

Make Your Publications Visible.

A Service of



Leibniz-Informationszentrum Wirtschaft Leibniz Information Centre

Asrar-ul-Haq, Muhammad; Anwar, Sadia

Article

The many faces of leadership: Proposing research agenda through a review of literature

Future Business Journal

Provided in Cooperation with:

Faculty of Commerce and Business Administration, Future University

Suggested Citation: Asrar-ul-Haq, Muhammad; Anwar, Sadia (2018): The many faces of leadership: Proposing research agenda through a review of literature, Future Business Journal, ISSN 2314-7210, Elsevier, Amsterdam, Vol. 4, Iss. 2, pp. 179-188, https://doi.org/10.1016/j.fbj.2018.06.002

This Version is available at: https://hdl.handle.net/10419/246598

Standard-Nutzungsbedingungen:

Die Dokumente auf EconStor dürfen zu eigenen wissenschaftlichen Zwecken und zum Privatgebrauch gespeichert und kopiert werden.

Sie dürfen die Dokumente nicht für öffentliche oder kommerzielle Zwecke vervielfältigen, öffentlich ausstellen, öffentlich zugänglich machen, vertreiben oder anderweitig nutzen.

Sofern die Verfasser die Dokumente unter Open-Content-Lizenzen (insbesondere CC-Lizenzen) zur Verfügung gestellt haben sollten, gelten abweichend von diesen Nutzungsbedingungen die in der dort genannten Lizenz gewährten Nutzungsrechte.

Terms of use:

Documents in EconStor may be saved and copied for your personal and scholarly purposes.

You are not to copy documents for public or commercial purposes, to exhibit the documents publicly, to make them publicly available on the internet, or to distribute or otherwise use the documents in public.

If the documents have been made available under an Open Content Licence (especially Creative Commons Licences), you may exercise further usage rights as specified in the indicated licence.



NC ND https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/



HOSTED BY

Contents lists available at ScienceDirect

Future Business Journal

journal homepage: www.elsevier.com/locate/fbj



The many faces of leadership: Proposing research agenda through a review of literature



Muhammad Asrar-ul-Haq^{a,b,*}, Sadia Anwar^b

- ^a University of Illinois at Urbana, Champaign, USA
- ^b COMSATS Institute of Information Technology, Sahiwal, Pakistan

ARTICLE INFO

Keywords: Leadership Performance Congruence Literature review Pakistan

ABSTRACT

Leadership is one of the most studied topics in organizational settings and has been studied in relation to several employee performance outcomes. Based on literature review, it is observed that the concept of congruence between leaders and followers is relatively new. As organizations spend a huge amount of their budget on different leadership development programs, congruence between the perception of leaders and followers is necessary to achieve better results. In developing countries, very little literature is available on the concept of congruence between leaders and followers. The present study is an effort to review and synthesize major leadership theories and its relationship with different outcomes. Further, based on a comprehensive review of literature, a future research agenda about leadership studies in a developing country is proposed.

Introduction

The concept of leadership is as old as the history of people who tried to make groups and manage individuals for accomplishment of certain tasks. According to Sarachek (1968), the concept and practice of leadership has its origin in the beginning of human civilization with different attributes. However, the industrial revolution, when common people gained power on the basis of their skills, created a paradigm shift to a new theory of leadership (Clawson, 2003). The concept of leadership is the most discussed and observed, but there is lack of mutual understanding on what leadership approach or style deems to fit in a particular context or culture (Goethals, Sorenson, & Burns, 2004). In past, extensive research on leadership has given rise to many leadership theories and models which can fit in different contexts and affects different outcomes. However, there was still need to review major leadership theories, models, and related outcomes which the present study has tried to address. The study starts with the definitions of leadership, classical view of leadership, moves on to different leadership models (partial models to comprehensive models) and its relationship with different outcomes. Later, role of national culture in effective leadership is discussed and a research agenda for further leadership studies in a developing country (Pakistan in particular) is proposed.

Section 1. Definitions and models of leadership

Organizational leadership is a multidisciplinary field and has been the area of interest to the scholars from a wide variety of backgrounds, i.e. sociology, psychology, management, education, political science, and organizational studies. Concept of leadership

E-mail addresses: asrar.uiuc@gmail.com (M. Asrar-ul-Haq), sadiaanwar@ciitsahiwal.edu.pk (S. Anwar).

Peer review under responsibility of Faculty of Commerce and Business Administration, Future University.

^{*} Corresponding author.

has been defined by many research scholars in the past (Antonakis, Cianciolo, & Sternberg, 2004; Bass & Stogdill, 1990; Conger & Riggio, 2007; Northouse, 2009), yet not a universal definition of leadership is agreed upon. Bennis and Nanus (1985) have highlighted that leadership is like beauty. It is hard to define beauty, but when you see it, you know it. According to Fiedler (1967), leadership is an interpersonal relationship in which power and influence is unevenly distributed and one person directs and controls the behaviors of others. Northouse (2009) takes leadership as a power relationship which exists between the leader and the followers. Though numerous definitions of leadership exist, yet most of the definitions share the similarity that leadership is an effort to influence, the power to make subordinates submissive (Wren, 1995) and/or to transform the organization (Conger & Kanungo, 1987; House, 1976). According to Humphreys (2001), leadership is the most studied and least understood area in the social sciences. However, most of the definitions are related to the trait, ability, skill, behavior and relationship (Northouse, 2007) that shows that the leadership field of study rushed from one fad to another (Yukl, 2010). According to Yukl (1989), the major lines of empirical research on leadership include leadership versus management, traits and skills, power and influence, situational determinants of leader behavior, and the importance of leadership for organizational effectiveness. In addition, leadership and gender, culture and leadership and congruence in leadership styles are also significant areas of research. On the basis of empirical researches, different leadership theories were developed to address different organizational problems, and to predict proposed situations in response to different behaviors (Bass & Avolio, 1993; Hoy & Miskel, 2008).

The main contributions to the early era of leadership studies were classical management theory and scientific management theories. The classical theory focused on the design of total organization whereas the scientific management theory focused on the systematic management of the individual's tasks to achieve organizational goals. Maslow (1970), Herzberg and McGregor (1960) focused on work situation, its effects on leaders and followers, individual needs, and increase in productivity and came up with different theories i.e. hierarchy of needs, the dual factor theory and motivation-hygiene theory and theory X and Y. The following discussion is based on (a) partial models that focus on the individual as a leader, (b) partial models that focus on the process of leadership and (c) comprehensive models which encompass both the individual and the process.

Trait theory

The trait theory of leadership, known as "Great Man theory', was one of the first systematic efforts to study the concept of leadership in the early 20th century (Northouse, 2004, 2007). The notion of great men theory states that, there are some rare individuals who have the ability to revolutionize the history or bring a real change in the society. Trait theories of leadership emerged during 1920s and 1930s. According to the notion of trait theory, the traits instilled in the leaders makes them different from non-leaders. Allen (1998) highlighted that trait theories were the earliest form of leadership theories after the Great Man theory was proposed. Trait theories assume that leadership qualities of individuals are inherited and are a part of their personality (Allen, 1998). These qualities may be social or political in nature. According to Northouse (2007), some leaders from history like Mohandas Gandhi, Abraham Lincoln, Napoleon, and Hitler were studied and it was noticed that such leaders were effective due to some unique and innate leadership qualities. Therefore, different studies were carried out to find out those attributes and personal characteristics that distinguished them from others.

Stogdill (1974) conducted different studies between 1920 and 1975 and came up with the findings of some traits of effective leadership. In 1949, he proposed intelligence, alertness, insight, responsibility, initiative, persistence, self-confidence, and sociability as the unique traits of effective leadership. In1974, he identified the responsibility and task completion and added in the earlier list of leaders' traits. In addition, he emphasized on the importance of situational factors for the success of any leader.

Mann (1959) studied leadership traits in small settings and came up with more than five hundred different measures of personality. He combined the most common measures in seven main characteristics that included intelligence, adjustment, extroversion-introversion, dominance, masculinity-femininity, conservatism, and interpersonal sensitivity. When he compared these characteristics in relation to leadership, he found a highly significant relationship between leadership and intelligence, adjustment, extroversion measures and most of the times, a positive relationship with dominance, masculinity, and interpersonal sensitivity. Further, he acknowledged the importance of situational elements too. However, Mann (1959) and Stogdill (1974) agreed that traits for effective leadership vary from situation to situation and sometime acts in combination.

Fiedler (1967) also agreed that effective leaders cannot be predicted on the basis of only traits for every situation. However, Lord, De Vader and Alliger (1986) considered that conclusions of Stogdill and Mann were based on flawed studies in a variety of ways and therefore created wrong conclusions. He is of the view that their results were overgeneralized and negatively interpreted. Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991) talked about six characteristics of effective leadership: motivation, honesty, integrity, self-confidence, cognitive ability, and knowledge of the business. Kouzes and Posner (2003) came up with four key leadership traits: honesty, forward-looking, inspiring, and competency. Although trait theories of leadership emphasized more on the traits of the leaders, but never clarified as if these traits are inherited in the leaders or can be learned with time through adequate education or training (Allen, 1998). At the same time, Pierce and Newstrom (2006) indicated that, many researchers came up with individual traits of effective leadership, yet no one was able to predict the leadership success and failed to identify precise traits that predict leadership success. Horner (1997) further highlighted that trait theories ignored the environmental and situational factors which tend to affect the effectiveness of the leader in a particular situation.

Behavioral theories of leadership

The trait theories concentrate on leaders' certain personality characteristics whereas the behavioral theories focus on the

behaviors of the leaders. For instance, what leaders do and how leaders act (Northouse, 2004). Behavioral theories of leadership emphasized more on studying the determinants of behavior of a leader and concluded that using these determinants, leadership style can be learned.

According to Northouse (2007), the behavioral theories include two types of behaviors: task behaviors and relationship behaviors. The task behaviors are related to the task accomplishment whereas the relationship behaviors motivate the followers to carry on their efforts. The underlying assumption of behavioral theories of leadership is that, it is possible to learn leadership behavior and styles through training (Allen, 1998). In this regard, Ohio and Michigan studies are considered significant contributions in the development of behavioral theories.

The first contribution was from Ohio State University researchers (i.e. Stogdill, Coons, Halpin & Winer, Fleishman) who came up with some influential theories of leadership that remained popular during 1950s and 1960s (Gill, 2006). They worked on leadership behaviors in military (Stogdill & Coons, 1957) and found that leadership styles are practiced in different ways. Most of the time, they influenced their followers by initiating structure and consideration. In initiating structure, the leaders organize work, define the tasks and schedule the work activities for their followers. In consideration, they develop an atmosphere of respect and trust with the followers. The effective leaders use both initiating structure and consideration at the same time at different degrees (Stogdill & Coons, 1957).

The second major contribution in development of behavioral theories is from the University of Michigan studies (researchers include Katz & Kahn). They identified 'concern for task' (product oriented) and 'concern for people' (employee oriented) behaviors as common leadership behaviors (Blake & Mouton, 1994; Likert, 1967; Gill, 2006). This model of leadership behaviors was called the managerial grid (Blake & Mouton, 1994) and then renamed as leadership grid. The production-oriented behavior focuses on the technical aspects of task accomplishment. The employee-oriented behavior focuses on followers to take them as human beings, to value their individuality, and to pay particular attention to their needs. Likert (1967) classified leadership styles into four categories: exploitative autocratic, benevolent autocratic, consultative and democratic. Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973) classified the leadership styles in similar ways: autocratic, persuasive, consultative and democratic (Gill, 2006).

Furthering the behavioral theories of leadership, university of Iowa studies focused on identification of the most appropriate leadership style which bring maximum outcomes. These studies reflected some leadership styles which included autocratic, democratic and Laissez fair styles. However, Allen (1998) highlighted that, the research findings of Iowa did not clarify which leadership style was most effective.

Contingency theories of leadership

The contingency theories of leadership studied the behavior of leaders in the era of 60 s to 70 s. The contingency theories of leadership focused on studying the behavior of leader which varies from one situation to another. Leader needs to define one particular behavior or leadership style which could fit in varying situations. Therefore, contingency theories propose that there is no best leadership style in every situation. Effective and successful leaders use different leadership styles based on the situation and followers. According to Goldsmith (2003), effective leadership is the best fit between the behavior, context and the need. In order to fully understand the effectiveness and the performance of leaders, it is necessary to understand the situation in which they lead. In contingency theories, the relationship between two variables is measured. These two variables may be the leadership styles or some situational variables. Where the situational variables might include relationship quality between leader and subordinates, structure of task, availability of information, maturity level of subordinate, unclear tasks or roles of the subordinates and the degree to which subordinates are willing to accept the decisions of the leader (Howell, Dorfman & Kerr, 1986).

Fiedler's contingency theory

Fred Fiedler is considered the pioneer of contingency theories. His contingency theory suggests that the effectiveness of leadership styles depends upon the suitability of the situation in terms of three parameters. Fiedler (1967) developed the Least Preferred Coworker scale to determine the effectiveness of leadership styles. This scale suggests that the situation is highly favorable and fit when the job is clearly defined, the leader has authority/power, and a healthy relationship exists between leader and followers (Fiedler, 1967; Gill, 2006). According to Fiedler (2006), the style of leadership is fixed and it is challenging to change the leadership style one adopts. Once the style of leadership is determined using Least Preferred Coworker questionnaire, the next step is identification of the situational variables which, according to Fiedler (2006) include task structure, position of power held by the leader and relationship between leader and members.

Path-goal theory

Path-goal leadership theory is based on Fiedler's contingency theory and adds employee motivation as a choice in leadership styles. However, it is not appropriate in those situations where goals are not consistent. It can be called an 'expectancy model' of work motivation (Evans, 1970; House & Mitchel, 1974; Gill, 2006).

Path-goal leadership theory was developed by the House (1971) and later improved by House and Mitchell (1974). This theory states that the main role of leader is to help subordinates to solve their problems to achieve goals. Effective leaders always motivate their followers to understand their tasks and reach goals. However, different subordinates are motivated through different factors according to their needs and preferences like need affiliation, preference for structure, desire for control, or self-efficacy. On the other

hand, if the tasks are ambiguous and unstructured, the followers will be less satisfied and less motivated (House and Mitchell, 1974). House (1971) proclaimed that leadership style and behavior of leader is flexible which allows him to adapt his leadership style according to situation.

Leader-member exchange theory

Leader-member exchange (LMX) theory explains the effectiveness of leaders as the result of psychodynamic exchange between leaders and followers (Gill, 2006). It focuses on the characteristics of the leaders, followers and the relationship between leaders and followers. The LMX theories emphasize that the relationship between every pair of leader and follower varies with the other pair and different followers may have a different description or relationship with the same leader (Gill, 2006; Graen, Cashman, Ginsburg & Schiemann, 1977). The underlying idea behind the psychodynamic theory is that the nature of the relationship between leaders and followers is based on the self and others' perceptions or understanding (Gill, 2006). Thus, the LMX theory provides a baseline for the studies which aims to find out the congruence among self and others' perceptions about leadership styles and performance.

According to leader-member exchange (LMX) theory, leadership is a process that motivates followers or subordinates to exert extra efforts (Dunnette, Hough, & Triandis, 1990). Moreover, the relationship between leaders and followers has a significant relation with followers' degree of job satisfaction, job performance, and organizational commitment (Martin, Thomas, Charles, Epitropaki & McNamara, 2005). Further, the level of interaction between leaders and followers also matters (Kaplan & Norton, 2001). According to Krishnan (2004), when the quality of exchange between leader and follower increases, progress also begins to increase. However, it depends on the degree of exchange, the nature of exchange and the nature of tasks as well.

Transformational and transactional leadership

Downton (1973) is believed to be the first person who used the terms transformational and transactional leadership and Burns (1978) was the first person who distinguished leadership styles based on followers' motivation as either transformational or transactional. He defined transformational leadership as a process of motivating followers by focusing on their values to impact on their performance and envisioning a clear future for them. On the other hand, transactional leadership is a process of social exchange to have an impact on the performance of employees towards established goals. However, he viewed transformational and transactional leadership as mutually exclusive.

Based on his work, Bass (1985) reviewed and extended the concept and proposed transformational leadership theory. According to Bass, transformational leadership is exclusively about the leaders and their behaviors. He focused on the followers and came up with a conclusion that transformational and transactional leadership styles are not mutually exclusive but interdependent or interrelated (Northouse, 2004). Transformational theory suggests that most of the leaders have the characteristics of both the transformational and transactional leadership styles and the former augments the later. The effective leaders use both leadership styles at various situations based on the task and the followers.

According to Burns (1978), the transactional leaders focus on the followers' self-interest through exchanging different things to motivate them. These exchanges may be of different natures like salary or bonus in exchange for some task accomplishment. In short, a transactional leader controls his followers through different types of rewards/penalties. Moreover, the transactional leaders work within systems, try to avoid risks and try to achieve the goals on already set parameters (Bass, 1985). In most of the situations, transactional leadership is preferred when the objectives are the short term. It does not support well in terms of long term objectives, especially when organizations go through some big changes. Contrary, the transformational leadership focuses on long term strategies and transformational leaders motivate their followers by convincing them that organizational goals are much important than their personal goals or organizational goals are actually in their own benefits. In this situation, transformational leadership fits to motivate the followers to exert more efforts than they are actually required. Further, they facilitate development and change.

In this technological and competitive era, organizations prefer transformational leaders to motivate and help their workforce to achieve higher goals. They make them aware and able to accomplish beyond their expectations and perceived capabilities (Palestini, 2009). The improvement in followers' performance is the main emphasis of transformational leadership theory (Avolio, 2011).

The full range leadership (FRL) model

In order to better understand the process of leadership effectiveness, Bass and Avolio (1994) developed a leadership model called the Full Range Leadership (FRL) model. This model proposes that leaders use multiple behaviors to influence their followers. This model is based on the theory of transformational and transactional leadership and incorporates both transformational and transactional leadership behaviors. The Full Range Leadership model includes three leadership styles: transformational, transactional and passive/avoidant leadership. There are nine variables in the model which are represented by these three styles. The transformational leadership style is to inspire and motivate followers through compelling vision, individual support, and, empowerment. It includes five behaviors: idealized influence (attributed), idealized influence (behavioral), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration. The transactional leadership style is to exchange rewards or punishment for any positive work performance or lack of satisfactory performance with followers. Transactional leadership is associated with three behaviors: contingent reward and management-by-exception (active) and management-by-exception (passive). Laissez-faire means the absence of leadership (Northouse, 2004). It can be defined as the most inactive and the most ineffective leadership (Avolio, 2011). It becomes evident when the leaders avoid responsibility and do not care about what happening around them. They delay different decisions, and do not

make any effort to motivate and satisfy their followers' needs. According to Bass (1990), laissez-faire leadership is negatively correlated with followers' efforts, attitude, and performance.

Section 2. Leadership outcomes

Organizational leadership has been the focus of researchers and practitioners for many decades. The review of literature shows that most of the researches are conducted on the relationship between leadership styles and employee or organizational outcomes and examining leadership styles in different organizational, national or cross-national settings. However, most of the researches on organizational leadership, if not all, are conducted in the United States, Canada and Western Europe in the last half century (Ardichvili & Kuchinke, 2002; Grint, 2005). In addition, most of the studies in the last two decades are based on transformational and transactional leadership styles.

The literature on leadership and its outcomes can be studied from different perspectives. The performance outcome means how the leader has performed his/her job assigned. The aspects that are studied from subordinate perspectives are the relationship between leadership styles and employees' job satisfaction, motivation, job performance, employee well-being, job commitment, and their turnover behaviors. From organizational perspective, leadership has been studied from different aspects like organizational performance, organizational commitment, turnover, employee satisfaction, exert to extra effort and organizational culture. Based on a wide range of outcomes, Hiller, DeChurch, Murase, and Doty (2011) have summarized all the leadership outcomes in four domains based on the nature and measurement criteria: effectiveness, attitude, behavior and cognition. The effectiveness domain is about the tangible outcomes of leaders and leadership i.e. effectiveness and performance in the shape of profitability, bankruptcy and objective performance. The attitude domain is about changing the way employees feel. It includes motivation, satisfaction, commitment, self-esteem and emotion. The behavioral domain of leadership is about actual or observable behaviors/processes of an individual or group. It consists of turnover behavior and intentions, helping behavior and communication process. The fourth domain of leadership outcomes is cognition. Though the attitude domain includes the cognition aspect, yet the separate domain is to distinguish the non-attitudinal and non-emotional effects (Hiller, DeChurch, Murase, & Doty, 2011). It includes perceived organizational structure, perceived organizational support, climate and self-schema. The literature is replete with studies on organizational leadership outcomes. However, a few leadership outcomes which are recurrent throughout literature are briefly discussed.

Job satisfaction

Job satisfaction means the individual's perception of his/her own work in terms of job tasks, the relationship with supervisor/colleagues, future opportunity, work environment, and compensation. The acceptance of these factors causes job satisfaction and the unfavorable situation causes dissatisfaction with the job. Though these factors are not directly related to job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. These factors include recognition, achievement, autonomy and responsibility that lead to job satisfaction. Numerous studies were conducted on the significance of job satisfaction. Job satisfaction plays a key role in the organization's quality, growth and performance. On the other side, job dissatisfaction can lead an organization to many issues like employee turnover, low growth rate, poor performance and ultimately failure of the company. Numerous studies (Kuchinke, 1998; Chiok, 2001; Walumbwa, Orwa, Wang & Lawler, 2005; Elloy 2005; Abass & Yaqoob, 2009; Braun, Peus, Weisweiler & Frey, 2013) are done to examine the relationship between leadership styles and employee job satisfaction in the organizations. The findings of these studies show that leadership of any organization has a positive and significant impact on employees' job satisfaction and is one of the key contributors to their performance. Therefore, the supervisors should adopt such leadership behaviors that increase the perception of job satisfaction in the employees.

Motivation

Motivation is another significant outcome of leadership. There is an old saying that 'you can take a horse to the water but you cannot force it to drink, it will drink only if it's thirsty' and same is the case of the workforce in the organization. They will perform as they want to perform or motivated to perform. Employee motivation is considered the principal factor for any organization to perform well especially in the transition phases. To better cope such challenges, the need for such leadership increases that understand and improve the employees' motivation. The employees' motivation is considered a key function of any leadership position. In order to survive and succeed in the global world, a leader must know how to motivate the employees. Motivation means to use or develop such a force in a person that causes the person to behave in directed way. Literature on leadership is replete with studies on motivation. The researches (McNeese-Smith, 1999; Charbonneau, Barling & Kelloway, 2001; Clark, Hartline, & Jones, 2009; Basford, Offermann & Wirtz, 2012) show that leadership and motivation has a significant relationship that leads to improve the individual and organizational performance. However, different leadership styles have different impact on the employees' motivation (Mehta, Dubinsky & Anderson cited in Chipunza, Samuel & Mariri, 2011) and different strategies can be used to motivate employees. For instance, empowering employees, involving employees in the decision making process, job rotation, changing communication patterns, and presenting as a role model to the employees are those strategies that leaders adopt following transformational leadership styles. In transactional leadership approach, contingent rewards and management by exception techniques are used. Thus, there are different strategies that leaders can adopt to increase or maintain motivation in their subordinates.

Organizational commitment

Organizational commitment is considered as an attitude or individual's mindset about his/her particular organization. Gbadamosi (2003) states that the employee more committed to the organization will be more dedicated to achieve organizational goals. Moreover, the employees who are committed to their organization will be willing to exert extra effort for organizational growth and productivity. Organizational commitment is the employee's psychological attachment to the organization. It is defined in multiple ways and different models of organizational commitment are developed i.e. Meyer and Allen's (1991) three-component model of commitment. The three components are affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment. Affective commitment means the psychological or emotional connection with the organization. The employees who have affective commitment with their organization, they are dedicated and usually remain with the organization. Continuance commitment is considered the awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization (Meyer & Allen 1991). The employees with continuance commitment work for a particular organization because of the benefits they earn. They do not have any emotional affiliation with the organization and leave that organization if they have better opportunity. Normative commitment is the sense of responsibility to work for the specific organization (Meyer & Allen 1991). The normative committed employees take it morally appropriate to work for a particular organization irrespective of compensation, benefits or promotion. The literature shows that organizational commitment predicts organizational citizenship behavior, turnover, and job performance. In addition, job stress, empowerment, job insecurity, and leadership also affect the organizational commitment. It is commonly accepted that effective leaders have committed followers and commitment is considered a potential outcome of effective leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2005; Conger & Kanungo, 1987). Commitment is a multiple dimensional construct, but from the leadership perspective, it is usually studied from the organizational commitment point of view. For instance, Hawkins and Dulewicz (2009) state that leadership is pivotal to encourage organizational commitment to achieve organizational goals and the implementation of strategic decision. Though different leadership styles might have different implications for organizational commitment, but most of the literature on organizational commitment is from transformational and transactional leadership styles. It is evident from that literature that transformational and transactional leadership styles are positively and significantly correlated with organizational commitment (Robert, 2000; Chiok, 2001; Hawkins & Dulewicz, 2009; Lo, Ramayah, Min & Songan, 2010).

Psychological well-being

Well-being means the relaxed state of being. Psychological well-being is considered an important indicator of individual mental health (Keyes, 2002). There are three main aspects of psychological being: self-regard, relationships with others, and capability to face and overcome difficulties in the environment (Warr, 2005). The researches show that different factors like experiences at work (Danna & Griffin, 1999), leadership behaviors (Gilbreath & Benson, 2004; van Dierendonck, Haynes, Borrill, & Stride, 2004; Sparr & Sonnentag, 2008) and organizational politics (Chang, Rosen & Levy 2009) affect psychological well-being. However, the relationship between leadership and employees' well-being is widely studied and a debated topic in organizational behavior (Barling, Christie, & Hoption, 2010; Kelloway, Weigand, McKee & Das, 2013). That's' why; Luthans, Youssef, Sweetman, and Harms (2013) consider employees' well-being as a challenge for leadership. Transformational leadership style is widely studied leadership style in relation to employees' well-being. The literature (Tafvelin, Armelius & Westerberg, 2011; Kelloway, Turner, Barling & Loughlin, 2012) shows that transformational leadership has a positive and significant impact on employees' well-being.

Turnover

Employee turnover is one of the most critical problems organizations face (O'Connel & Chuang-Kung, 2007). In recent years, the turnover rate in many organizations is increased due to globalization, advancement in technology and crunch in the economy. According to Bodla and Hameed (2009), there are two different schools of thoughts about employee turnover: psychological school and the labor market school. The psychological school focuses on the psychological aspects i.e. job satisfaction, job stress, organizational environment, organizational commitment and psychological well-being. The labor market school emphasizes on the supply and demand, job opportunities and job search aspects. There are some factors of turnover intentions that controllable and some are uncontrollable by organizations. For instance, satisfaction with compensation, satisfaction with work environment, satisfaction with leadership behaviors, organizational commitment, and job stress are considered controllable factors of employees' turnover intentions. The uncontrollable factors include the job hoping and perceived alternative employment. However, leadership behavior is considered a potential reason of employees' turnover intentions. According to Aggarwal, Tanner and Castleberry (2004) and Gul, Ahmad, Rehman, Shabir, and Razzaq (2012), leadership style is the main reason and has direct impact on employees' turnover intentions and the relationship between leadership styles and employees' turnover intentions is significant. On the other hand, most of the studies (Mascall & Leithwood, 2010; Furtado, Batista & Silva, 2011; Wells & Peachey, 2011) suggest that leadership style has a mediating effect on employees' turnover intentions. The main factors might include job dissatisfaction, job stress, compensation or organizational commitment. However, it is evident from the literature that employees' turnover intentions can be controlled by adopting appropriate leadership styles.

Section 3. Role of national culture

The concept of 'culture' is defined variously throughout literature (Kroeber & Kluckhohn, 1952; McSweeney, 2002). Sometimes, it

is considered exclusively observable or recordable (McSweeney, 2002) and sometimes as subjective or implicit (Hofstede, 1980a). Hofstede (1977, 2001) defined culture as 'the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another'. In this definition, he includes different aspects of life, i.e. thinking, feeling, religion, behaviors, attitudes, language, skills and values. Culture is an elusive source that binds the people of society and transforms their behaviors. It is the sense of the inner values and attitudes that guide a population (Bhagat & Steers, 2009).

National culture is not merely a culture of a particular type but territorially unique. It is not only the culture or a combination of cultures within a nation, but it is the culture that distinguishes the people of one nation from another nation, even if they are different on different grounds (Hofstede, 1980a, 1983). Geert Hofstede's concept of national culture (1980, 2001) revolutionized organizational studies through understanding the relationship between organizational behavior and cultural factors. He proposed four dimensions of national culture that help to distinguish it from other: power distance, individualism, masculinity vs. femininity and uncertainty avoidance. Power Distance is the most important dimension of national culture that influences leadership and organizational subcultures. High power distance leads to a very autocratic type of leadership, whereas a low power distance leads to a more democratic approach.

According to Hofstede (1991) and Scott and Meyer (1994), national culture comprises of shared beliefs about organizational models. Therefore, a 'fit' between cultural values and organizational arrangements should be consistent and congruent. Muczyk and Holt (2008) state that leadership styles and approaches should be effectively aligned with the national culture because it affects the organizational culture and performance (Willmott, 2000). In other words, national culture influences leadership styles, decisionmaking (Li, Lam & Qian, 2001) and other HR practices. Hofstede (1980b) further emphasized the need to better align organizational leadership and national culture because managerial attitudes, values, behaviors, and efficacy differ across national cultures. The influence and effectiveness of leaders varies considerably based on the cultural forces in which leaders perform. According to Newman and Nollen (1996) 'national culture is a central organizing principle of employees' understanding of work, their approach to it, and the way in which they expect to be treated'. Based on the available literature on national culture and leadership, the culture may influence the leadership behaviors and practices through the following ways. First, culture develops the image of the effective leader or leadership (House, 1998). Second, culture affects the personality traits and work values of leaders and followers (Berry, 1992). Third, culture determines the leadership behaviors/practices and cultural values and norms influence leaders' attitudes and behaviors consciously or unconsciously (Yukl, 2002). Fourth, culture affects followers' perception and acceptance of leaders' behaviors and practices. Followers across nations differ in their perceptions and preferences for effective communication patterns, task orientation, and leadership styles (House, 2004). Fifth, culture affects the significance of leadership outcomes. For example, Sinha (1984) examined that in India job satisfaction is given much importance than productivity. Sixth, culture influences and determines the leader and follower relationship. For example, in some countries, the relationship between supervisor and subordinate is like the relationship between a father and son whereas some countries have a huge difference. Seventh, culture defines the effective leadership behaviors and practices. The effective leadership behaviors and leadership development is culture specific and can only be better understood if someone knows the culture. However, some leadership behaviors like 'supportive leadership' and transformational leadership produce similar effects across cultures (Dorfman, 2004). Though these leadership styles might not be considered as effective in some cultures, yet would create similar effects.

The cultural competency is now considered as an important leadership competency. The leadership development programs in most of the organizations give significant importance to national cultural values. It is considered a key to effective leadership that ultimately leads to improve organizational performance. The importance of cultural competency turns multifold in case of executive leadership. The United States Office of Personnel Management has a managing diversity component (which now includes cultural diversity) as an important and required competency for Senior Executive Service (SES) leadership (Borrego & Johnson, 2012). Therefore, cultural congruence (Bass & Bass, 2008) is necessary for effective leadership. There must be alignment between the leaders' behavior and cultural values.

Section 4. Critical evaluation and proposed research agenda

Organizational leadership has a wealth of literature, but most of the literature consists of leadership in North America or Western Europe (Ardichvili & Kuchinke, 2002; Grint, 2005). There is need to study leadership in other parts of the world, i.e. south Asia in general and Pakistan in particular. Leadership development from national culture perspectives can be a new avenue for the researchers particularly in South Asian perspective.

Leadership has been a focus of research interest in western society from leader's and followers' perspective for many years. Extant research studies in the Asian context have been conducted on determining the outcomes of leadership styles in various sectors from follower perspective (Haque et al., 2015; Asrar-ul-Haq & Kuchinke, 2016; Zulfqar, Valcke, Devos, Tuytens & Shahzad, 2016; Riaz et al., 2017). However, there is dearth of research on examining leadership from a multi perspective including perceiving leadership from the viewpoint of leaders, peers, fellow leaders etc. particularly in Asian context, where culture has been identified as the determinant of leadership style (Jalal, 1995; Khilji, 2001; Islam, 2004). Considering this research gap, current research study aims to propose a research agenda on examining how leadership is perceived from the view point of leaser, peers and fellow leaders in an Asian perspective.

The review of the literature indicates the need for further studies on examining leadership styles and its relationship with different outcomes from more than one perspective (congruence). It is also evident that national culture may have strong impact on leadership perceptions, leadership styles, practices, and preferences which need to be studied. As Bhagat and steers (2009) state that leadership is not the same across cultures and the perceptions of effective leadership style is different in South Asia from other parts of the world

(Northouse, 2009b).

To better understand the self-other agreement, Yammarino and Atwater (1997) developed a conceptual model called the self-perception accuracy model. They argue that individual as well as organizational performance can be improved through the agreement among self and others' perceptions at different levels. It is because the self-perception usually lacks accuracy due to overestimation or under-estimation. Moreover, different other factors like experiences, personality traits, contextual factors, and cognitive processes also affect self-perceptions that lead to inaccurate self-ratings. On the other hand, the ratings on the basis of only others' perceptions cannot be ensured as accurate. The literature shows that there are many factors that influence the accuracy of others' ratings. According to Smith and Fortunato (2008), the personality traits of the raters have a significant impact on the quality of ratings. Employees who have lack of trust on their supervisors and the employees who have a very close relationship with the management could not provide honest ratings. In addition, if people provide information face to face, the individuals show a soft corner during the ratings. There are many factors that impact the accuracy of others' ratings like the raters' personality, values, beliefs, motivation, and interaction with the ratee. Therefore, the leadership style and its related outcomes should be examined through self and other agreement in different sectors.

References

Aggarwal, P., Tanner Jr, J., & Castleberry, S. (2004). Factors affecting propensity to leave: A study of sales people. *Marketing Management Journal*, 14(1), 90–102. Allen, D. W. (1998). How nurses become leaders: Perceptions and beliefs about leadership development. *Journal of Nursing Administration*, 28(9), 15–20.

Antonakis, J., Cianciolo, A. T., & Sternberg, R. J. (2004). The nature of leadership. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Ardichvili, A., & Kuchinke, K. P. (2002). Leadership styles and cultural values among managers and subordinates: A comparative study of four countries of the former Soviet Union, Germany, and the US. *Human Resource Development International*, 5(1), 99–117.

Asrar-ul-Haq, M., & Kuchinke, K. P. (2016). Impact of leadership styles on employees' attitude towards their leader and performance: Empirical evidence from Pakistani banks. Future Business Journal, 2(1), 54–64.

Avolio, B. J. (2011). Full range leadership development. Thousand Oaks, Calif: Sage.

Barling, J., Christie, A., & Hoption, C. (2010). Leadership.In S. Zedeck (Ed.). In S. Zedeck (Ed.). Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology(pp. 183–240). Washington, DC: APA Books.

Basford, T. E., Offermann, L. R., & Wirtz, P. W. (2012). Considering the source: the impact of leadership level on follower motivation and intent to stay. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, 19(2), 202–214.

Bass, B. M. (1985). Leadership and Performance Beyond Expectations. New York: Free Press.

Bass, B. M. (1990). From transactional to transformational leadership: learning to share the vision. Organizational Dynamics, 18(3), 19-31.

Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1993). Transformational leadership and organizational culture. Public Administration Quarterly, 17(1), 112.

Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1994). Improving organizational effectiveness through transformational leadership. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.

Bass, B. M., & Bass, R. (2008). The Bass handbook of leadership: Theory, research, and application. New York: Free Press.

Bass, B. M., & Stogdill, R. M. (1990). Bass & Stogdill's handbook of leadership: Theory, research, and managerial applications. New York: Free Press. Bennis, W. G., & Nanus, B. (1985). Leaders: The strategies for taking charge. New York: Harper & Row.

Berry, J. W. (1992). Cross-cultural psychology: Research and applications. Cambridge England: Cambridge University Press.

Bhagat, R. S., & Steers, R. M. (2009). Cambridge handbook of culture, organizations, and work. Cambridge university Press.

Blake, R. R., & Mouton, J. S. (1994). The managerial grid. Houston: Gulf Pub.

Bodla, M. A., & Hameed, A. (2009). Factors affecting employee turnover intentions: Empirical evidence from textile sector of Pakistan. *International Journal of Knowledge, Culture and Change Management*, 9(8), 55–66.

Borrego, E., & Johnson, R. G. (2012). Cultural competence for public managers: Managing diversity in today's world Boca Raton. FL: CRC Press: Taylor and Francis Group. Braun, S., Peus, C., Weisweiler, S., & Frey, D. (2013). Transformational leadership, job satisfaction, and team performance: A multilevel mediation model of trust. The Leadership Quarterly, 24(1), 270–283.

Burns, J. M. G. (1978). *Leadership*. New York: Harper & Row.

Chang, C. H., Rosen, C. C., & Levy, P. E. (2009). The relationship between perceptions of organizational politics and employee attitudes, strain, and behavior: A meta-analytic examination. Academy of Management Journal, 52(4), 779–801.

Charbonneau, D., Barling, J., & Kelloway, E. K. (2001). Transformational leadership and sports performance: the mediating role of intrinsic motivation. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 31(7), 1521.

Chiok, F. L. J. (2001). Leadership behaviours: Effects on job satisfaction, productivity and organizational commitment. *Journal of Nursing Management*, *9*(4), 191–204. Chipunza, C., Samuel, M. O., & Mariri, T. (2011). Leadership style, employee motivation and commitment: Empirical evidence from a consolidated retail bank operating in a depressed economy. *African Journal of Business Management*, *5*(20), 8337–8346.

Clark, R., Hartline, M., & Jones, K. (2009). The effects of leadership style on hotel employees' commitment to service quality. Cornell Hospitality Quarterly, 50(2), 209–231.

Clawson, J. G. (2003). Level three leadership: Getting below the surface. Upper Saddle River, N.J: Prentice Hall.

Conger, J. A., & Kanungo, R. N. (1987). Toward a behavioral theory of charismatic leadership in organizational settings. Academy of Management Review, 12(4), 637–647

Conger, J. A., & Riggio, R. E. (2007). The Practice of leadership: Developing the next generation of leaders. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Danna, K., & Griffin, R. W. (1999). Health and well-being in the workplace: A review and synthesis on the literature. Journal of Management, 25(3), 357–384.

Downton, J. V. (1973). Rebel leadership: Commitment and charisma in the revolutionary process. New York: Free Press.

Dunnette, M. D., Hough, L. M., & Triandis, H. C. (1990). *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology*. Palo Alto, Calif. Consulting Psychologists Press. Elloy, D. F. (2005). The influence of superleader behaviors on organization commitment, job satisfaction and organization self-esteem in a self-managed work team. *Leadership Organization Development Journal*, 26(2), 120–127.

Evans, M. G. (1970). The effects of supervisory behavior on the path-goal relationship. Organizational Behavior Human Performance, 5(3), 277-298.

Fiedler, F. E. (1967). A theory of leadership effectiveness. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Fiedler, F. E. (2006). The contingency model: A theory of leadership effectiveness. Small groups: Key readings, 12(4), 369–382.

Furtado, L. C., Batista, M. G., & Silva, F. J. (2011). Leadership's impact in turnover and career abandonment intention: The Azorean Hospital Nurses Case. Hospital Topics, 89, 3.

Gbadamosi, G. (2003). HRM and the commitment rhetoric: Challenges for Africa. Management Decision, 41(3), 274-280.

Gilbreath, B., & Benson, P. G. (2004). The contribution of supervisor behaviour to employee psychological well-being. Work & Stress, 18(3), 255–266.

Gill, R. (2006). Theory and practice of leadership. London: SAGE Publications.

Goethals, G. R., Sorenson, G. J., & Burns, J. M. (Eds.). (2004). Encyclopedia of leadership. Sage Publications.

Goldsmith, M. (2003). The many facets of leadership. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Financial Times/Prentice Hall.

Graen, G., Cashman, J. F., Ginsburg, S., & Schiemann, W. (1977). Effects of linking-pin quality on the quality of working life of lower participants. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 22(3), 491–504.

Grint, K. (2005). Leadership: Limits and Possibilities. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Gul, S., Ahmad, B., Rehman, S. U., Shabir, N., & Razzaq, N. (2012). Leadership styles, turnover intentions and the mediating role of organizational commitment. Information and Knowledge Management, 2, 7.

Haque, A. U., Faizan, R., Zehra, N., Baloch, A., Nadda, V., & Riaz, F. (2015). Leading leadership style to motivate cultural-oriented female employees in IT sector of developing country: IT sectors' responses from Pakistan. International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences, 5(9), 280–302.

Hawkins, J., & Dulewicz, V. (2009). Relationships between leadership style, the degree of change experienced, performance and follower commitment in policing. Journal of Change Management, 9(3), 251–270.

Hiller, N., DeChurch, L., Murase, T., & Doty, D. (2011). Searching for outcomes of leadership: A 25-Year review. Journal of Management, 37(4), 1137-1177.

Hofstede, G. (1983). The cultural relativity of organizational practices and theories. Journal of International Business Studies, 14(2), 75-89.

Hofstede, G. (2001). Culture's Consequences: Comparing Values, Behaviors, Institutions, and Organizations Across Nations. Thousand Oaks: SAGE Publications.

Hofstede, G. H. (1980b). Culture's Consequences: International Differences in Work-related Values. Beverly Hills, Calif: Sage Publications.

Hofstede, G. H. (1991). Cultures and Organizations: Software of the Mind. London: McGraw-Hill.

Horner, M. (1997). Leadership theory: Past, present and future. Team Performance Management: An International Journal, 3(4), 270-287.

House, R. J. (1971). A path goal theory of leader effectiveness. Administrative Science Quarterly, 16(3), 321-339.

House, R. J. (1976). A 1976 Theory of Charismatic Leadership. Toronto: University of Toronto, Faculty of Management Studies.

House, R. J. (2004). Culture, Leadership, and Organizations: The GLOBE Study of 62 Societies. Thousand Oaks, Calif: Sage Publications.

House, R. J., & Mitchell, T. R. (1974). Path-goal theory of leadership. Journal of Contemporary Business, 3(4), 81-98.

Howell, J. P., Dorfman, P. W., & Kerr, S. (1986). Moderator variables in leadership research. Academy of management review, 11(1), 88-102.

Hoy, W. K., & Miskel, C. G. (2008). Educational Administration: Theory, Research, and Practice. Boston: McGraw-Hill.

Humphreys, J. H. (2001). Transformational and transactional leader behavior. Journal of Management Research (09725814), 1(3), 149.

Islam, N. (2004). Sifarish, sycophants, power and collectivism: Administrative culture in Pakistan. International Review of Administrative Sciences, 70(2), 311-330.

Jalal, A. (1995).). Democracy and authoritarianism in South Asia: A comparative and historical perspective, 1. Cambridge University Press.

Kaplan, R. S., & Norton, D. P. (2001). The strategy-focused organization. Journal of Strategy Leadership, 29(3), 41.

Kelloway, E. K., Turner, N., Barling, J., & Loughlin, C. (2012). Transformational leadership and employee psychological well-being: The mediating role of employee trust in leadership. Work Stress, 26(1), 39–55.

Kelloway, E. K., Weigand, H., McKee, M. C., & Das, H. (2013). Positive leadership and employee well-being. *Journal of Leadership Organizational Studies*, 20(1), 107–117.

Keyes, C. L. (2002). The mental health continuum: From languishing to flourishing in life. Journal of health and social behavior, 207-222.

Khilji, S. E. (2003). To adapt or not to adapt' exploring the role of national culture in HRM-A study of Pakistan. *International Journal of Cross Cultural Management*, 3(1), 109–132.

Kirkpatrick, S. A., & Locke, E. A. (1991). Leadership: do traits matter? Academy of Management Executive5, 2, 48-60.

Kouzes, J. M., & Posner, B. Z. (2003). Credibility: How Leaders Gain and Lose It, Why People Demand it. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Krishnan, V. R. (2004). Impact of transformational leadership on followers influence strategies. Leadership Organization Development Journal, 25(1), 58-72.

Kroeber, A. L., & Kluckhohn, C. (1952). Culture: A Critical Review of Concepts and Definitions. Cambridge, Mass: The Museum.

Kuchinke, K. P. (1998). The influence of leadership styles on subordinates' attitudes towards their leaders and towards performance. *Human Resource Development International*, 1(3), 291–308.

Li, J., Lam, K., & Qian, G. (2001). Does culture affect behavior and performance of firms? The case of joint ventures in China. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 32, 115–132.

Likert, R. (1967). The Human Organization: Its Management and Value. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Lo, M.-C., Ramayah, T., Min, H. W., & Songan, P. (2010). The relationship between leadership styles and organizational commitment in Malaysia: Role of leader-member exchange. Asia Pacific Business Review, 16, 79–103.

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.

Luthans, F., Youssef, C. M., Sweetman, D. S., & Harms, P. D. (2013). Meeting the Leadership Challenge of Employee Well-Being through Relationship PsyCap and Health PsyCap. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies, 20*(1), 118–133.

Mann, R. D. (1959). A review of the relationships between personality and performance in small groups. Psychological Bulletin, 56(4), 241-270.

Martin, R. R., Thomas, G. G., Charles, K. K., Epitropaki, O. O., & McNamara, R. R. (2005). The role of leader-member exchanges in mediating the relationship between locus of control and work reactions. *Journal Of Occupational Organizational Psychology*, 78(1), 141–147.

Mascall, B., & Leithwood, K. (2010). Investing in leadership: the district's role in managing principal turnover. Leadership and Policy in Schools, 9(4), 367–383.

Maslow, A. H. (1970). *Motivation and Personality* ((2nd ed.)). NewYork: Harper and Row.

McGregor, D. (1960). Theory X and theory Y. Organization theory, 358, 374.

McNeese-Smith, D. K. (1999). The relationship between managerial motivation, leadership, nurse outcomes and patient satisfaction. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 20(2), 243–259.

McSweeney, B. (2002). Hofstede's model of national cultural differences and their consequences: A triumph of faith - a failure of analysis. *Human Relations*, 55(1), 89–118.

Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1991). A three-component conceptualization of organizational commitment. Human Resource Management Review, 1(1), 61-89.

Muczyk, J., & Holt, D. (2008). Toward a cultural contingency model of leadership. Journal of Leadership Organizational Studies, 14(4), 277-286.

Newman, K. L., & Nollen, S. D. (1996). Culture and congruence: the fit between management practices and national Culture. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 27(4), 753–779.

Northouse, P. G. (2004). Leadership: Theory and Practice. Thousand Oaks, Calif: Sage.

Northouse, P. G. (2007). Leadership: Theory and Practice. Thousand Oaks: SAGE Publications.

Northouse, P. G. (2009). Introduction to Leadership: Concepts and Practice. Los Angeles: Sage Publications.

Northouse, P. G. (2009b). Leadership: Theory and Practice. Thousand Oaks, California: Sage.

O'Connell, M., & Kung, M. C. (2007). The Cost of Employee Turnover. Industrial Management, 49(1).

Palestini, R. H. (2009). From Leadership Theory to Practice: A Game Plan for Success as A Leader. Lanham: Rowman & Littlefield Education.

Pierce, J. L., & Newstrom, J. W. (2006). Leaders & the Leadership Process: Readings, self-assessments & Applications. Boston: McGraw-Hill Irwin.

Riaz, H., Akhtar, N., Moazzam, A., Luqman, R., Naz, H., & Tufail, H. S. (2017). Leadership effectiveness, turnover intention and the mediating role of employee commitment: a case of academic institutions of Pakistan. European Online Journal of Natural and Social Sciences, 6(4), 526.

Robert, W. R. (2000). The relationship between charismatic leadership behaviors and organizational commitment. Leadership Organization Development Journal, 21, 1. Sarachek, B. (1968). Greek concepts of leadership. The Academy of Management Journal, 11(1), 39–48.

Scott, W. R., & Meyer, J. W. (1994). Institutional Environments and Organizations: Structural Complexity and Individualism. Thousand Oaks, Calif: SAGE Publications. Sinha, D. (1984). Psychology in the Context of Third World Development. International Journal Of Psychology, 19(1-4), 17–29.

Smith, A., & Fortunato, V. (2008). Factors Influencing Employee Intentions to Provide Honest Upward Feedback Ratings. *Journal Of Business Psychology*, 22(3), 191–207.

Sparr, J. L., & Sonnentag, S. (2008). Fairness perceptions of supervisor feedback, LMX, and employee well-being at work. European journal of work and organizational psychology, 17(2), 198–225.

Stogdill, R. M. (1974). Handbook of leadership: A survey of theory and research. New York: Free Press.

Stogdill, R. M., & Coons, A. E. (1957). Leader behavior: Its description and measurement. Columbus: Bureau of Business Research, College of Commerce and Administration, Ohio State University.

Tafvelin, S., Armelius, K., & Westerberg, K. (2011). Toward Understanding the Direct and Indirect Effects of Transformational Leadership on Well-Being: A Longitudinal Study. *Journal of Leadership Organizational Studies, 18*(4), 480–492.

Tannenbaum, R., & Schmidt, W. H. (1973). How to choose a leadership pattern. Harvard Business Review, 51, 162-164.

Van Dierendonck, D., Haynes, C., Borrill, C., & Stride, C. (2004). Leadership behavior and subordinate well-being. *Journal of occupational health psychology, 9*(2), 165. Walumbwa, F. O., Orwa, B., Wang, P., & Lawler, J. J. (2005). Transformational leadership, organizational commitment, and job satisfaction: a comparative study of kenyan and U.S. financial firms. *Human Resource Development Quarterly, 16*(2), 235–256.

Warr, P. (2005). Work, Well-Being, and Mental Health.In Handbook of Work Stress (pp. 547–574). 2455 Teller Road, Thousand Oaks California 91320 United States: SAGE Publications, Inc. https://doi.org/10.4135/9781412975995.n23.

Wells, J. E., & Peachey, J. W. (2011). Turnover intentions: Do leadership behaviors and satisfaction with the leader matter? *Team Performance Management, 17*, 23–40. Willmott, R. (2000). The place of culture in organization theory: introducing the morphogenetic approach. *Organization, 7*(1), 95–128.

Wren, J. T. (1995). The leader's companion: Insights on leadership through the ages. New York: Free Press.

Yammarino, F. J., & Atwater, L. E. (1997). Do managers see themselves as others see them? Implications of self-other rating agreement for human resources management. Organizational Dynamics, 25(4), 35-44.

Yukl, G. (1989). Managerial leadership: a review of theory and research. Journal of Management, 15(2), 251.

Yukl, G. A. (2002). Leadership in Organizations. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Yukl, G. A. (2010). Leadership in Organizations. Upper Saddle River, N.J: Prentice Hall.

Zulfqar, A., Valcke, M., Devos, G., Tuytens, M., & Shahzad, A. (2016). Leadership and decision-making practices in public versus private universities in Pakistan. Asia Pacific Education Review, 17(1), 147–159.