating with me.

Composure

- 21. He/she felt very tense talking to me.
- 22. He/she was calm and poised with me.
- 23. He/she felt very relaxed talking with me.
- 24. He/she seemed nervous in my presence.
- 25. He/she was comfortable interacting with me.

Formality

- 26. He/she made the interaction very formal.
- 27. He/she wanted the discussion to be casual.
- 28. He/she wanted the discussion to be informal.

Dominance

- 29. He/she attempted to persuade me.
- 30. He/she didn't attempt to influence me.

- 31. He/she tried to control the interaction.
- 32. He/she tried to gain my approval.
- 33. He/she didn't try to win my favor.
- 34. He/she had the upper hand in the conversation,

Equality

- 35. He/she considered us equals.
- 36. He/she did not treat me as an equal.
- 37. He/she wanted to cooperate with me.

Task Orientation

- 38. He/she wanted to stick to the main purpose of the interaction.
- 39. He/she was more interested in social conversation than the task at hand.
- 40. He/she was very work-oriented.
- 41. He/she was more interested in working on the task at hand than having social conversation.

Note. Items should be arranged randomly before administration.

Items 2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 21, 24, 27, 28, 30, 33, 36, and 39 should be reverse-coded prior to scoring.

Appendix 4. Communication Styles Inventory⁴¹⁷

Questionnaire number	Facet	Recoded item	Item
Expressiveness			
7	Conversational Dominance		I often take the lead in a conversation.
31	Conversational Dominance	R	Most of the time, other people determine what the discussion is about, not me.
55	Conversational Dominance		I often determine which topics are talked about during a conversation.
79	Conversational Dominance		I often determine the direction of a conversation.
13	Humor		Because of my humor, I'm often the centre of attention among a group of people.
37	Humor	R	I have a hard time being humorous in a group.
61	Humor		My jokes always draw a lot of attention.
85	Humor		I often manage to make others burst out laughing.
19	Informality	R	I communicate with others in a distant manner.
43	Informality	R	I behave somewhat formally when I meet someone.
67	Informality		I address others in a very casual way.
91	Informality	R	I come across as somewhat stiff when dealing with people.
1	Talkativeness		I always have a lot to say.
25	Talkativeness		I have a hard time keeping myself silent when around other people.
49	Talkativeness	R	I am never the one who breaks the silence by starting to talk.
73	Talkativeness		I like to talk a lot.
Preciseness			
20	Conciseness		I don't need a lot of words to get my message across.
44	Conciseness		Most of the time, I only need a few words to

⁴¹⁷ De Vries et al., 2013

			explain something.
68	Conciseness	R	I am somewhat long-winded when I need to explain something.
92	Conciseness		With a few words I can usually clarify my point to everybody.
2	Structuredness		When I tell a story, the different parts are always clearly related to each other.
26	Structuredness	R	I sometimes find it hard to tell a story in an organized way.
50	Structuredness		I always express a clear chain of thoughts when I argue a point.
74	Structuredness		My stories always contain a logical structure.
14	Substantiveness		Conversations with me always involve some important topic.
38	Substantiveness		You won't hear me jabbering about superficial or shallow matters.
62	Substantiveness	R	I am someone who can often talk about trivial things.
86	Substantiveness		I rarely if ever just chatter away about something.
8	Thoughtfulness		I think carefully before I say something.
32	Thoughtfulness		I weigh my answers carefully.
56	Thoughtfulness	R	The statements I make are not always well thought out.
80	Thoughtfulness		I choose my words with care.
Verbal Aggressiveness			
3	Angriness		If something displeases me, I sometimes explode with anger.
27	Angriness	R	Even when I'm angry, I won't take it out on someone else.
51	Angriness		I tend to snap at people when I get annoyed.
75	Angriness		I can sometimes react somewhat irritably to people.
9	Authoritarianism	R	I am not very likely to tell someone what they should do.
33	Authoritarianism		I sometimes insist that others do what I say.
57	Authoritarianism		I expect people to obey when I ask them to do something.
81	Authoritarianism		When I feel others should do something for me, I ask for it in a demanding tone of voice.

15	Derogatoriness	R	I never make fun of anyone in a way that might hurt their feelings.
39	Derogatoriness		I have at times made people look like fools.
63	Derogatoriness		I have been known to be able to laugh at people in their face.
87	Derogatoriness		I have humiliated someone in front of a crowd.
21	Nonsupportiveness	R	I can listen well.
45	Nonsupportiveness	R	I always show a lot of understanding for other people's problems.
69	Nonsupportiveness	R	I always take time for someone if they want to talk to me.
93	Nonsupportiveness	R	I always treat people with a lot of respect.
Questioningness			
22	Argumentativeness		To stimulate discussion, I sometimes express a view different from that of my conversation partner.
46	Argumentativeness		I like to provoke others by making bold statements.
70	Argumentativeness		I try to find out what people think about a topic by getting them to debate with me about it.
94	Argumentativeness		By making controversial statements, I often force people to express a clear opinion.
16	Inquisitiveness		During a conversation, I always try to find out about the background of somebody's opinion.
40	Inquisitiveness	R	I don't bother asking a lot of questions just to find out why people feel the way they do about something.
64	Inquisitiveness		I ask a lot of questions to uncover someone's motives.
88	Inquisitiveness		I always ask how people arrive at their conclusions.
10	Philosophicalness	R	I never enter into discussions about the future of the human race.
34	Philosophicalness		I like to talk with others about the deeper aspects of our existence.
58	Philosophicalness	R	I never engage in so-called philosophical conversations.
82	Philosophicalness		I regularly have discussions with people about the meaning of life.

4	Unconventionality		I sometimes toss bizarre ideas into a group discussion.
28	Unconventionality		I often say unexpected things.
52	Unconventionality		In discussions, I often put forward unusual points of view.
76	Unconventionality		In conversations, I often toy with some very wild ideas.
Emotionality			
23	Defensiveness		The comments of others have a noticeable effect on me.
47	Defensiveness	R	Nasty remarks from other people do not bother me too much.
71	Defensiveness		When people criticize me, I am visibly hurt.
95	Defensiveness		I am not always able to cope easily with critical remarks.
5	Sentimentality		When I see others cry, I have difficulty holding back my tears.
29	Sentimentality	R	During a conversation, I am not easily overcome by emotions.
53	Sentimentality		When describing my memories, I sometimes get visibly emotional.
77	Sentimentality		People can tell that I am emotionally touched by some topics of conversation.
17	Tension		Because of stress, I am sometimes unable to express myself properly.
41	Tension		I can be visibly tense during a conversation.
65	Tension	R	I am able to address a large group of people very calmly.
89	Tension		I find it hard to talk in a relaxed manner when what I have to say is valued highly.
11	Worrisomeness		When I'm worried about something, I find it hard to talk about anything else.
35	Worrisomeness		I tend to talk about my concerns a lot.
59	Worrisomeness		People can tell when I feel anxious.
83	Worrisomeness		When I worry, everybody notices.

Appendix 5. Organizational Communication Questionnaire⁴¹⁸

Instructions: This is a series of questions about how people communicate at work. Imagine a typical week at work, and answer the questions accordingly. Please attempt to answer all the questions.

Please indicate the degree of your agreement with each statement by checking one of the seven alternatives below each statement.

1. Do you have subordinates working for you? Yes No

2. How free do you feel to discuss with your immediate superior the problems and difficulties you have in your job without jeopardizing your position or having it “held against you” later in this organization?

Completely free 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very cautious

3. How often is your immediate superior successful in overcoming restrictions (such as regulations or quotas) in getting you the things you need in your job (such as equipment, personnel, etc.)?

Always successful 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Never successful

4. Immediate superiors at times must make decisions which seem to be against the interests of their subordinates. When this happens to you as a subordinate, how much trust do you have that your immediate superior’s decision was justified by other considerations?

Trust completely 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Feel very distrustful

5. In general, how much do you feel that your immediate superior can do to further your career in this organization?

Much 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Little

6. How much weight would your immediate superior’s recommendation have in any decision which would affect your standing in this organization, such as promotions, transfers, etc.?

Very important 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very unimportant

⁴¹⁸ Roberts & O’Reilly, 1974

7. As part of your present job plans, do you want a promotion to a higher position at some point in the future?

Content as I am 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very much want a promotion

8. How important is it for you to progress upward?

Very important 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very unimportant

9. To what extent do you have confidence and trust in your immediate superior regarding his/her general fairness?

Have little confidence or trust 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Have complete confidence and trust

10. While working, what percentage of the time do you spend interacting with:

Immediate superiors _____100 %

Subordinates _____100 %

Peers (others at same job level) _____100 %

11. Of the total time you engage in communications while on the job, about what percentage of the time do you use the following methods to communicate:

Written _____%

Face-to-face _____ %

Telephone _____%

Other (specify) _____%

100 %

[Use the following response option for each part of the next question:

Completely accurate 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Completely inaccurate]

12. When receiving information from the sources listed below, how accurate would you estimate it usually is:

a. immediate superiors:

b. subordinates:

c. peers (others at your job level):

13. How often do you find the amount of available information hinders rather than helps your performance in this organization?

Almost never have too much information 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Have too much information fairly often

14. Do you feel that you receive more information than you can efficiently use in this organization?

Always 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Never

15. Of the total time you spend receiving information at work, what percentage comes from:

Immediate superiors_____%

Subordinates_____%

Peers (others at same job level)_____%

100 %

16. Of the total time you spend sending information at work, what percentage goes to:

Immediate superiors_____%

Subordinates_____%

Peers (others at same job level)_____%

100 %

[Use the following response option for the next three questions:

Always 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Never]

17. When transmitting information to immediate superiors in this organization, how often do you summarize by emphasizing those aspects which are important and minimizing those aspects which are unimportant?

18. When transmitting information to subordinates in this organization, how often do you summarize by emphasizing those aspects which are important and minimizing those aspects which are unimportant?

19. When transmitting information to peers (others at your job level), often do you summarize by emphasizing those aspects which are important and minimizing those aspects which are unimportant?

[Use the following response option for each part of the next question:

All 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 None]

20. Of the total amount of information you receive at work, how much do you pass on to:

a. immediate superiors:

b. subordinates:

c. peers (others at your own job level):

[Use the following response option for each part of the next question:

Very desirable 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Completely undesirable]

21. How desirable do you feel it is in your department to interact frequently with:

a. immediate superiors:

b. subordinates:

c. peers (others at your own job level):

22. Are there forces that cause you to distort information you send upward in this organization?

Virtually no forces to distort 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Powerful forces to distort

23. Put a check under the face that expresses how you feel about communications in general, including the amount of information you receive, interaction with your immediate superior and others, the accuracy of information available, etc.

Appendix 6. Communication Satisfaction Questionnaire⁴¹⁹

Introduction: Most of us assume that the quality and amount of communication in our jobs contribute to both our job satisfaction and our productivity. Through this study we hope to find out how satisfactory communication practices are and what suggestions you have for improving them. We appreciate your taking time to complete the questionnaire. It should take 20 to 30 minutes.

Your answers are completely confidential so be as frank as you wish. This is not a test – your opinion is the only right answer. Do not sign your name; we do not wish to know who you are. The answers will be combined into groups for reporting purposes.

1. How satisfied are you with your job? (check 1)

____ 1. Very satisfied

____ 5. Somewhat dissatisfied

____ 2. Satisfied

____ 6. Dissatisfied

____ 3. Somewhat satisfied

____ 7. Very dissatisfied

____ 4. Indifferent

2. In the past 6 months, what has happened to your level of satisfaction?

(check 1)

____ 1. Gone up; ____ 2. Stayed the same; ____ 3. Gone down

3. If the communication associated with your job could be changed in any way to make you more satisfied, please indicate how:

A. Listed below are several kinds of information often associated with a

Person's job. Please indicate how satisfied you are with the *amount* and/or *quality* of each kind of information by circling the appropriate number at the right.

⁴¹⁹ Downs & Hazen, 1977

Very dissatisfied							Very satisfied
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

Respondents use the above scale to respond to all items.

4. Information about my progress in my job
5. Personal news
6. Information about organizational policies and goals
7. Information about how my job compares with others
8. Information about how I am being judged
9. Recognition of my efforts
10. Information about departmental policies and goals
11. Information about the requirements of my job
12. Information about government action affecting my organization
13. Information about changes in our organization
14. Reports on how problems in my job are being handled
15. Information about benefits and pay
16. Information about our organization's financial standing
17. Information about accomplishments and/or failures of the organization

B. Please indicate how satisfied you are with the following (circle the appropriate number at right).

18. Extent to which my superiors know and understand the problems faced by subordinates
19. Extent to which the organization's communication motivates and stimulates an enthusiasm for meeting its goals
20. Extent to which my supervisor listens and pays attention to me
21. Extent to which the people in my organization have great ability as communicators

22. Extent to which my supervisor offers guidance for solving job related problems
23. Extent to which the organization's communication makes me identify with it or feel a vital part of it
24. Extent to which the organization's communications are interesting and helpful
25. Extent to which my supervisor trusts me
26. Extent to which I receive in time the information needed to do my job
27. Extent to which conflicts are handled appropriately through proper communication channels
28. Extent to which the grapevine is active in our organization
29. Extent to which my supervisor is open to ideas
30. Extent to which horizontal communication with other organizational members is accurate and free flowing
31. Extent to which communication practices are adaptable to emergencies
32. Extent to which my work group is compatible
33. Extent to which our meetings are well organized
34. Extent to which the amount of supervision given me is about right
35. Extent to which written directives and reports are clear and concise
36. Extent to which the attitudes toward communication in the organization are basically healthy
37. Extent to which informal communication is active and accurate
38. Extent to which the amount of communication in the organization is about right

C. Answer the following *only if you are a manager or supervisor*. Then indicate your satisfaction with the following.

39. Extent to which my subordinates are responsive to downward directive communication
40. Extent to which my subordinates anticipate my needs for information
41. Extent to which I *do not* have a communication overload

42. Extent to which my subordinates are receptive to evaluation, suggestions, and criticisms

43. Extent to which my subordinates feel responsible for initiating accurate upward communication

Note. Downs recommends that researchers factor-analyze the scale to confirm the existence of the eight dimensions: Communication Climate, Relationship to Superiors, Organizational Integration, Media Quality, Horizontal and Informal Communication, Organizational Perspective, Relationship with Subordinates, and Personal Feedback. Item 1 is a global satisfaction item; Item 2 looks at changes within the last 6 months; Item 3 is open-ended. Academic researchers may use the instrument without permission.

Appendix 7. Organizational Communication Audit Questionnaire

Instructions: The purpose of this questionnaire is to ascertain opinions of personnel concerning internal communication in your company. We ask your *personal* opinion about some problems connected with internal communication and interpersonal relations.

How to answer:

1. Please put an X in the appropriate box.
2. We'd like your opinion according to the scales below. Please write only one X for each scale in the box which you feel is closest to your opinion about the matter in hand.

Example:

Question	Scale Opinion	Very or entirely	Quite	I cannot tell	Quite	Very or entirely	Scale Opinion
Do you read bulletins?	OFTEN						SELDOM
Your answer could be	If you read bulletins very often mark						
					X		
	If you read bulletins quite seldom, mark:						
					X		

3. Please use the whole scale, including the extremes. Avoid the middle or "I cannot say" if possible; only in cases where you feel that it is impossible to give any other choice should you give such an answer.
4. Answer all the questions. Correct any errors by erasing out the whole box.
5. Other scales will be explained as they appear. Please put an X into the appropriate box.
6. The numbers before the questions are used for statistical purposes; pay no attention to them.

Your answers are *completely confidential*. The questionnaire is anonymous; you need not sign it. In the research reports, it is impossible to recognize individual answers.

Please take careful note of the direction of the scale.

For Questions 1 and 10, the scale ranges from *very dissatisfied* (1) to *very satisfied* (5), with 5 boxes separating the bipolar anchors. For Question 2, the scale anchors are *very seldom* (1) and *very often* (5). For Questions 3–7, the anchors are *very little* (1) and *very much* (5).

1. Are you satisfied or dissatisfied with communication and the availability of information in your organization.

2. Do you read:

8 Bulletin boards?

9 Circular letters and other written materials?

10 Newsletters and house organ?

3. How much information about your work and organization do you get now from:

11 Superiors and management?

12 Shop stewards and liaison persons?

13 Fellow employees?

14 Bulletin boards?

15 Newsletters and house organ?

16 Joint committees?

17 Meetings and negotiations?

18 Rumors?

19 Circular letters and other written material?

20 Newspapers and other mass media?

4. How much information about your work and organization would you like to get from?

21 Superiors and management?

22 Shop stewards and liaison persons?

23 Fellow employees?

24 Bulletin boards?

25 Newsletters and house organ?

26 Joint committees?

27 Meetings and negotiations?

28 Rumors?

29 Circular letters and other written material?

30 Newspapers and other mass media?

5. This is the amount of information I receive now about the following job items:

31 Economic situation of the organization

32 Employment situation of the organization

33 My own work

34 Changes in production

35 Training and courses

36 Social welfare in the organization

37 Sales of our products

38 Expansions and other large investments of our organization

6. This is the amount of information I should like to receive about the following job items:

39 Economic situation of the organization

40 Employment situation of the organization

41 My own work

42 Changes in production

43 Training and courses

44 Social welfare in the organization

45 Sales of our products

46 Expansions and other large investments of our organization

7. I should like to see improved communication:

47 from personnel to superiors and management

48 From superiors and management to personnel

49 With my own superior

50 Among fellow employees

51 Between shop stewards or liaison person and personnel

52 Between joint committees and personnel

8. Somewhere else (where?):

9. We should like you to select from the following list at least one but not more than three (one, two, or three) items about the worst defects in communication of your organization.

53_____ Information is not readily available.

54_____ Information reaches me too late.

55_____ Information is not reliable and accurate.

56_____ Information is often useless and not important.

57_____ The language in information material is often difficult.

58_____ I get too much information.

59_____ Information does not reach me.

60_____ Management conceals important information.

61_____ Management does not know what the employees think and feel

62_____ I cannot express my opinions freely in my organization.

63_____ My opinions do not count and nobody listens to what I say. Are there other defects in communication? What?

10. Are you dissatisfied or satisfied with the following aspect of your job?

64 Supervision of work?

65 Chances for promotion and advancement?

66 Wages and salary?

67 Social benefits?

68 My work in this organization?

69 Participation, my possibilities to influence matters concerning my work?

Background information: Finally, we should like to have some background information for statistical purposes. The questions are very general and the answers will not identify you. We do not want your name:

11. 70 What is your sex?

1_____ Male

2_____ Female

12. 71 How old are you?

1_____ under 35 years

2_____ over 35 years

13. 72 How long have you worked with this organization?

1_____ under one year

2_____ over one year

14. 73 What is your classification?

1_____ hourly

2_____ other

15. 74 What is the last level you have completed in school?

1_____ high school or less

2_____ more than high school

16. 75 Do you supervise the activities of at least one full-time employee in your organization?

1_____ yes

2_____ no

17. 76 Think about a regular working day. How many people do you regularly communicate with on your job (about any subject at all)?

1_____ 0-3 persons

2_____ 4 persons or more

18. 77 Are you a union member?

1_____ yes

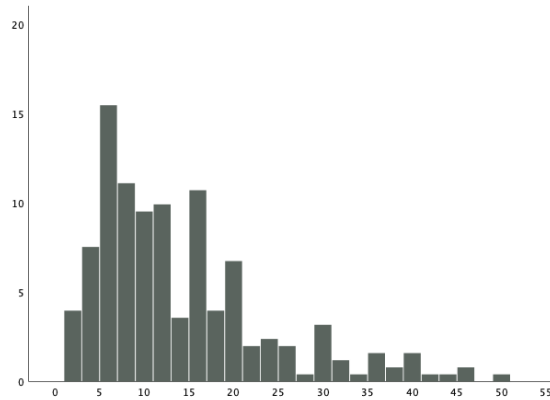
2_____ no

19. 78–79 What is your department (or equivalent)?

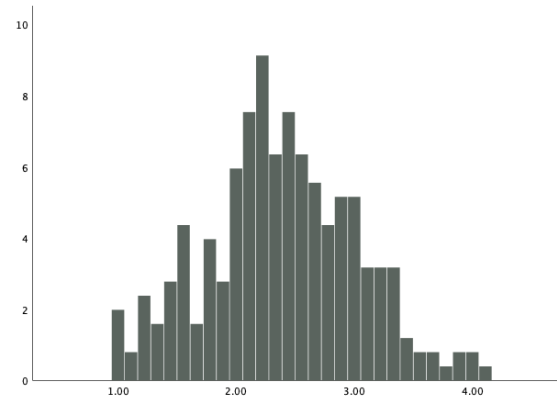
Thank you for your valuable help.

Note. The OCD Audit Questionnaire may be used without permission for research purposes by scientific institutions.

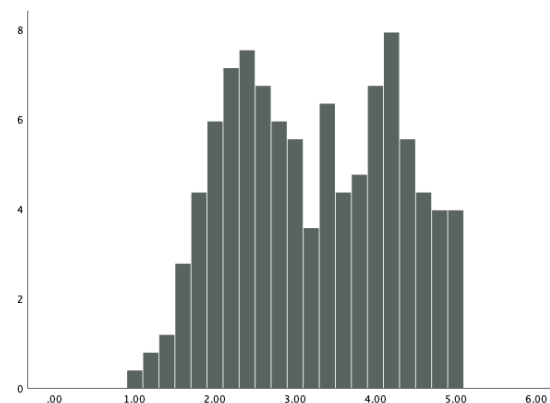
Appendix 8. Descriptive statistics and distributions, Study 1



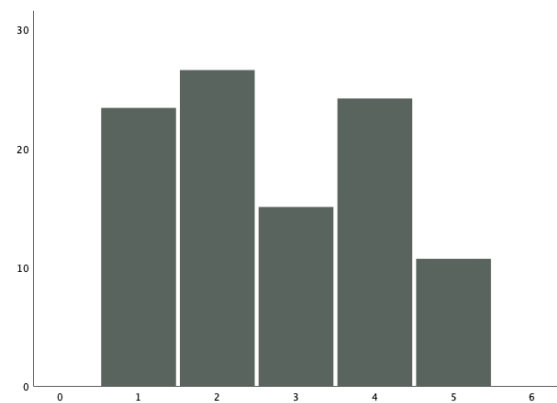
Years of experience in industry:
M = 13.7; SD = 9.83



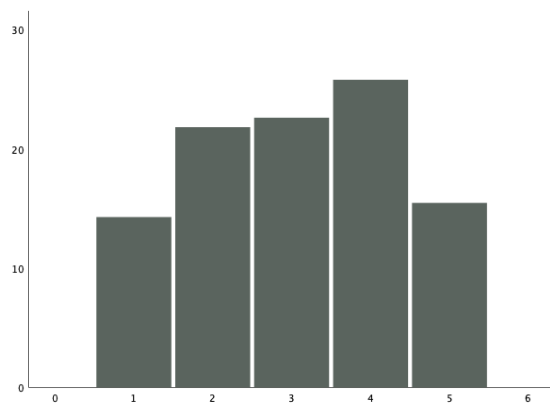
Dominant CS:
M = 2.38; SD = 0.64



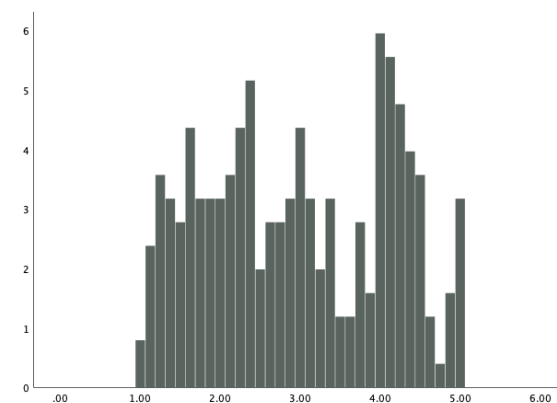
Emotions:
M = 3.18; SD = 1.02



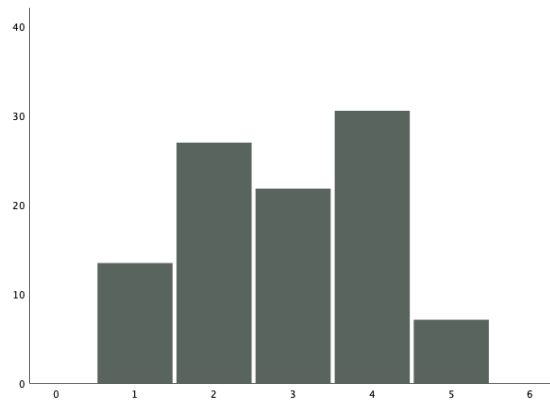
Level of satisfaction with Manager X's
CS: M = 2.72; SD = 1.34



Trust towards Manager X:
M = 3.06; SD = 1.29



Positive attitude towards the Manager X:
M = 2.97; SD = 1.13



Willingness to work for Manager X:
 $M = 2.91$; $SD = 1.18$

Appendix 9. Communication Style Scale⁴²⁰

Instructions: Participants were presented with a list of items measuring communication styles in an online questionnaire. They were asked to use a 7-point scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree), with “I don’t know” coded as missing value, to evaluate whether a person who communicates in a particular style would be considered an expert.

The Items:

Confidence

1. Expert is self-confident while talking
2. Expert is poised and in control during the discussion
3. Expert is relaxed when he or she is talking

Tenseness

4. Expert does not have nervous mannerism when speaking (R)
5. Non-expert seems to feel awkward when he or she is talking
6. Non-expert seems to be afraid of making an embarrassing or silly slip of the tongue

Assertiveness

7. Expert seems tense during group discussion (R)
8. Expert does not give in easily when defending his or her positions
9. Expert is assertive when making an argument
10. Expert often uses an authoritative tone of voice

Contentiousness

11. Expert is quick to challenge others when he or she disagreed
12. Expert seems unwilling to stop himself or herself once he or she wound up in a heated discussion
13. Expert is argumentative during group discussion

Conversational control

14. Expert speaks very frequently

⁴²⁰ Yuan et al., 2019

15. Expert tends to come on strong
16. Expert likes to determine the directions of our group conversation

Frankness/directness

17. Expert will let the others know clearly where he or she stands on an issue
18. Expert tends to be ambiguous even when pressed for an opinion (R)
19. Expert is straightforward when speaking

Relationship-oriented communication

20. Expert is respectful when debating with me
21. Expert is patient in hearing me out
22. Expert is mindful of maintaining a pleasant relationship with me
23. Expert is attentive to my arguments
24. Expert shows genuine interest in my opinions

Task-oriented communication

25. Expert has trouble organizing his or her thoughts when making an argument (R)
26. Expert is capable of showing the logical connections among the different parts of his or her arguments
27. Expert asks many thoughtprovoking questions to help analyze the problems
28. Expert was good at abstract reasoning
29. Expert appears to have extensive experience working on the problems under discussion
30. Expert is thoughtful when making an argument
31. Expert can get his or her message across using just a few words
32. Expert seems smart.

Appendix 10. Communication Styles⁴²¹

You have impressions of yourself as a communicator. The impressions include your sense of the way you communicate. This measure focuses upon your sensitivity to the way you communicate, or what is called your communicator style. The questions are not designed to look at what is communicated; rather, they explore the way you communicate.

Because there is no such thing as a “correct” style of communication, none of the following items has a right or wrong answer. Please do not spend too much time on the items. Let your first inclination be your guide. Try to answer as honestly as possible. All responses will be strictly confidential.

Some questions will be difficult to answer because you honestly do not know. For these questions, however, please try to determine which way you are leaning and answer in the appropriate direction.

Some of the items will be similarly stated. But each item has a slightly different orientation. Try to answer each question as though it were the only question being asked. Finally, answer each item as it related to a general face to-face communication situation – namely, the type of communicator you are most often.

Openness

1. Usually, I do not tell people much about myself until I get to know them well. (R)
2. I readily reveal personal things about myself.
3. As a rule, I openly express my feelings and emotions.

Expressiveness

4. My eyes reflect exactly what I am feeling when I communicate.
5. My face rarely reflects my feelings. (R)

Frankness/directness

6. I will let the others know clearly where I stand on an issue.

⁴²¹ Questionnaire used for the Study 2

7. I tend to be ambiguous even when pressed for an opinion. (R)

Preciseness

8. I like to be strictly accurate when I communicate.
9. People complain that I am not very precise while communicating.

Contentious/Argumentative

10. When I disagree with somebody, I am very quick to challenge them.
11. Once I get wound up in a heated discussion, I have a hard time stopping myself.

Dominance

12. I find myself speaking very frequently.
13. I am rather silent even if I have something important to say. (R)
14. If people talk nonsense, I readily interrupt them.
15. I habitually wait for my turn to speak up.

Friendliness

16. I rarely express admiration for others. (R)
17. Whenever I communicate, I tend to be very encouraging to people.
18. I like to listen to other people's opinions and ideas.

Confidence

19. I am usually self-confident while talking.
20. I am usually tense while talking with people. (R)

Appendix 11. Trust scales Study 2

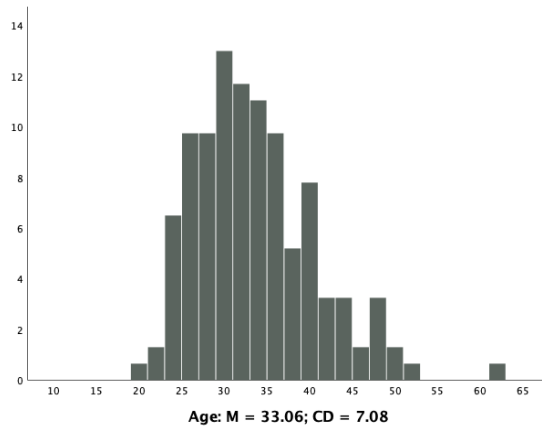
Subscale to measure trust in team members

1. Most employees don't like to work and will avoid it if they can
2. Employees will try not to work hard unless managers closely monitor
3. I can count on my team colleagues to have my back
4. I am afraid to share my weaknesses with the other team members
5. I hesitate to provide true feedback to the other team members
6. I feel that I can speak my mind with my team colleagues

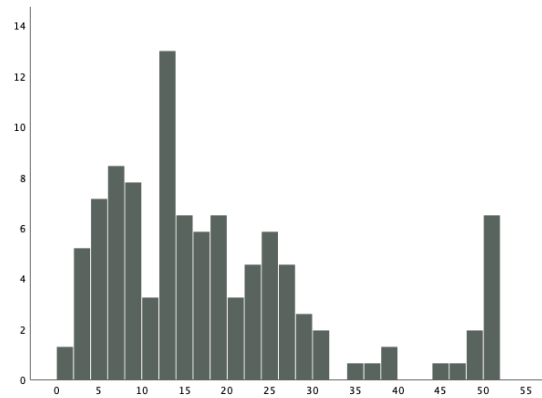
Subscale to measure trust in manager/team leader

1. I can count on my team colleagues to have my back
2. I am afraid to share my weaknesses with the other team members
3. I hesitate to provide true feedback to the other team members
4. I feel that I can speak my mind with my team colleagues
5. I have a great deal of trust in my leader
6. I feel confident that my leader will always try to treat me fairly
7. It's possible that my leader would try to gain an advantage by deceiving me
8. My leader doesn't really care if I lose my job

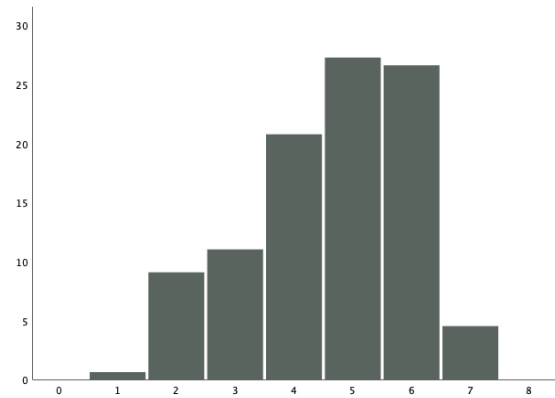
Appendix 12. Descriptive statistics and distributions, Study 2



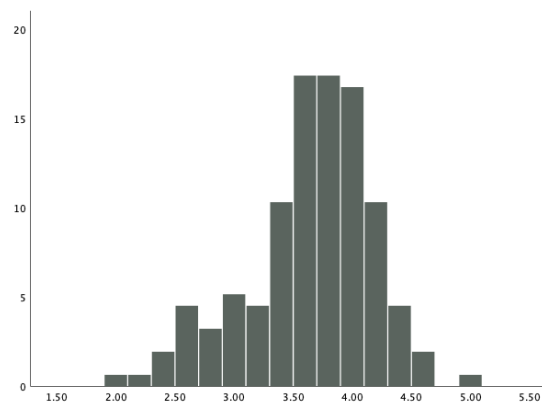
Age:
 $M = 33.06$; $SD = 7.08$



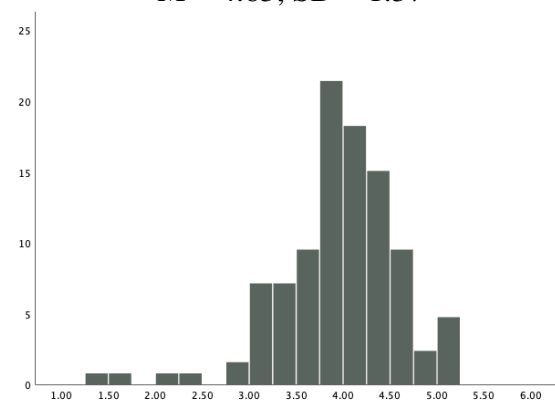
Time spend with the team:
 $M = 18.08$; $SD = 13.08$



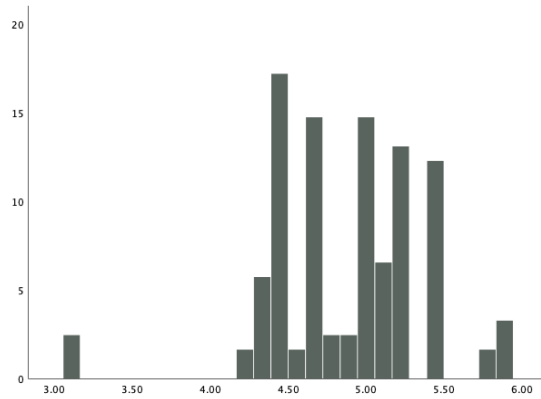
Frequency of working directly with other team members:
 $M = 4.63$; $SD = 1.37$



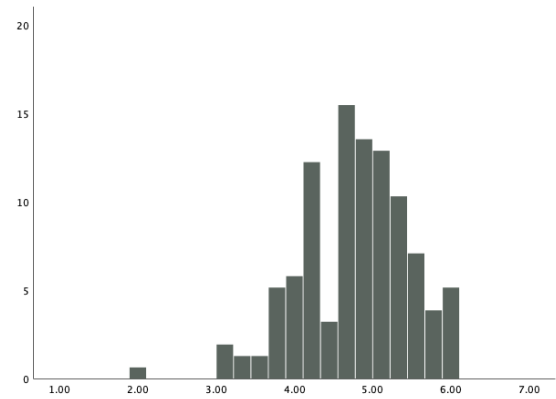
Employee's positive emotions:
 $M = 3.59$; $SD = 0.52$



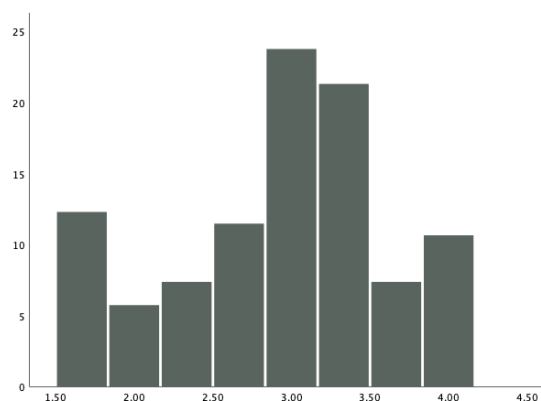
Employee's trust:
 $M = 3.90$; $SD = 0.62$



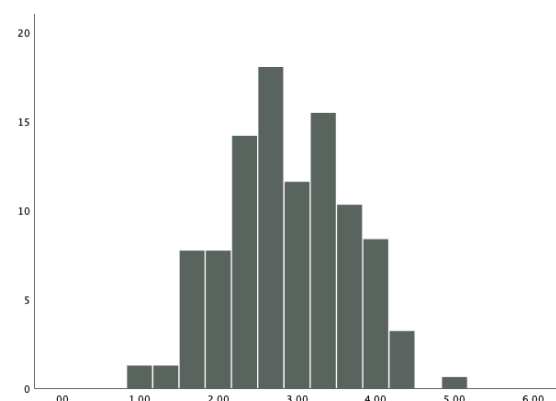
Leader's job satisfaction:
M = 4.88; SD = 0.50



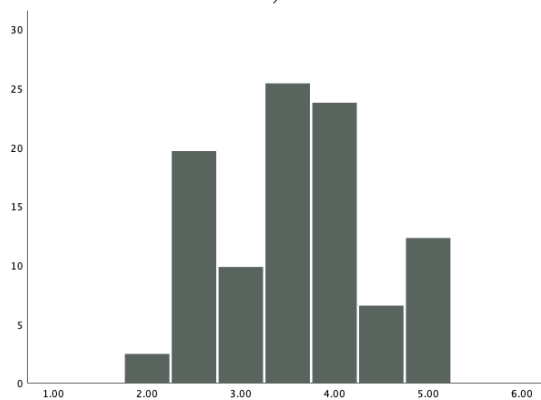
Employee's job satisfaction:
M = 4.73; SD = 0.67



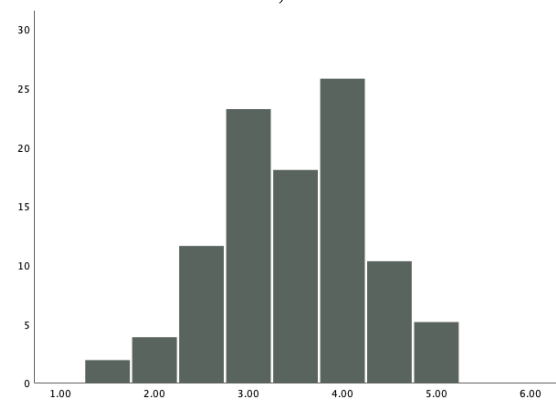
Leader's openness:
M = 2.92; SD = 0.69



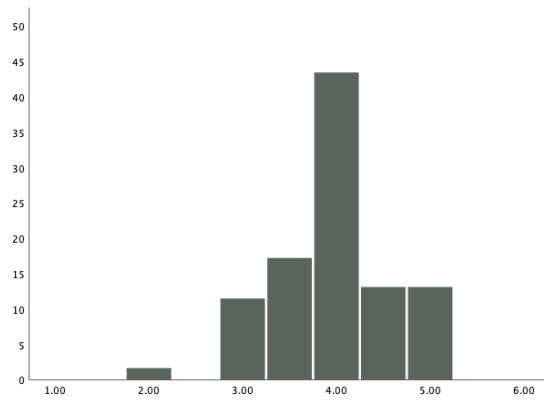
Employee's openness:
M = 2.88; SD = 0.77



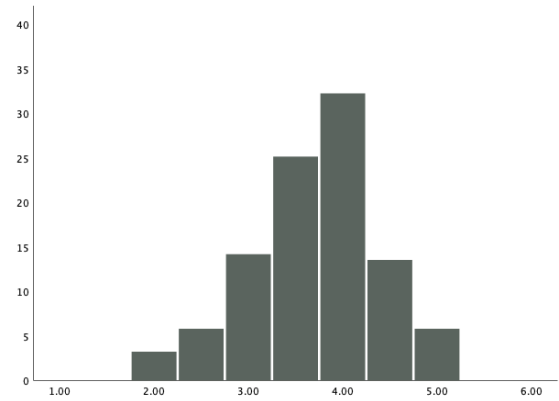
Leader's expressiveness:
M = 3.59; SD = 0.82



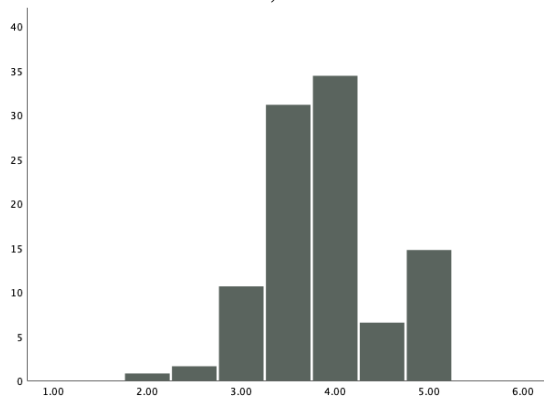
Employee's expressiveness:
M = 3.48; SD = 0.79



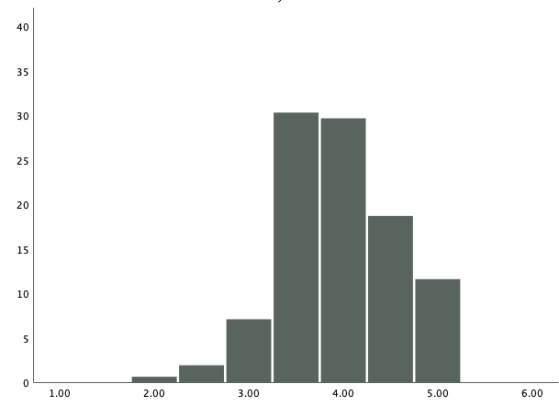
Leader's frankness:
M = 3.96; SD = 0.62



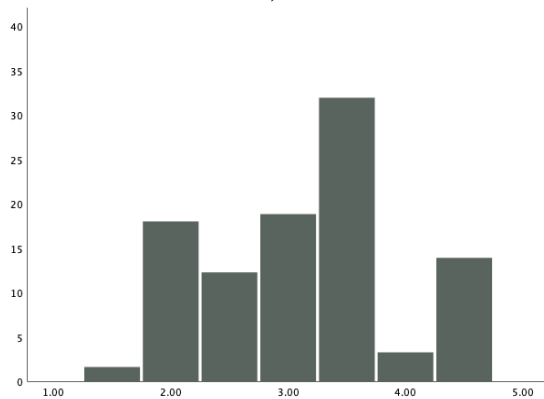
Employee's frankness:
M = 3.71; SD = 0.68



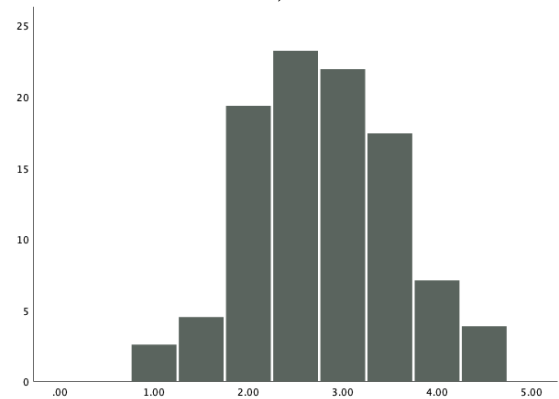
Leader's preciseness:
M = 3.88; SD = 0.63



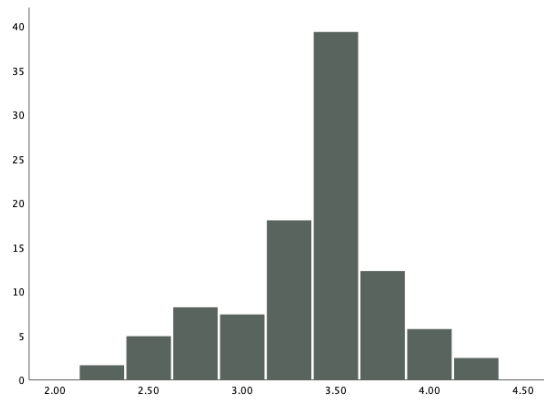
Employee's preciseness:
M = 3.95; SD = 0.61



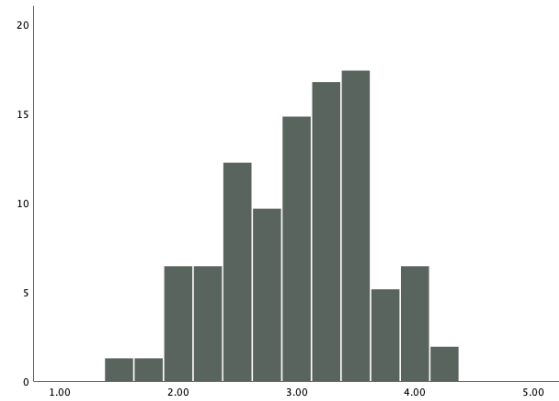
Leader's argumentativeness:
M = 3.14; SD = 0.81



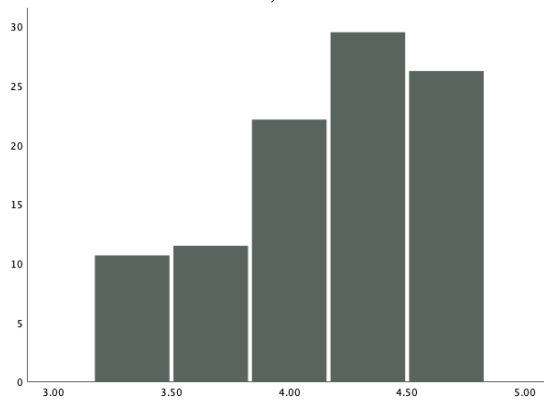
Employee's argumentativeness:
M = 2.79; SD = 0.78



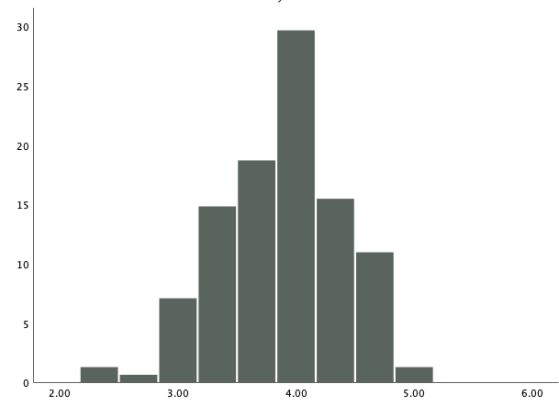
Leader's dominance:
M = 3.36; SD = 0.41



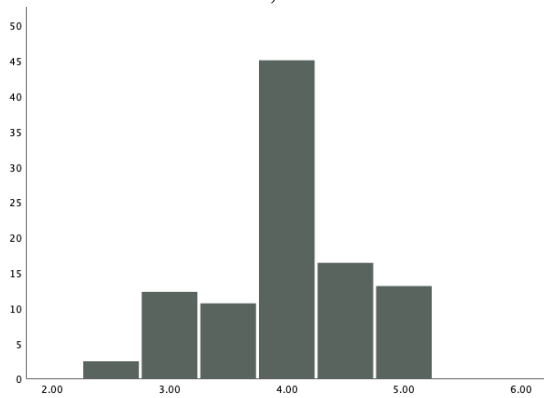
Employee's dominance:
M = 3.02; SD = 0.60



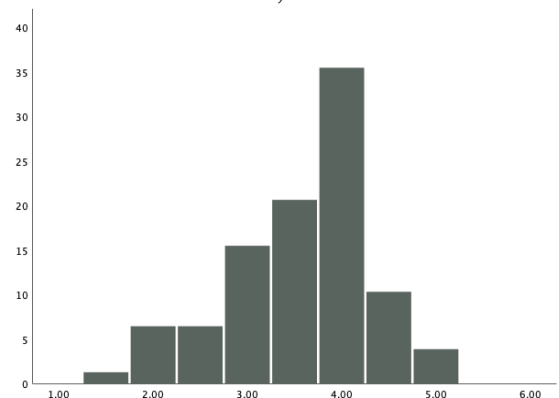
Leader's friendliness:
M = 4.16; SD = 0.42



Employee's friendliness:
M = 3.88; SD = 0.52



Leader's confidence:
M = 4.00; SD = 0.61



Employee's confidence:
M = 3.57; SD = 0.76

Appendix 13. Correlation table for the communication styles (measured for the employees and for the leaders)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. Openness Supervisor	1														
2. Expressiveness Supervisor	-.39***	1													
3. Frankness Supervisor	.44***	-.34***	1												
4. Preciseness Supervisor	.02	-.31***	.08	1											
5. Argumentativeness Supervisor	-.59***	.39***	-.19*	.12	1										
6. Dominance Supervisor	-.03	.17*	.27**	.02	.57***	1									
7. Friendliness Supervisor	.25*	-.36***	.43***	.27**	.03	.32***	1								
8. Confidence Supervisor	.26*	-.33***	.50***	.11	.09	.37***	.57***	1							
9. Openness Employee	.03	.07	.09	-.03	.11	.12	.03	.00	1						
10. Expressiveness Employee	-.08	.08	-.02	-.15	.08	-.06	-.04	-.07	.25**	1					
11. Frankness Employee	-.16	-.12	-.05	.13	-.01	-.06	-.11	-.18*	.04	.03	1				
12. Preciseness Employee	.06	-.02	.06	.02	-.13	-.04	-.03	.05	-.09	-.31***	.25***	1			
13. Argumentativeness Employee	.16	.04	.07	-.11	.00	.00	-.03	-.10	.02	.17*	.07	-.00	1		
14. Dominance Employee	.08	.11	-.04	.07	.00	.13	-.03	-.08	.38***	.07	.19**	.07	.33***	1	
15. Friendliness Employee	.06	-.00	-.02	-.05	.02	.00	-.08	.00	.25**	.02	.23**	.06	-.06	.09	1
16. Confidence Employee	.00	.03	-.01	.21**	-.03	.11	.01	-.08	.21**	-.15	.41***	.23**	.01	.40***	.30***

Note 2: *p < 0.05; ** p < 0.01; *** p < 0.001

Appendix 14. Descriptive statistics and intercorrelations for the variables measured in Study 2 (employee CSs)

	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1. Gender	-	-	1													
2. Age	33.06	7.08	-.09	1												
3. Doing teamwork	4.63	1.37	-.17*	.11*	1											
4. Time with the team	18.08	13.08	-.08	.35**	.20**	1										
5. Trust	3.90	0.62	-.07	-.03	.36***	.11	1									
6. LJS	4.87	0.50	.17	-.00	.02	-.14	-.20*	1								
7. EJWB	4.16	0.54	-.05	.13	.23**	.00	.63***	.08	1							
8. EO	2.87	0.77	.00	.17*	.25**	.06	.15	-.00	.17*	1						
9. EE	3.48	0.79	.18*	.12	.08	.15*	.04	-.02	.04	.25***	1					
10. EFRNK	3.70	.068	-.15	.12	.21**	.13	.23**	-.18*	.09	.04	.03	1				
11. EP	3.94	0.61	.02	-.16*	-.11	-.11	.03	-.02	.06	-.09	-.31***	.25***	1			
12. EA	2.78	0.78	.11	.08	.08	.17*	-.06	-.01	-.09	.02	.17*+	.07	-.00	1		
13. ED	3.02	0.60	.05	.15	.18**	.25***	-.09	-.07	-.06	.38***	.07	.19**	.07	.33***	1	
14. EFRND	3.87	0.51	-.14	.14	.27***	.15	.23**	-.13	.18*	.25***	.02	.23**	.06	-.06	.09	1
15. EC	3.57	0.75	-.11	.09	.20**	.10	.13	.03	.16*	.21**	-.15	.41***	.23**	.01	.40***	.30***

Note 1: LGS – leader’s job satisfaction; EJWB – employee’s job well-being; EO – employees’ openness; EE – employees’ expressiveness; EFRNK – employees’ frankness; EP – employees’ preciseness; EA – employees’ argumentativeness; ED – employees’ dominance; EFRND – employees’ friendliness; EC – employees’ confidence

Note 2: Gender (1 = male; 2 = female)

Note 3: *p < 0.05; ** p < 0.01; *** p < 0.001

References

- (Don), D., & Sosik, J. J. (2006). Who Are the Spellbinders? Identifying Personal Attributes of Charismatic Leaders. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 12(4), 12–26. <https://doi.org/10.1177/107179190601200402>
- Abu Bakar, H., & McCann, R. M. (2016). The Mediating Effect of Leader–Member Dyadic Communication Style Agreement on the Relationship Between Servant Leadership and Group-Level Organizational Citizenship Behavior. *Management Communication Quarterly*, 30(1), 32–58. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0893318915601162>
- Adair, W. L. (2003). Integrative sequences and negotiation outcome in same- and mixed-culture negotiations. *International Journal of Conflict Management*, 14(3-4), 273–296. doi:10.1108/eb022902
- Afolabi, O. A., Adesina, A., & Aigbedion, C. (2009). Influence of Team Leadership and Team Commitment on Teamwork and Conscientiousness. *Journal of Social Sciences*, 21(3), 211–216. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09718923.2009.11892773>
- Akkirman, A. D., & Harris, D. L. (2005). Organizational communication satisfaction in the virtual workplace. *Journal of Management Development*, 24(5), 397–409. doi:10.1108/02621710510598427
- Albuquerque, V. (2009, July 22). The management & leadership conundrum: How they complement each other. *People Matters*. Retrieved from: <https://www.peplematters.in/article/employee-engagement/management-and-leadership-conundrum-71>
- Andela, M., & van der Doef, M. (2019). A comprehensive assessment of the person–environment fit dimensions and their relationships with work-related outcomes. *Journal of Career Development*, 46(5), 567–582. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0894845318789512>
- Antonakis, J., Avolio, B. J., & Sivasubramaniam, N. (2003). Context and leadership: An examination of the nine-factor full-range leadership theory using the multifactor leadership questionnaire. *Leadership Quarterly*, 14(3), 261–295. doi:10.1016/S1048-9843(03)00030-4
- Ashley Fulmer, C., & Gelfand, M. J. (2012). At what level (and in whom) we trust: Trust across multiple organizational levels. *Journal of Management*, 38(4), 1167–1230. doi:10.1177/0149206312439327
- Baker, D. D., & Ganster, D. C. (1985). Leader communication style: A test of average versus vertical dyad linkage models. *Group & Organization Management*, 10(3), 242–259. doi:10.1177/105960118501000303
- Bakker-Pieper, A., & de Vries, R. E. (2013). The incremental validity of communication styles over personality traits for leader outcomes. *Human Performance*, 26(1), 1–19. doi:10.1080/08959285.2012.736900

- Barry, B., & Crant, J. M. (2000). Dyadic communication relationships in organizations: An attribution/expectancy approach. *Organization Science*, 11(6), 648–664. <https://doi.org/bh93pf>
- Bass, B. M., Bass, R., & Bass, B. M. (2008). The Bass handbook of leadership: Theory, research, and managerial applications. New York: Free Press.
- Bednar, D. A. (1982). Relationships between communicator style and managerial performance in complex organizations: A field study. *Journal of Business Communication*, 19(4), 51-76. doi:10.1177/002194368201900404
- Bennis, W., & Nanus, B. (1985). Leaders: The strategies for taking charge. New York: Harper & Row.
- Berger, C. R., & Calabrese, R. J. (1975). Some explorations in initial interaction and beyond: toward a developmental theory of interpersonal communication. *Human Communication Research*, 1(2), 99-112. doi:10.1111/j.1468-2958.1975.tb00258.x
- Bergman, J. Z., Rentsch, J. R., Small, E. E., Davenport, S. W., & Bergman, S. M. (2012). The shared leadership process in decision-making teams. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 152(1), 17-42. doi:10.1080/00224545.2010.538763
- Berscheid, E., Snyder, M., & Omoto, A. M. (1989). The Relationship Closeness Inventory: Assessing the closeness of interpersonal relationships. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 57(5), 792–807. <https://doi.org/bz7g6>
- Blanchard, K. H., Zigarmi, D., & Nelson, R. B. (1993). Situational Leadership® After 25 Years: A Retrospective. *Journal of Leadership Studies*, 1(1), 21–36. <https://doi.org/10.1177/107179199300100104>
- Boies, K., Fiset, J., & Gill, H. (2015). Communication and trust are key: Unlocking the relationship between leadership and team performance and creativity. *Leadership Quarterly*, 26(6), 1080-1094. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2015.07.007
- Brennan, A. A., & Enns, J. T. (2015). When two heads are better than one: Interactive versus independent benefits of collaborative cognition. *Psychonomic Bulletin and Review*, 22(4), 1076-1082. doi:10.3758/s13423-014-0765-4
- Brett, J., Behfar, K., & Kern, M. C. (2006). Managing multicultural teams. *Harvard Business Review*, 84(11), 84–91.
- Brown, O., Paz-Aparicio, C., & Revilla, A. J. (2019). Leader's communication style, LMX and organizational commitment: A study of employee perceptions in peru. *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, 40(2), 230-258. doi:10.1108/LODJ-03-2018-0129
- Burgoon, J. K., & Hale, J. L. (1987). Validation and measurement of the fundamental themes of relational communication. *Communication Monographs*, 54(1), 19-41. doi:10.1080/03637758709390214

- Burke, R. J., Weir, T., & Duncan, G. (1976). Informal Helping Relationships in Work Organizations. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 19(3), 370–377. https://doi.org/10.1300/j147v25n04_05
- Caligiuri, P., & Tarique, I. (2012). Dynamic cross-cultural competencies and global leadership effectiveness. *Journal of World Business*, 47(4), 612–622. doi:10.1016/j.jwb.2012.01.014
- Cammock, P., Nilakant, V., & Dakin, S. (1995). DEVELOPING A LAY MODEL OF MANAGERIAL EFFECTIVENESS: A SOCIAL CONSTRUCTIONIST PERSPECTIVE. *Journal of Management Studies*, 32(4), 443–474. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-6486.1995.tb00784.x>
- Chai, D. S., Jeong, S., Kim, J., Kim, S., & Hamlin, R. G. (2016). Perceived managerial and leadership effectiveness in a korean context: An indigenous qualitative study. *Asia Pacific Journal of Management*, 33(3), 789–820. doi:10.1007/s10490-016-9476-x
- Clampitt, P. G., & Downs, C. W. (1993). Employee Perceptions of the Relationship Between Communication and Productivity: A Field Study. *The Journal of Business Communication*, 30(1), 5–28. https://doi.org/10.1300/J043v12n02_05
- Cogliser, C. C., & Brigham, K. H. (2004). The intersection of leadership and entrepreneurship: Mutual lessons to be learned. *Leadership Quarterly*, 15(6), 771–799. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2004.09.004
- Cortina, L. M., Kabat-Farr, D., Leskinen, E. A., Huerta, M., & Magley, V. J. (2013). Selective incivility as modern discrimination in organizations: Evidence and impact. *Journal of Management*, 39(6), 1579–1605. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206311418835>
- Cortina, L. M., Magley, V. J., Williams, J. H., & Langhout, R. D. (2001). Incivility in the workplace: Incidence and impact. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 6(1), 64–80. <https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.6.1.64>
- Cortina, L. M., Magley, V. J., Williams, J. H., and Langhout, R. D. (2001). Incivility in the workplace: incidence and impact. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 6(1), 64–80. doi: 10.1037/1076-8998.6.1.64
- Cortina, L.M., Kabat-Farr, D., Leskinen, E.A., Huerta, M., & Magley, V.J. (2013). Selective incivility as modern discrimination in organizations: Evidence and impact. *Journal of Management* 39(6), 1579–1605.
- Cramton, C.D., & Hinds, P.J. (2014). An Embedded Model of Cultural Adaptation in Global Teams. *Organization Science*, 25(4), 1056–1081.
- Crews, E. R., Brouwers, M., & Visagie, J. C. (2019). Transformational and transactional leadership effects on communication styles. *Journal of Psychology in Africa*, 29(5), 421–428. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14330237.2019.1675996>

- Daly, J. A., & McCroskey, J. C. (1975). Occupational desirability and choice as a function of communication apprehension. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 22(4), 309-313. doi:10.1037/h0076748
- Dasgupta, S. A., Suar, D., & Singh, S. (2012). Impact of managerial communication styles on employees' attitudes and behaviors. *Employee Relations*, 35(2), 173–199. <https://doi.org/10.1108/01425451311287862>
- de Vries, R. E., Bakker-Pieper, A., & Oostenveld, W. (2010). Leadership = communication? the relations of leaders' communication styles with leadership styles, knowledge sharing and leadership outcomes. *Journal of Business and Psychology*, 25(3), 367-380. doi:10.1007/s10869-009-9140-2
- de Vries, R. E., Bakker-Pieper, A., Konings, F. E., & Schouten, B. (2013). The communication styles inventory (CSI): A six-dimensional behavioral model of communication styles and its relation with personality. *Communication Research*, 40(4), 506-532. doi:10.1177/0093650211413571
- De Vries, R. E., Bakker-Pieper, A., Siberg, R. A., Van Gameraen, K., & Vlug, M. (2009). The content and dimensionality of communication styles. *Communication Research*, 36(2), 178-206. doi:10.1177/0093650208330250
- Derue, D. S., Nahrgang, J. D., Wellman, N., & Humphrey, S. E. (2011). Trait and behavioral theories of leadership: An integration and meta-analytic test of their relative validity. *Personnel Psychology*, 64(1), 7-52. doi:10.1111/j.1744-6570.2010.01201.x
- Dienesch, R. M., & Liden, R. C. (1986). Leader–member exchange model of leadership: A critique and further development. *The Academy of Management Review*, 11(3), 618–634. <https://doi.org/10.2307/258314>
- Donsbach, W. (2008). The International encyclopedia of communication. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Downs, C. W. (1988). Communication Audits. Glenview, IL: Scott Foreman
- Downs, C. W., & Hazen, M. D. (1977). A factor analytic study of communication satisfaction. *The Journal of Business Communication*, 14(3), 63–73. <https://doi.org/10.1177/002194367701400306>
- Duarte, N. T., Goodson, J. R., & Klich, N. R. (1994). Effects of Dyadic Quality and Duration on Performance Appraisal. *Academy of Management Journal*, 37(3), 499–521. <https://doi.org/10.5465/256698>
- Duxbury, L., & Neufeld, D. (1999). An empirical evaluation of the impacts of telecommuting on intra-organizational communication. *Journal of Engineering and Technology Management - JET-M*, 16(1), 1-28. doi:10.1016/S0923-4748(98)00026-5
- Fan, H., & Han, B. (2018). How Does Leader- Follower Fit or Misfit in Communication Style Matter for Work Outcomes? *Social Behavior and Personality: An International Journal*, 46(7), 1083–1100. doi:10.2224/sbp.6925

- Feeley, T. H. (2000). Testing a communication network model of employee turnover based on centrality. *Journal of Applied Communication Research*, 28(3), 262–277. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00909880009365574>
- Fiedler, F. E. & Garcia, J. E. (1987). *New approaches to leadership: cognitive resources and organizational performance*. New York: John Wiley.
- Fiedler, F. E. (1967). *A theory of leadership effectiveness*. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Fiedler, F. E., & Garcia, J. E. (1987). *New approaches to effective leadership: Cognitive resources and organizational performance*. New York: Wiley.
- Fu, P., Liu, J., Ji, X., Zhong, S., & Yu, G. (2016). Leading in a Highly Competitive Environment: Effects of CEO Confident Leadership on Follower Commitment in China. *Frontiers of Business Research in China*, 10(2), 149–175. <https://doi.org/10.3868/s070-005-016-0007-4>
- Gabbard-Alley, A. S. (1995). Health communication and gender: A review and critique. *Health Communication*, 7(1), 35-54. doi:10.1207/s15327027hc0701_3
- Gabriel, A. S., Butts, M., Yuan, Z., Rosen, R. L., & Sliter, M. T. (2018). Further understanding incivility in the workplace: The effects of gender, agency, and communion. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 103(4), 362-382. <https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000289>
- Gavan O'Shea, P., Foti, R. J., Hauenstein, N. M. A., & Bycio, P. (2009). Are the Best Leaders Both Transformational and Transactional? A Pattern-oriented Analysis. *Leadership*, 5(2), 237–259. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1742715009102937>
- Giri, V.N., & Pavan Kumar, B. (2010). Assessing the impact of organizational communication on job satisfaction and job performance. *Psychological Studies*, 55, 137-143.
- Graham, E. E., Papa, M. J., & Brooks, G. P. (1992). Functions of humor in conversation: Conceptualization and measurement. *Western Journal of Communication*, 56(2), 161-183. doi:10.1080/10570319209374409
- Gray, J., & Laidlaw, H. (2002). Part-time employment and communication satisfaction in an australian retail organisation. *Employee Relations*, 24(2), 211-228. doi:10.1108/01425450210420929
- Greenbaum, H. H., Clampitt, P., & Willihnganz, S. (1988). Organizational communication: An examination of four instruments. *Management Communication Quarterly*, 2(2), 245-282. doi:10.1177/0893318988002002008
- Gregersen, S., Vincent-Höper, S., & Nienhaus, A. (2016). Job-related resources, leader–member exchange and well-being—A longitudinal study. *Work & Stress*, 30(4), 356–373. <https://doi.org/10.1080/02678373.2016.1249440>

- Gudykunst, W. B., & nishida, T. (1986). Attributional confidence in low- and high-context cultures. *Human Communication Research*, 12(4), 525-549. doi:10.1111/j.1468-2958.1986.tb00090.x
- Gumperz, J. J. (1982). *Discourse Strategies*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hale, J. I., Burgoon, J. K., & Householder, B. (2004). The Relational Communication Scale. In V. Manusov (Ed.), *The Sourcebook of Nonverbal Measures* (pp. 127-139). New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781410611703>
- Hall, E. T. (1976). *Beyond Culture*. New York: Anchor Press/Double day.
- Hamlin, R. G., & Hatton, A. (2013). Toward a british taxonomy of perceived managerial and leadership effectiveness. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 24(3), 365-406. doi:10.1002/hrdq.21163
- Hamlin, R. G., & Patel, T. (2012). Behavioural indicators of perceived managerial and leadership effectiveness within Romanian and British public sector hospitals. *European Journal of Training and Development*, 36(2/3), 234–261.
- Hamlin, R. G., Nassar, M., & Wahba, K. (2010). Behavioural criteria of managerial and leadership effectiveness within egyptian and british public sector hospitals: An empirical case study and multi-case/cross-nation comparative analysis. *Human Resource Development International*, 13(1), 45-64. doi:10.1080/13678861003608238
- Hamlin, R. G., Ruiz, C. E., & Wang, J. (2011). Perceived managerial and leadership effectiveness within mexican and british public sector hospitals: A cross-nation comparative analysis. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 22(4), 491-517. doi:10.1002/hrdq.20087
- Hargie, O., Dickson, D., & Nelson, S. (2003). Working together in a divided society: A study of intergroup communication in the northern ireland workplace. *Journal of Business and Technical Communication*, 17(3), 285-318. doi:10.1177/1050651903017003002
- Hargie, O., Tourish, D., & Wilson, N. (2002). Communication audits and the effects of increased information: A follow-up study. *Journal of Business Communication*, 39(4), 414-436. doi:10.1177/002194360203900402
- Harrison, C. (2018). *Leadership theory and research: A critical approach to new and existing paradigms*. Cham: Springer International Publishing.
- Henson, R. (2016). *Successful Global Leadership: Frameworks for Cross-Cultural*
- Hoch, J. E., & Dulebohn, J. H. (2013). Shared leadership in enterprise resource planning and human resource management system implementation. *Human Resource Management Review*, 23(1), 114–125. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.hrmr.2012.06.007>

- Holladay, S. J., & Coombs, W. T. (1993). Communicating visions: An exploration of the role of delivery in the creation of leader charisma. *Management Communication Quarterly*, 6(4), 405-427. doi:10.1177/0893318993006004003
- Holmes, J., Schnurr, S., & Marra, M. (2007). Leadership and communication: Discursive evidence of a workplace culture change. *Discourse & Communication*, 1(4), 433-451. doi:10.1177/1750481307082207
- Holtbrügge, D., Weldon, A., & Rogers, H. (2013). Cultural determinants of email communication styles. *International Journal of Cross Cultural Management*, 13(1), 89-110. doi:10.1177/1470595812452638
- House, R. J., & Aditya, R. N. (1997). The social scientific study of leadership: Quo vadis? *Journal of Management*, 23(3), 409-473. <https://doi.org/10.1177/014920639702300306>
- House, R. J., & Howell, J. M. (1992). Personality and charismatic leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 3(2), 81-108. doi:10.1016/1048-9843(92)90028-E
- House, R., & Mitchell, R. (1974). Path-Goal Theory of Leadership. *Journal of Contemporary Business*, 9, 81-98.
- Howell, J. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1992). The ethics of charismatic leadership: submission or liberation? *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 6(2), 43-54. <https://doi.org/10.5465/ame.1992.4274395>
- Howell, J. P., Bowen, D. E., Dorfman, P. W., Kerr, S., & Podsakoff, P. M. (1990). Substitutes for leadership: Effective alternatives to ineffective leadership. *Organizational Dynamics*, 19(1), 21-38. doi:10.1016/0090-2616(90)90046-R
- Huang, L., Krasikova, D. V., & Liu, D. (2016). I can do it, so can you: The role of leader creative self-efficacy in facilitating follower creativity. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 132, 49-62. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.obhdp.2015.12.002>
- Infante, D. A., & Gorden, W. I. (1982). Similarities and differences in the communicator styles of superiors and subordinates: Relations to subordinate satisfaction. *Communication Quarterly*, 30(1), 67-71. doi:10.1080/01463378209369430
- Jablin, F. M. (1979). Superior-subordinate communication: The state of the art. *Psychological Bulletin*, 86(6), 1201-1222. doi:10.1037/0033-2909.86.6.1201
- Jansen, K. J., & Kristof-Brown, A. (2006). Toward a multidimensional theory of person-environment fit. *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 18(2), 193-212.
- Judge, T. A., & Piccol, R. F. (2004). Transformational and transactional leadership: A meta-analytic test of their relative validity. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89(5), 755-768. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.89.5.755

- Kakkar, H., & Sivanathan, N. (2017). When the appeal of a dominant leader is greater than a prestige leader. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*, 114(26), 6734-6739. doi:10.1073/pnas.1617711114
- Kandlousi, N. S. A. E., Ali, A. J., & Abdollahi, A. (2010). Organizational Citizenship Behavior in Concern of Communication Satisfaction: The Role of the Formal and Informal Communication. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 5(10), 51-61. <https://doi.org/10.5539/ijbm.v5n10p51>
- Kang, J., & Hyun, S. S. (2012). Effective communication styles for the customer-oriented service employee: Inducing dedicational behaviors in luxury restaurant patrons. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 31(3), 772-785. doi:10.1016/j.ijhm.2011.09.014
- Kelley, D. L., & Burgoon, J. K. (1991). Understanding marital satisfaction and couple type as functions of relational expectations. *Human Communication Research*, 18(1), 40-69. <https://doi.org/bdgtpw>
- Kerr, S., & Jermier, J. M. (1978). Substitutes for leadership: Their meaning and measurement. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 22(3), 375-403. doi:10.1016/0030-5073(78)90023-5
- Kersten, G.E., Vetschera, R., & Koeszegi, S.T. (2004). National Cultural Differences in the Use and Perception of Internet-based NSS: Does High or Low Context Matter? *International Negotiation*, 9, 79-109.
- Kets de Vries, M. F. R., Vrignaud, P., & Florent-Treacy, E. (2004). The global leadership life inventory: Development and psychometric properties of a 360-degree feedback instrument. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 15(3), 475-492. doi:10.1080/0958519042000181214
- Kim, J., & McLean, G. N. (2015). An integrative framework for global leadership competency: Levels and dimensions. *Human Resource Development International*, 18(3), 235-258. doi:10.1080/13678868.2014.1003721
- King, I. W. (2003). Making space: Valuing our talk in organizations. *Journal of Management Studies*, 40(5), 1205-1223. doi:10.1111/1467-6486.00377
- Kipnis, D., & Lane, W. P. (1962). Self-confidence and leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 46(4), 291-295. doi:10.1037/h0044720
- Kirkpatrick, S. A., & Locke, E. A. (1991). Leadership: do traits matter? *Academy of Management Executive*, 5(2), 48-60. <https://doi.org/10.5465/ame.1991.4274679>
- Klein Buller, M., & Buller, D. B. (1987). Physicians' communication style and patient satisfaction. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior*, 28(4), 375-388. doi:10.2307/2136791
- Korac-Kakabadse, N., Kouzmin, A., Korac-Kakabadse, A., & Savery, L. (2001). Low- and high-context communication patterns: Towards mapping cross-cultural encounters. *Cross Cultural Management: An International Journal*, 8(2), 3-24. doi:10.1108/13527600110797218

- Kouzes, J. M., & Posner, B. Z. (1987). *The leadership challenge: How to get extraordinary things done in organizations (1st ed.)*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Kristof, A. L. (1996). Person-organization fit: An integrative review of its conceptualizations, measurement, and implications. *Personnel Psychology*, 49(1), 1–49. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1744-6570.1996.tb01790.x>
- Kristof-Brown, A. L., Zimmerman, R. D., & Johnson, E. C. (2005). Consequences of individuals' fit at work: A meta-analysis of person-job, person-organization, person-group, and person-supervisor FIT. *Personnel Psychology*, 58(2), 281–342. doi:10.1111/j.1744-6570.2005.00672.x
- Ladkin, D., & Taylor, S. S. (2010). Enacting the 'true self': Towards a theory of embodied authentic leadership. *Leadership Quarterly*, 21(1), 64–74. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2009.10.005
- Lau, Y., & Ting, S., (2016). Generic analysis of bakery service encounters in malaysia. *International Journal of Language and Culture*, 3(2), 280–311. doi:10.1075/ijolc.3.2.06lau
- Laustsen, L., & Petersen, M. B. (2015). Does a competent leader make a good friend? Conflict, ideology and the psychologies of friendship and followership. *Evolution and Human Behavior*, 36(4), 286–293. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.evolhumbehav.2015.01.001>
- Leeds-Hurwitz, W. (1989). *Communication in everyday life: A social interpretation*. Norwood, N.J: Ablex.
- Lewin, K., Lippitt, R., & White, R. K. (1939). Patterns of aggressive behavior in experimentally created “Social climates”. *Journal of Social Psychology*, 10(2), 269–299. doi:10.1080/00224545.1939.9713366
- Liden, R. C., & Graen, G. (1980). Generalizability of the vertical dyad linkage model of leadership. *Academy of Management Journal*, 23(3), 451–465. <https://doi.org/10.2307/255511>
- Litterst, J. K., & Eyo, B. (1982). Gauging the effectiveness of formal communication programs: A search for the communication- productivity link. *Journal of Business Communication*, 19(2), 15–26. doi:10.1177/002194368201900202
- Lord, R. G., De Vader, C. L., & Alliger, G. M. (1986). A meta-analysis of the relation between personality traits and leadership perceptions. an application of validity generalization procedures. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71(3), 402–410. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.71.3.402
- Luo, W., Song, L. J., Gebert, D. R., Zhang, K., & Feng, Y. (2016). How does leader communication style promote employees' commitment at times of change? *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 29(2), 242–262. <https://doi.org/ccj7>
- Lussier, R. N., & Achua, C. F. (2016). *Leadership: Theory, Application and Skill Development* (6th ed.). Boston: Cengage Learning.

- MacDonald, D. (1976). Communication roles and communication networks in a formal organization. *Human Communication Research*, 2(4), 365-375. doi:10.1111/j.1468-2958.1976.tb00497.x
- Madlock, P. E. (2008). The link between leadership style, communicator competence, and employee satisfaction. *Journal of Business Communication*, 45(1), 61-78. doi:10.1177/0021943607309351
- Martin, D. M., Rich, C. O., & Gayle, B. M. (2004). Humor works: Communication style and humor functions in manager/subordinate relationships. *Southern Communication Journal*, 69(3), 206-222. doi:10.1080/10417940409373293
- Martin, R. J., & Hine, D. W. (2005). Development and validation of the uncivil workplace behavior questionnaire. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 10(4), 477-490. <https://doi.org/10.1037/1076-8998.10.4.477>
- Mathison, D. L. (1988). Assumed similarity in communication styles: Implications for personnel interviews. *Group & Organization Management*, 13(1), 100-110. doi:10.1177/105960118801300111
- McCleary, K. W., & Weaver, P. A. (1982). Improving employee service levels through identifying sources of customer satisfaction. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 1(2), 85-89. doi:10.1016/0278-4319(82)90038-X
- Mhatre, K. H., Riggio, R. E. (2014). Charismatic and Transformational Leadership: Past, Present, and Future. In D.V. Day (Ed.), *The Oxford Handbook of Leadership and Organizations* (pp. 221-240). New York, NY: Oxford University Press
- Mintzberg, H. (1980). *The nature of managerial work*. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.
- Muchinsky, P.M., & Monahan, C.J. (1987). What is person-environment congruence? Supplementary versus complementary models of fit. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 31(3), 268-277. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0001-8791\(87\)90043-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/0001-8791(87)90043-1).
- Mueller, B. H., & Lee, J. (2002). Leader-Member Exchange and Organizational Communication Satisfaction in Multiple Contexts. *The Journal of Business Communication*, 39(2), 220-244.
- Mumford, M. D., Zaccaro, S. J., Connelly, M. S., & Marks, M. A. (2000). Leadership skills: Conclusions and future directions. *Leadership Quarterly*, 11(1), 155-170. doi:10.1016/S1048-9843(99)00047-8
- Neuman, G. A., Wagner, S. H., & Christiansen, N. D. (1999). The Relationship between Work-Team Personality Composition and the Job Performance of Teams. *Group and Organization Management*, 24(1), 28-45. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1059601199241003>
- Niculescu, O., Lloyd-Reason, L., Pacleb, T. G., & Bocarnea, M. C. (2016). The Relationship between Leadership Styles, Leader Communication Style, and Impact on Leader-Member Exchange Relationship within the Banking Sector in the United States. In O. Nicolescu & L. Lloyd-Reason (Eds.), *Challenges, Performances and*

- Tendencies in Organisation Management* (275–287). Singapore: Scientific Publishing.
- Northouse, P. G. (2019). *Leadership: Theory and Practice* (8th ed.). Thousand Oaks: SAGE Publications.
- Norton, R. W. (1978). Foundation of a communicator style construct. *Human Communication Research*, 4(2), 99-112. doi:10.1111/j.1468-2958.1978.tb00600.x
- Norton, R.W (1983) Communicator Style: Theory, Applications and Measures. Sage, Beverly Hills.
- Nwagbara, U., Oruh, E. S., Ugorji, C., & Ennsra, M. (2013). The impact of effective communication on employee turnover intention at First Bank of Nigeria. *Economic Insights: Trends and Challenges*, II(4), 13–21.
- Øgaard, T., Marnburg, E., & Larsen, S. (2008). Perceptions of organizational structure in the hospitality industry: Consequences for commitment, job satisfaction and perceived performance. *Tourism Management*, 29(4), 661-671. doi:10.1016/j.tourman.2007.07.006
- Park, S., Jeong, S., Jang, S., Yoon, S. W., & Lim, D. H. (2018). Critical review of global leadership literature: Toward an integrative global leadership framework. *Human Resource Development Review*, 17(1), 95-120. doi:10.1177/1534484317749030
- Patel, T., & Hamlin, R. G. (2012). Deducing a taxonomy of perceived managerial and leadership effectiveness: A comparative study of effective and ineffective managerial behaviour across three eu countries. *Human Resource Development International*, 15(5), 571–587. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13678868.2012.726539>
- Pavan Kumar, B., & Giri, V. N. (2009). Examining the relationship of organizational communication and job satisfaction in indian organizations. *Journal of Creative Communications*, 4(3), 177-184. doi:10.1177/097325861000400303
- Penley, L. E. (1991). Communication abilities of managers: The relationship to performance. *Journal of Management*, 17(1), 57-76. doi:10.1177/014920639101700105
- Pettegrew, L. S., Thomas, R. C., Ford, J., & Raney, D. C. (1981). The effects of job-related stress on medical center employee communicator style. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 2(4), 235-253. doi:10.1002/job.4030020402
- Piasentin, K.A., & Chapman, D.S. (2007). Perceived similarity and complementarity as predictors of subjective person–organization fit. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 80(2), 341–354. <https://doi.org/10.1348/096317906X115453>
- Pincus, J. D. (1986). Communication satisfaction, job satisfaction, and job performance. *Human Communication Research*, 12(3), 395-419. doi:10.1111/j.1468-2958.1986.tb00084.x

- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Moorman, R. H., & Fetter, R. (1990). Transformational leader behaviors and their effects on followers' trust in leader, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behaviors. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 1(2), 107-142. doi:10.1016/1048-9843(90)90009-7
- Podsakoff, P. M., Niehoff, B. P., MacKenzie, S. B., & Williams, M. L. (1993). Do substitutes for leadership really substitute for leadership? An empirical examination of Kerr and Jermier's situational leadership model. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 54(1), 1-44. <https://doi.org/10.1006/obhd.1993.1001>
- Prager, K. J. (1989). Intimacy status and couple communication. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships*, 6(4), 435-449. <https://doi.org/bmfmmp>
- Rice, R. W. (1978). Construct validity of the least preferred co-worker score. *Psychological Bulletin*, 85(6), 1199-1237. doi:10.1037/0033-2909.85.6.1199
- Riggio, R. E. (1986). Assessment of basic social skills. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51(3), 649-660. doi:10.1037/0022-3514.51.3.649
- Riggio, R. E., Salinas, C., Riggio, H. R., & Cole, E. J. (2003). The role of social and emotional communication skills in leader emergence and effectiveness. *Group Dynamics*, 7(2), 83-103. doi:10.1037/1089-2699.7.2.83
- Rizzo, J. R., House, R. J., & Lirtzman, S. I. (1970). Role conflict and ambiguity in complex organizations. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 15(2), 150-163. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2391486>
- Roberts, K. H., & O'Reilly, C. A. (1974). Measuring organizational communication. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 59(3), 321-326. doi:10.1037/h0036660
- Rost, J. C., & Burns, J. M. G. (1991). *Leadership for the twenty-first century*. New York: Praeger.
- Ruben, B. D., & Gigliotti, R. A. (2017). Communication: Sine qua non of organizational leadership theory and practice. *International Journal of Business Communication*, 54(1), 12-30. doi:10.1177/2329488416675447
- Russell, R. F., & Gregory Stone, A. (2002). A review of servant leadership attributes: Developing a practical model. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 23(3), 145-157. doi:10.1108/01437730210424
- Sarapaivanich, N., Sampet, J., & Patterson, P. G. (2019). The impact of communication style on psychological comfort and trust in audit services. *Accounting Research Journal*, 32(4), 642-661. doi:10.1108/ARJ-06-2017-0097
- Sarros, J. C., Luca, E., Densten, I., & Santora, J. C. (2014). Leaders and their use of motivating language. *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, 35(3), 226-240. doi:10.1108/LODJ-06-2012-0073

- Schaubroeck, J., & Lam, S. S. K. (2002). How similarity to peers and supervisor influences organizational advancement in different cultures. *Academy of Management Journal*, 45(6), 1120-1136. doi:10.2307/3069428
- Schultz, B. (1982). Argumentativeness: Its effect in group decision-making and its role in leadership perception. *Communication Quarterly*, 30(4), 368-375. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01463378209369473>
- Sendjaya, S., & Sarros, J. C. (2002). Servant Leadership: Its Origin, Development, and Application in Organizations. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 9(2), 57-64. <https://doi.org/10.1177/107179190200900205>
- Siengthai, S. & Pila-Ngarm, P. (2016), The interaction effect of job redesign and job satisfaction on employee performance. *Evidence-based HRM: A Global Forum for Empirical Scholarship*, 4(2), 162-180. <https://doi.org/10.1108/EBHRM-01-2015-0001>
- Simonet, D. V., & Tett, R. P. (2013). Five perspectives on the leadership-management relationship: A competency-based evaluation and integration. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, 20(2), 199-213. doi:10.1177/1548051812467205
- Smith, B. N., Montagno, R. V., & Kuzmenko, T. N. (2004). Transformational and servant leadership: content and contextual comparisons. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 10(4), 80-91. <https://doi.org/10.1177/107179190401000406>
- Smith, P. B. (2011). Communication Styles as Dimensions of National Culture. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 42(2), 216-233. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0022022110396866>
- Staw, B. M., Sutton, R. I., & Pelled, L. H. (1994). Employee positive emotion and favorable outcomes at the workplace. *Organization Science*, 5(1), 51-71. <https://doi.org/10.1287/orsc.5.1.51>
- Stogdill, R. M. (1948). Personal factors associated with leadership; a survey of the literature. *The Journal of Psychology*, 25, 35-71. doi:10.1080/00223980.1948.9917362
- Swaminathan, S., & Jawahar, P.D. (2013). Job Satisfaction as a Predictor of Organizational Citizenship Behavior: An Empirical Study. *Global Journal of Business Research*, 7(1), 71-80.
- Taormina, R. J., & Selvarajah, C. (2005). Perceptions of leadership excellence in ASEAN nations. *Leadership*, 1(3), 299-322. doi:10.1177/1742715005054439
- Tesch, S. A., & Whitbourne, S. K. (1982). Intimacy and identity status in young adults. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 43(5), 1041-1051. <https://doi.org/djtcwj>
- Trant, A. A., Szekely, B., Mougalian, S. S., DiGiovanna, M. P., Sanft, T., Hofstatter, E., . . . Pusztai, L. (2019). The impact of communication style on patient

- satisfaction. *Breast Cancer Research and Treatment*, 176(2), 349-356.
doi:10.1007/s10549-019-05232-w
- Van Katwyk, P. T., Fox, S., Spector, P. E., & Kelloway, E. K. (2000). Using the Job-Related Affective Well-Being Scale (JAWS) to investigate affective responses to work stressors. *Journal of occupational health psychology*, 5(2), 219–230.
<https://doi.org/10.1037//1076-8998.5.2.219>
- van Ruler, B. (2018). Communication theory: An underrated pillar on which strategic communication rests. *International Journal of Strategic Communication*, 12(4), 367-381. doi:10.1080/1553118X.2018.1452240
- Van Vianen, A. E. M. (2000). Person-organization fit: The match between newcomers' and recruiters' preferences for organizational cultures. *Personnel Psychology*, 53(1), 113-149. doi:10.1111/j.1744-6570.2000.tb00196.x
- van Vianen, A. E. M., Shen, C.-T., & Chuang, A. (2011). Person–organization and person–supervisor fits: Employee commitments in a Chinese context. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 32(6), 906–926. <https://doi.org/dd7w5t>
- Venkatesh, V., & Johnson, P. (2002). Telecommuting technology implementations: A within- and between-subjects longitudinal field study. *Personnel Psychology*, 55(3), 661-687. doi:10.1111/j.1744-6570.2002.tb00125.x
- Vrana, S. R., Vrana, D. T., Penner, L. A., Eggly, S., Slatcher, R. B., & Hagiwara, N. (2018). Latent semantic analysis: A new measure of patient-physician communication. *Social Science and Medicine*, 198, 22-26.
doi:10.1016/j.socscimed.2017.12.021
- Vroom, V. H., & Jago, A. G. (1974). Decision making as a social process: normative and descriptive models of leader behavior. *Decision Sciences*, 5(4), 743-769.
doi:10.1111/j.1540-5915.1974.tb00651.x
- Wagenheim, M., & Rood, A. S. (2010). The relationship between employee satisfaction with organizational communication and customer orientation. *Managing Leisure*, 15(1-2), 83-95. doi:10.1080/13606710903448087
- Waldherr, A., & Muck, P. M. (2011). Towards an integrative approach to communication styles: The interpersonal circumplex and the five-factor theory of personality as frames of reference. *Communications*, 36(1), 1-27.
doi:10.1515/COMM.2011.001
- Wang, J. (2011). Understanding managerial effectiveness: A chinese perspective. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 35(1), 6-23.
doi:10.1108/03090591111095718
- Webber, R. A. (1970). Perceptions of interactions between superiors and subordinates. *Human Relations*, 23(3), 235-248. doi:10.1177/001872677002300306
- Webster, C., & Sundaram, D. S. (2009). Effect of service provider's communication style on customer satisfaction in professional services setting: The moderating role

- of criticality and service nature. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 23(2), 104-114. doi:10.1108/08876040910946369
- Wilczewski, M. (2015). The Role of Cultural Diversity in Business Communication Contacts. *Applied Linguistics*, 13(2), 86 – 102.
- Witt, L. A. (1998). Enhancing organizational goal congruence: A solution to organizational politics. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83(4), 666-674. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.83.4.666
- Wortman, M. S. (1982). Strategic management and changing leader-follower roles. *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 18(3), 371-383. doi:10.1177/002188638201800310
- Yoon, S. W., Shin, J., Kim, S., Chai, D. S. (2017). Effective leadership and leadership development in South Korea: Lessons learned from two large conglomerates. In Ardichvili, A., Dirani, K. (Eds.), *Leadership development in emerging market economies* (pp. 187-206). New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Yuan, Y. C., Liao, W., & Bazarova, N. N. (2019). Judging expertise through communication styles in intercultural collaboration. *Management Communication Quarterly*, 33(2), 238-271. doi:10.1177/0893318918824674
- Yukl, G. (1971). Toward a behavioral theory of leadership. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 6(4), 414-440. doi:10.1016/0030-5073(71)90026-2
- Yukl, G. (1999). An Evaluative Essay on Current Conceptions of Effective Leadership. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 8(1), 33-48. <https://doi.org/10.1080/135943299398429>
- Yukl, G. (2011). Contingency Theories of Effective Leadership. In A. Bryman, D. Collinson, K. Grint, B. Jackson & M. Uhl-Bien (Eds.), *The SAGE Handbook of Leadership* (pp. 286-298). London: SAGE Publications Ltd
- Yukl, G. (2012). Effective leadership behavior: What we know and what questions need more attention. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 26(4), 66-85. doi:10.5465/amp.2012.0088
- Yukl, G. A. (1981). *Leadership in Organizations*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Yukl, G. A. (1989). *Leadership in Organizations*. Englewood Cliffs, N.J: Prentice Hall.
- Yukl, G. A. (2010). *Leadership in Organizations* (7th ed.). New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Zaleznik, A. (1977). Managers and leaders: Are they different? *Harvard Business Review*, 55(3), 67-78.
- Zhang, Z., Wang, M., & Shi, J. (2012). Leader-follower congruence in proactive personality and work outcomes: The mediating role of leader-member exchange. *Academy of Management Journal*, 55(1), 111-130. doi:10.5465/amj.2009.0865

List of Tables

Table 1 Comparison of Managers and Leaders According to the First Approach.....	15
Table 2 Taxonomy of 63 Leadership and Management Competencies	18
Table 3 Contingency Theories of Effective Leadership Behaviors	28
Table 4 Examples of Behavioral Guidelines for Different Leadership Situations.....	34
Table 5 Other Models of Transactional Leadership	40
Table 6 List of Studies of Effective Leader Competencies (Behaviors)	46
Table 7 Global Leader and Manager Behaviors and Four Dimensions	49
Table 8 Content Assessment of the Four General Communication Instruments	67
Table 9 Content Assessment of the Four Organizational Communication Instruments	78
Table 10 Comparison of Downward and Upward Communication.....	94
Table 11 Scenarios of a Hypothetical Manager X	113
Table 12 Correlations Between the Scales of Emotions, Satisfaction, and Trust	115
Table 13 Multiple Regression Analysis	116
Table 14 Descriptive statistics and intercorrelations for the variables measured in Study 2 .	127
Table 15 Polynomial regression of open communication style on employee trust.....	129
Table 16 Polynomial Regression of Open Communication Style on Employee Job Well-Being	130
Table 17 Polynomial Regression of Frank Communication Style on Employee Trust	130
Table 18 Polynomial Regression of Precise Communication Style on Employee Trust	131
Table 19 Regression Analysis Predicting Trust with Argumentative Communication Style	132
Table 20 Polynomial Regression of Dominant Communication Style on Employee Trust...	133
Table 21 Polynomial Regression of Dominant Communication Style on Employee Job Well-Being	134
Table 22 Regression Analysis Predicting Trust with Friendly Communication Style.....	135
Table 23 Polynomial Regression of Friendly Communication Style on Employee Job Well-Being	136
Table 24 Polynomial Regression of Confident Communication Style on Employee Trust...	137
Table 25 Polynomial regression of Confident Communication Style on Employee Job Well-Being	139
Table 26 Polynomial Regression of Expressive Communication Style on Employee Trust .	140
Table 27 Summary of the hypotheses from Study 1 and Study 2	147

List of Figures

Figure 1 Employees' Attitude Towards the Leader	117
Figure 2 Preciseness and Trust	132
Figure 3 Dominance and Trust	134
Figure 4 Dominance and Well-Being	135
Figure 5 Friendliness and Well-Being	137
Figure 6 Confidence and Trust	138
Figure 7 Confidence and Well-Being	139