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What is the Impact of Global Leadership Development on the Perception of Global Leadership Effectiveness of Women Leaders in UK HEIs?

by

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I declare that this thesis and the work presented in it is my own and has been generated by me as the result of my own original research.

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3. Where I have consulted the published work of others, this is always clearly attributed;

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Definitions and Abbreviations

Abbreviation	Definition
ACD	attitudes toward cultural diversity
AVE	average variance extracted
AFI-MTL	affective-identity MTL
CR	composite reliability
CMV	Common method variance
CoB	Change-oriented behaviours
CFI	comparative fit index
CFA	Confirmatory factor analysis
DEI	diversity, equality, and inclusion
EFA	exploratory factor analysis
ELMX	economic leader-member exchanges

FL	factor loadings
GLC	Global Leadership Competency
GLDP	general leadership development programs
HE	higher education
HEIs	Higher Education Institutions
HESA	Higher Education Statistics Agency
HR	Human Resources
IFI	Incremental Fit Index
LMX	leader-member exchange
LE	leadership effectiveness
MLT	Motivation to lead
NSS	National Student Survey
NFI	Normed Fit Index
NC-MTL	non-calculative MTL
PGB	perception of gender bias
PM	perception management competency
PTES	Postgraduate Taught Experience Survey
PT	personality traits
REF	The Research Excellence Framework
RLT	Relational Leadership Theory
RDT	Relational Dialectics Theory
RM	relationship management competency
RoB	relations-oriented behaviours

RMSEA	root mean square error of approximation
SEM	Structural Equation Modelling
SEIs	social, emotional, and intercultural skills
SLMX	social leader-member exchanges
SM	self-management competency
SRMR	Standardized Root Mean Squared Residual
SN-MTL	social-normative MTL
TLI	Tucker Lewis Index
WLDP	women's leadership development program

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Abstract

The under-representation of women in leadership is a significant issue in both business and higher education (Merluzzi & Phillips, 2022). Higher education institutions (HEIs) are undergoing organizational transformations due to internationalization and marketization (Uzhegova & Baik, 2022). Leadership development programs for women in academia aim to cultivate competencies necessary for effective leadership amidst increasing competition due to HEI internationalization. However, challenges in leadership development programs include difficulties in aggregating, comparing, and evaluating outcomes due to organizational complexities and varying evaluation techniques, which raises questions about the impact of leadership approaches and measurement tools on outcomes versus actual experiences (Dopson et al., 2019). Organizations seek leadership programs tailored to specific circumstances, but current approaches are criticized for their limited scope (McCauley & Palus, 2021). Thus, validating leadership development outcomes and distinguishing between assessment tool evaluations and individual perceptions is crucial. This research, comprising three studies, aims to investigate the factors influencing the leadership effectiveness of women academic leaders. The first study explores the impact of global leadership theory on perceptions of women leaders in higher education. It examines the correlation between Global Leadership Competencies (GLC) and leadership effectiveness, identifying specific GLC types that indicate certain leadership effectiveness types. The second study examines whether the motivation to lead mediates the relationship between personality traits, attitudes towards cultural diversity, perception of gender prejudice, and perceived leadership effectiveness. The third study delves into the influence of relationship management on leadership effectiveness.

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Chapter 1 Introduction

One notable observation of me is that most leaders in UK universities are selected based on their research-oriented academic credentials, without adequate consideration of their managerial skills and cross-cultural management experience. However, with the globalisation of UK higher education and the challenges posed by Brexit and the COVID-19 pandemic, many UK universities are undergoing significant institutional reforms to adapt. UK public universities, known for their autonomy in strategic-objective design and institutional mission designation, now face an urgent need to identify the global leadership competencies necessary for university leaders to successfully navigate these changes. Developing effective strategies to support their institutions' globalisation is critical, and leadership development is seen as a vital approach to enhancing global leadership competencies among university managers.

This global context necessitates that university leaders possess a robust set of skills beyond academic prowess. Effective leadership in this evolving landscape requires a blend of strategic thinking, cultural sensitivity, and the ability to manage diverse teams. These competencies are essential for fostering an inclusive environment that supports international collaborations and attracts a global student body. As UK universities strive to maintain their competitive edge, the development of such skills becomes increasingly imperative.

My interest in the intersection of gender issues and leadership development stemmed from the noticeable under-representation of women in leadership positions in UK higher education institutions (HEIs). Further investigation revealed that women leaders often outperform their male counterparts due to their communal behaviours, which aligns well with the collegial culture prioritized

in contemporary HEI systems. This indicates a distinct difference in leadership implementation between female and male leaders within HEIs. Women leaders bring a unique perspective to leadership roles, often emphasizing collaboration, empathy, and effective communication. These attributes are increasingly recognized as vital in the modern, interconnected academic environment. By fostering these traits, HEIs can create a more balanced and dynamic leadership structure that benefits from diverse approaches to problem-solving and decision-making. Moreover, promoting women into leadership roles can inspire future generations of women academics, thereby addressing the gender imbalance in higher education leadership.

However, there is a significant gap in research on this topic. Despite the importance of global leadership development for women leaders in HEIs, there has been little progress in this area. Moreover, there is a lack of exploration into the impact of global leadership competencies on global leadership effectiveness, which is crucial for assessing the quality of global leadership development.

Existing studies have primarily focused on general leadership competencies without delving into the specific challenges and opportunities faced by women in leadership roles within HEIs. This oversight limits our understanding of how best to support and develop women leaders in academia. To bridge this gap, comprehensive research is needed to evaluate the specific global leadership competencies that contribute to effective leadership in the context of higher education. This research should also consider the unique barriers women face and how targeted leadership development programs can mitigate these challenges.

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Next, I will explain the necessity to develop a gendered-based global leadership skill set for women leaders under the context of UK HE internationalization, which consists of four parts: the gender-based differences in leadership study, the uniqueness of HE organisational environment, the rising of HE sectors and lacking in leadership study for women academics, gender inequality in UK HEIs, as well as the leadership development is regarded as a good approach to address gender inequality.

Discussion of Gender-Based Differences in Leadership Study

This section starts with the clarification of the necessity of UK-based leadership development studies in HE, focusing on discussing gender differences in leadership studies for the purpose of clarifying whether women leaders are 'different' from men leaders in terms of conducting leadership.

Eagly and Johannesen‐Schmidt (2001, p.781) said that 'Although there is a general agreement that women face more barriers to becoming leaders than men do, especially for leader roles that are men-dominated, there is much less agreement about the behaviour of women and men once they attain such roles' (p.781). In other words, many feminists have been afraid of the perception of sex differences in leadership styles that can rationalise the exclusion of women from men-dominated leadership roles (Eagly and Johannesen‐Schmidt, 2001). Therefore, whether there are differences between women leaders and men leaders in terms of leadership behaviour is still an intensely debated question (Powell,1990; Garikipati& Kambhampati, 2021).

One of the consequences of relating leadership to masculinity as 'common sense' is that women in leadership are required to constantly mediate the contradictory expectations generating from their sex (Mavin et al., 2014). Several scholars point out that the nature of leadership is gendered, arguing that leadership is equated with masculinity, which is one of the results of long prioritising

men's authority, power and influence in historical development (Brewis et al., 1997; Brewis & Sinclair, 2000; Collinson & Hearn, 1996; Muhr & Sullivan, 2013). Since gender has been culturally constructed as a phenomenon and can be defined as shared expectations of individuals' socially identified sex (Eagly, 1987), women leaders tend to adapt their behaviours to cater to the conflicting demands of their roles as women and as leaders (Eagly & Johannesen‑Schmidt, 2001). This leads to prejudice toward women leaders and potential leaders emerging when there is a perceived incongruity between typical leader roles and women gender roles. Role incongruity refers to a lack of alignment between the real self and the self that expressed to others (Eagly & Karau, 2002). One prejudice is the underevaluation of women's potential for leadership due to the stereotype that men have greater ability than women in leadership positions. Another one is the underevaluation of the actual leadership of women in comparison with men due to the stereotype that agentic behaviour is less perceived in women (Dunlop & Scheepers, 2023).

Therefore, from the perspective of role incongruity, it can be summarised that women leaders' conforming to their gender roles may fail to meet the demands of their roles as leaders while women leaders would then receive negative feedback after adopting a strong agentic leadership style, leaving women in a precarious and insecure position. However, communal traits are often associated with the women gender (Eagly & Karau, 1991, 2002; Eagly, Karau & Makhijani, 1995; Eagly, Makhijani & Klonsky, 1992; Heilman, 2001), which is a behaviour concerning interpersonal relationships (Eagly, 1987), valuing the characteristics of being empathetic, sociable and caring, which is the opposite of agentic behaviour --- more aggressive and dominant (Eagly, 1987). Therefore, the communal leadership style of women academic leaders is a good fit in an HE management system, a place considered 'collegiality' as the core element of the educational leadership (Bryman, 2007; Bryman & Lilley, 2009; Debowski, 2015). Women leaders are seen as more effective in

leadership positions due to their communal personalities, which is more suitable for the HEI environment (Blackchen, 2015), pursuing collegiality and autonomy (Bryman & Lilley, 2009). Therefore, women leaders are as capable and productive as men leaders in academia, with schools administrated by women leaders being better in terms of academic performance compared with those administrated by men as the leadership efficiency of women leaders has been confirmed over time by many scholars (Ryder, 1994; Sax, 2008; Blackchen, 2015; Klenke, 2017).

In summary, women leaders in HE are as capable as men leaders and, to some degree, they can perform better than men leaders and be more effective in leadership positions due to their communal behaviour, which is largely accepted by the contemporary HE management system. However, as Carli and Eagly (2007) argued that when women pursue their leadership roles, they would encounter many different difficulties, which make it less easier for women to advance in pursuing career advancement than their men colleagues, therefore, it is better for women to maintain their communal behaviour rather than totally abandoning it, with women leaders in UK HEIs urgently needing to confidently be themselves and have a voice for themselves.

Uniqueness of Organisational Environment in HEIs

LD strategies vary depending on different organisations' settings. Therefore, it is important to categorise organisations to get a better understanding of how and why there are different LD approaches and how even sometimes opposing strategies have been used (Roe, 2020). In 1976, Thorngate categorised organisations into three types, which can be enlightening regarding how LD manifests itself in different organisational settings (classical, evolutionary and processual).

With the reformation of leadership strategies, Whittington's (1993) typology model suggests that organisations' strategies need to include the aims of organisational activities and the efficient design of the internal operations of organisations. In this model, outcomes are pluralist, and the internal process can be either reactionary or deliberate. In 2005, Johnson et al. suggested the notion of a 'cultural web' that focused on shaping organisational culture through combining complicated factors in organisations. Therefore, Bolden et al. (2008) suggested a model to clearly distinguish the dimensions between individual and social aspects of leadership in HEIs, especially the identity processes that can shape individuals, deemed to be the cornerstone of LD strategy design in the HE context .

The model suggested by Bolden et al. (2008) demonstrates that five dimensions (personal, social, structural, contextual and developmental) can simultaneously impact leadership strategy in an HE setting, showing the complexity and dynamic of leadership practice. This indicates that there is a demand to take into consideration situational factors when shaping leadership practices.

Insufficient Research on Women's Academic Leadership and the Rise of Higher Education Sector

In the 21st century, as an increasingly digital, global and dynamic environment, HEIs have been transformed into a global marketplace where the academic landscape has been actively shaped by scholars, institutional decision-makers and opinion leaders who have all attempted to predict how can HEI be affected by environmental trends (Pucciarelli & Kaplan, 2016). Universities face dramatic global challenges and are moving from a traditional role of teaching and research to becoming more entrepreneurial (Etzkowitz, 2004; Etzkowitz & Leydesdorff, 2000). Ferlie and Trenholm

(2017) argue in a literature review focusing on the current UK HE sector with regard to new organisational forms that marketisation and internationalisation are the main driving forces within contemporary HEIs second to talent management. Dopson et al. (2019) also argue that a more cooperative leadership style rather than a traditional one needs to be integrated into modern HEIs to respond to the greater competition with more strategic alliances. Furthermore, the increasing changing policies and public demands are making leaders in HE more competitive and skillful in attaining sustainable growth (Zulfqar et al., 2021). A large number of universities have developed their institutional leadership roles to promote sustainable development (SD) by adapting themselves to cater to market demand (Eustachio et al., 2020).

In addition, Esen et al. (2018) employed the bibliometric method in analysing original research from selected peer-review papers published in five prominent higher education journals in the USA, the UK and Australia between 1995 and 2014. Generally speaking, investigations considering 'topic focus' have shown that few studies have been conducted on gender and LD, which decreased significantly during the aforementioned period, down by 50%.

In terms of the number of published articles related to leadership studies in higher education, the results suggest that the USA is the research centre of this topic, followed by Australia and then the UK. In addition, the largest part of knowledge about leadership studies in HEI has been created and shaped by scholars from the USA, which shows the need for an academic focus to better understand effective leadership practices in the UK setting (Chen & Ke, 2014; Hallinger, 2018; Esen et al., 2018).

There is, therefore, a demand for leaders in academia to equip themselves with more capabilities in line with the trend of the times with the rise of the HE sectors. Besides, the lack of UK-focused leadership studies in HE makes the study of LD a necessity.

Gender Inequality in the UK HE Sector

The release of the 2024 Times Higher Education (THE) World University Rankings marks a notable milestone, as for the first time, 50 of the top 200 universities are led by women. This number represents a steady progression in women representation within academic leadership, increasing from 48 institutions in 2023 and 43 in 2022. Since THE began tracking this data in 2015, the proportion of women-led institutions among the top-ranked universities has risen from 14% to 25%, highlighting a significant shift toward greater gender parity in higher education leadership (Times Higher Education, 2024). However, this data still provides us with a clear and intuitive insight, that women are still underrepresented in academic leadership positions.

Women have experienced many inequalities and metaphors regarding women in the workplace can be seen as a more popular way to show the predicament of women, with there generally being eight themes of issues indicating women's under-representation such as the concrete wall, concrete ceiling (Catalyst, 1999), glass ceiling (Carli & Eagly, 2016), glass escalator (Goudreau, 2012), glass cliff (Ryan & Haslam, 2005), maternal wall (Williams, 2004), leaky pipeline (Dasgupta & Stout, 2014) and leadership labyrinth (Eagly et al., 2007). The report Women Count: Leaders in Higher Education provides an analysis of the representation of women in leadership roles from 173 UK universities. In this report, the percentage of women leading academic faculties or schools

has dropped from 44.8% to 43.6% (2018/19- 2019/2020). Therefore, it can be seen that the phenomenon of under-representation for women in leadership positions in UK HE has become a critical issue. Yet, as mentioned previously, women leaders are more effective than their men colleagues due to their agentic nature, meaning there is an obligation for women leaders to position themselves as leaders.

Leadership Development as an Approach to Address Gender Inequality

As discussed in the previous section, women leaders in UK HE need to prepare for the changes to their complex working environments, with a community governed by a group of scholars and devoted to knowledge creation (Heffernan & Bosetti, 2020). women academic leaders need to achieve a balance between effective leadership practices and maintaining academic talents as they encounter continuing uncertainty, internationalisation, competition and organisation mergers and acquisitions. Barriers that hinder women leaders' advancement in the dynamic organisational environment are discussed in this section, such as barriers from structural factors (including the recruitment process). This is followed by the advantages LD programmes could bring.

Many studies have focused on LD strategies and programmes for women in HEIs and there has been much research on exploring elements hindering LD for women (De Nmark, 1993; Eagly & Johannesen, 2001; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Eddy & Van Der Linden, 2006; Eagly & Carli, 2012; Klenke, 2017). Fenton (2003) notes two key factors regarding the dilemmas women encounter from a structural perspective, which are contrary to the above statements. The first is the 'nature of the academic environment binds men into a hierarchical fraternity and marginalizes women' (Fenton, 2003, p.13) and another barrier is a reluctance to implement policies to establish gender

parity in higher education. Similarly, Shepherd (2017) also argues that women managers in academia are as eager as men managers to apply for more senior management roles, which implies that individual factors are not a sufficient explanation for the under-representation of women in leadership positions in HEIs. Instead, women with talent are typically disadvantaged by many structural factors, mainly focusing on the recruitment and selection process for senior positions.

Therefore, this can imply interventions can be implemented on a structural level to achieve procedural changes and the micro-politics underpinning these practices, such as recruitment and selection, need to be acknowledged and addressed. From an individual perspective, barriers have been identified involving resources, working arrangements, training, recruitment and selection, targets, attitudes and organisational culture (Roe, 2020). For Among other scholars, a lack of leadership self-efficacy (Sandberg, 2015; Blackchen, 2015; Owen, 2020), being tied to child-care, maternity and home responsibilities (Growe & Montgomery, 1999; Barnard et al., 2016), lacking proactivity (Airini et al., 2011) and lacking leadership purpose (Ibarra et al., 2013; Hannum et al., 2015; Selzer et al., 2017) have all been identified as individual factors hindering LD for women.

In some degree, women's visibility is increased, and their sense of value is strengthened after participating in formal leadership programmes (Berg et al., 2012). Further to this, leadership programmes can strengthen women's resilience (Christman & McClellan, 2008) and offer great opportunities for individual reflection and group networking, which can awaken women's awareness of being leaders (Dahlvig & Longman, 2010). However, as multinational global HEI corporations increase with the trend of internationalisation, HEI brand building, the development of strategic management and improving leaders' global leadership competencies are of great importance in the

sustainable development of organisations. Therefore, echoed with the necessity of developing globally-accepted leadership competency i have mentioned before, and echoed with the argument mentioned in the previous part 'Discussion on Leadership Development Programmes', that instead of institutional change, interpersonal activity seemed to be more effective (Arnold et al., 2019), it is a pivotal for school leaders to develop global leadership competencies, a capability of implementing leadership according to organization's demands, which can maintain a dynamic equilibrium within the organization.

The aim of this research is to investigate the factors that impact the leadership effectiveness of women academic leaders. The objective in the first study is to explore the influence of global leadership theory on the perceived effectiveness of women leaders in higher education. I aim to investigate two primary goals: firstly, to establish the correlation between women leaders' Global Leadership Competencies (GLC) and their effectiveness in leadership; and secondly, to identify specific GLC types that can serve as indicators for particular types of leadership effectiveness, In my second study, I aim to examine whether the motivation to lead acts as a mediator in the relationship between personality traits, attitudes towards cultural diversity, perception of gender prejudice, and perceived leadership effectiveness. Finally, the third study aims to delve deeper into the influence of relationship management on leadership effectiveness.

The global under-representation of women is a prominent and undeniable issue, observed in both the business sector and higher education (Merluzzi & Phillips, 2022). Higher education institutions (HEIs) have been going through a massive organisational transformation due to the internationalisation and marketisation that has been taking place within various organisations (Uzhegova & Baik, 2022). Teaching, research, and service to the public are the three primary

functions of universities. Higher education institutions (HEIs) need to "behave" like for-profit organisations and place a priority on the generation of revenue to continue existing. While this is going on, higher education institutions are also required to function as non-profit organisations, with the output of knowledge and organisational cooperation being given priority (Council of theEuropean Union, 2020). HEIs all over the world have been facing a significant challenge for quite some time now, and the United Kingdom's HEIs are not an exception to this trend (Brooks, 2023).

In addition, women leaders in HE are as capable as men leaders and, to some degree, they can perform better than men leaders and be more effective in leadership positions due to their communal behaviour, which is largely accepted by the contemporary HE management system. However, as Carli and Eagly (2007) argued that when women pursue their leadership roles, they would encounter many different difficulties, which make it less easier for women to advance in pursuing career advancement than their men colleagues, therefore, it is better for women to maintain their communal behaviour rather than totally abandoning it, with women leaders in UK HEIs urgently needing to confidently be themselves and have a voice for themselves.

Thus, to address the issue of higher education internationalisation, numerous leadership development projects have been implemented specifically for women in academia, since women in leadership positions need to cultivate leadership competencies that will result in more efficient leadership implementation in the face of increasingly intense competition brought on by the internationalisation of higher education institutions. Therefore, a large-scale leadership development programme initiative for women in the United Kingdom called Aurora which aims

to strengthen women academics' leadership competencies (HESA) has been discussed to its advantages and disadvantages. It is possible to argue, in light of this discussion, that the patriarchal hierarchy that exists within higher education institutions is the source of the under-representation of women in leadership positions. Even though leadership development practices are an effective method for addressing gender inequalities, it appears that interpersonal activity is more effective in addressing the issue of women's representation in leadership positions as opposed to institutional change (Barnard et al., 2022).

However, despite numerous leadership development programs being conducted vigorously, some of the challenges of leadership development programmes remain, including the fact that it is difficult to aggregate, compare, and evaluate the outcome of leadership development due to the extreme complexity of organisational contents and the various leadership development evaluation techniques (Dopson et al., 2019). It is because of this that the question arises as to whether the leadership approaches and leadership measurement tools that are the foundation of leadership development programmes have a greater impact on the "experimental outcomes" than they do on the actual experiences that individuals have in their lives (Dopson et al., 2019). Besides, organisations are increasingly requesting leadership development programmes that are more attuned to the specific circumstances they operate. Consequently, the current approaches in leadership development are criticised for being too limited in scope to produce significant outcomes (McCauley & Palus, 2021). Therefore, it is essential to validate the evaluation of the outcome of leadership development and to determine the differences between the leadership outcomes that are evaluated by assessment tools and those that are evaluated by individual self-perception.

In addition to the difficulties encountered in leadership development, the significance of promoting leadership development can also be observed in the context of the globalisation and marketization of Higher Education Institutions (HEIs). Globalisation and marketization have led to a significant organisational transformation in HEIs (García-Morales, Garrido-Moreno, & Martín-Rojas, 2021). Over the last ten years, the percentage of international schools in the global education market have risen by 49%. Additionally, the number of students enrolled in these schools has expanded by 52%, the staff size has grown by 57%, and the money generated from tuition fees has seen a significant growth of 71% (ISC, 2024), indicating an increasing need for expatriate academic staff. In addition, as stated by Bonaccorsi & Biancardi (2021), 19 European countries and more than 1500 Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) have observed a consistent rise in the proportion of foreign academic personnel, although the rates of increase differ. In the face of diverse cultures and changing patterns of academic movement, academic leaders can gain an advantage by possessing social, emotional, and intercultural skills that contribute to the development of effective leadership (Müller et al., 2020). Nevertheless, there is a limited literature available on these competencies.

In addition, Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) exhibit significant distinctions compared to for-profit organisations in terms of their organisational objectives, structure, leadership style, and approaches to measuring organisational performance (Baruch & Ramalho, 2006; Erickson, Hanna, & Walker, 2021). The presence of a patriarchal social structure (Eslen-Ziya & Yildirim, 2022), the heightened level of labour demands (Rowlands, 2019), and the simultaneous challenge of balancing family and work responsibilities (Lendák-Sabók, 2020) all serve as impediments to the progress of women in academia. The lack of women in academic leadership positions has resulted

in a scarcity of women role models (Porter & Serra, 2020), indicating that society is not fully utilising its women talent, which can be resolved by implementing effective leadership development programmes.

In brief, despite the critical importance of global leadership development for women leaders in higher education institutions (HEIs), progress in this area has been minimal. Additionally, there is a lack of exploration into how global leadership competencies affect global leadership effectiveness, which is essential for evaluating the quality of global leadership development. To address these issues, I used a non-probability sampling technique to identify people who are already knowledgeable about the leadership process (Acharya et al., 2013). Women leaders in academia were therefore targeted. I identified 964 women academic leaders (Deans of Faculties, Heads of Schools, and Heads of Departments or equivalent) from 127 UKuniversities, based on their institution website profiles. An online survey was distributed via email using personalized links, generating 286 responses (a response rate of 27.2%), in line with the response rate within academic populations (Baruch & Holtom, 2008). After deleting incomplete questionnaires, 255 replies were used. Of these, 127 were from Department Heads (or equivalent), 86 from School Heads (or equivalent), and 42 from the Deans of Faculty.

A brief overview of the interconnectedness among the three studies

My PhD research Dissertation is presented in a three papers format. Their major contributions are as follows. In paper one, my research adds to the existing body of knowledge on global leadership by examining how global leaders perceive and develop their identities (Cotter, 2022). I investigate the self-identity of women academic leaders and its impact on their effectiveness in a global setting.

Second, I explore the extent to which specific global leadership skills might forecast and influence leadership effectiveness at the individual level as suggested by Reiche et al. (2022). Third, my global leadership competency (GLC) model provides an analysis of the combined effectiveness of three GLCs: social, emotional, and intercultural aspects of leadership behaviours. Fourth, previous research primarily examined the 'relationship' between global leaders and their followers. This was done by analysing data obtained either directly from the leaders themselves (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2009) or from multiple sources including both leaders and their followers or supervisors (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2012; Gong, 2006). Lastly, the first paper utilises primary data from leaders and subsequently tests and validates the hypothesised model using external secondary data that provides a more objective assessment of leadership performance.

For paper 2, prior studies have investigated structural obstacles, such as patriarchal hierarchies about women's career advancement (Mavin & Yusupova, 2020). Ut addresses a research gap when it comes to thoroughly examining the combined influence of women academics' personality traits, their attitudes towards cultural diversity, their perceptions of gender bias, and their motivations to lead on their effectiveness as leaders. These factors, which are internal aspects that influence women academics' career advancement, have not been thoroughly studied yet for their combined impact. In contrast to previous studies such as Sadeghi & Pihie (2012) and Saputra (2021), which typically attribute differences in leadership effectiveness to motivation to lead, my research takes a fresh approach grounded in personality theory. The 'motivation to lead' is influenced by an individual's personality qualities, beliefs, attitudes, and perceptions of gender prejudice in their professional settings. My argument is that the connection between the desire to lead and the perception of effective leadership is affected by an individual's personality traits, attitudes towards cultural diversity, and perceptions of gender bias, which are all part of their overall personality

'framework.' I provide both theoretical and practical contributions to the literature on organisational behaviour, industrial psychology, and gender studies.

For paper 3, my study utilises the entity perspective of Relational Leadership Theory (RLT) (Uhl-Bien, 2006) to introduce a new viewpoint to the commonly held belief that developing deep connections with followers has inherent benefits. These challenges the assumptions made in previous studies (e.g., Hollander, 2012), specifically within the academic context. I further investigate the relational dynamics between a leader and a follower building upon the study conducted by Einola and Alvesson (2021). My study takes two additional approaches to explore this topic. To further explore the dynamics of the leader and follower relationship, I present the Relational Dialectics Theory (RDT) (Baxter, 2004; 2011). Second, as it has been argued that there is a tendency for immaturity among followers who excessively depend on the elected leader, it is crucial to conduct thorough empirical research that includes the viewpoints of all parties engaged in a relationship (Einola & Alvesson, 2021). Therefore, I analyse the viewpoints of leaders to explore how their relationships with their followers (colleagues) influence their leadership outcomes. Third, my study contributes to the existing RLT (Uhl-Bien, 2006) scholarship by incorporating RDT (Baxter, 2011) to examine the ever-changing nature of leader-follower relationships.

The first paper has examined the influence of global leadership competencies on the effectiveness of women academic leaders, then I analyse how motivation to lead influences the connection between an individual's personality and their effectiveness as a leader, using the perspectives of psychoanalysis and trait theory. Since leadership is often regarded as a product of social construction, in which the motivations, beliefs, and attitudes of leaders are influenced by and connected to their social identities (Fairhurst & Grant, 2010), However, there has been limited investigation into the combined impact of women academics' personality traits, attitudes towards

cultural diversity, perception of gender bias, and motivations to lead on their leadership effectiveness. These factors are considered internal influences on women's career advancement. Structural barriers, such as patriarchal hierarchy, have been studied about women's career advancement. The topic of diversity, equality, and inclusion (DEI) in higher education (HE) has gained significant attention due to the increasing awareness of social justice issues (Quinteros & Covarrubias, 2023; Jordan et al., 2021). The main focus of promoting faculty support for diversity, equity, and inclusion (DEI) has been on formal workshops and interventions (Rogers-Sirin & Sirin, 2009), which have been proven to have undeniable advantages. these DEI interventions aim to enhance the prominence of women leaders by offering them as role models (Latu et al., 2013) since the ability to inspire is a vital factor in the effectiveness of leaders (Gilley et al., 2009), as multiple research projects have demonstrated a favourable correlation between individuals' passion to lead and their effectiveness as leaders (Sadeghi & Pihie, 2012; Saputra, 2021). The level of intrinsic motivation, which pertains to an individual's inherent desire to participate in an activity for its gratifying objectives, was a noteworthy indicator of leadership effectiveness (Eden, 1992; Auvinen et al., 2020

Leadership effectiveness is influenced not only by leaders' motivation to lead but also by their personality. From a different viewpoint, academics usually have a high degree of independence (Henkel, 2005), which emphasises the importance for leaders to develop strong relationships on a personal level to obtain the best leadership results. One can comprehend this by analysing variations in personality, as personality theories aim to comprehend the patterns of how individuals develop their personality. In the field of personality theory, two primary methods are trait theory (proposed by Eysenck in 1952) and psychoanalytic theory (developed by Freud in 1989). The trait perspective considers individuals' personalities as a collection of enduring and quantifiable traits

that can forecast their behaviours (Hogan, Curphy, & Hogan, 1994). On the other hand, the psychoanalytic perspective of personality study focuses on individuals' unconscious attitudes when assessing a specific object or idea (Freud, 1923; Kernberg & Caligor, 2005). Numerous studies have examined the significant influence of personality traits on the effectiveness of leadership (Bass, 1990; Zaccaro et al., 2018). These traits include interest in building relationships, engaging with others on an interpersonal level, and being emotionally sensitive (Shaffer et al., 2006; Mendenhall et al., 2012).

The psychoanalytic approach is essential in the context of HE internationalisation because it correlates with cultural intelligence. Leaders in higher education must possess cultural intelligence in order to attain favourable leadership results (Groves & Feyerherm, 2011; Grubb, 2015; Gómez-Leal et al., 2022). Several scholars have contended that leaders who possess a multicultural leadership awareness and orientation are more proficient in guiding culturally diverse groups. Additionally, they are better equipped to establish trust and cultivate positive relationships with colleagues from diverse cultural backgrounds. These factors are closely associated with favourable leadership outcomes, as supported by studies conducted by Cox, Lobel, and Blake (1991) and Gómez-Leal et al. (2022).

Also, unconscious judgements have an impact on individuals' social behaviours (Greenwald & Banaji, 1995). Women academics frequently experience underlying gender bias (PGB) and are affected by it, which poses a substantial obstacle to their career advancement (Eslen-Ziya, & Yildirim, 2022). Moreover, some academics have contended that individuals may internalise unfavourable preconceptions about themselves through unconscious judgements, commonly referred to as 'implicit bias' (e.g., Kiefer & Sekaquaptewa, 2007). Hence, gender preconceptions pertaining to women may unconsciously impact the social behaviours of women academics.

Continuously being exposed to gender stereotype bias can drive women academics to doubt their aptitude or competence to assume leadership roles. Individuals will unknowingly assimilate this prejudice, so impacting the results of leadership (Giacomin et al., 2022).

From the standpoint of personality theory, the motivation to lead may be understood as an outcome that is influenced by an individual's personality traits, attitudes, beliefs, and perception of their social surroundings. As previously said, a specific mix of personality qualities, including a strong interest in relationships, active involvement in interpersonal interactions, and emotional sensitivity, along with a more positive attitude towards accepting and coping with attitudes toward cultural diversity (ACD) and lower levels of perception of gender bias (PGB), would result in greater levels of leadership effectiveness (LE). Therefore, the connection between the desire to lead and the perception of leadership effectiveness may also be affected by the innate personality traits, achievement drive, and power motivation that make up an individual's entire personality framework.

Thus, based on personality theory and research on leadership motivation and perceived leadership effectiveness (LE), I hypothesised that women academic leaders with specific personality traits, more favourable attitudes towards cultural diversity (ACDs), and lower levels of perception of gender bias (PGB) would exhibit higher levels of perceived LE as a result of their heightened motivation to lead. My study seeks to investigate whether the motivation to lead mediates the relationship between personality, attitudes towards cultural diversity, perception of gender bias, and perceived leadership effectiveness.

My second study presents a novel approach to understanding the drive of women in leadership positions in academia. I examine how their personality traits, attitudes towards cultural diversity, and perceptions of gender bias in their work environments contribute to their ambition to lead. I

investigate the correlation between the motivation of women academics to assume leadership roles and their perceived competence as leaders, and I obtain evidence that supports my suggested theoretical framework. My findings theoretically broaden the scope of personality theory (Eysenck, 1952) by pinpointing the specific aspects that impact the leadership effectiveness of women academics based on their personality features. My study demonstrates that individuals who exhibit elevated levels of interpersonal involvement, emotional sensitivity, and relationship interest are more inclined to be motivated to pursue leadership positions, leading to enhanced success in their leadership responsibilities. In addition, my study enhances the fundamental significance of literature (Schwartz et al., 2012) by investigating the perspectives of women academic leaders towards cultural diversity. This research provides insights into the intricate social and psychological processes that influence inter-group relationships. In addition, my research enhances the existing body of knowledge on social cognition by uncovering the manner in which women academics understand and react to social cues and stereotypes. This, in turn, impacts their perceived effectiveness as leaders through their inclination to assume leadership roles and their perceptions of gender-based prejudice. From a management standpoint, comprehending the personality qualities of women academics can assist HR personnel in making well-informed decisions regarding hiring and promotions that are in line with institutional principles. In addition, utilising an understanding of the personalities of women academics can aid in the creation of teams that effectively enhance each other's strengths and shortcomings. Furthermore, it is advisable to create leadership training and development programmes that are specifically customised to the distinctive capabilities and requirements of women, taking into account their individual personality traits. Moreover, my understanding of women's perspectives on cultural variety might contribute to the formulation of strategies and programmes designed to promote multiculturalism and

intercultural communication.

Since the first paper reveals that the relationship management competency of women academic leaders has a notable and favourable influence on their leadership effectiveness (Yukl, 2012). Nevertheless, due to the dynamic nature of interpersonal relationships, quantitative research sometimes fails to capture numerous intricate aspects (Grigoropoulou & Small, 2022; Ormston et al., 2014). Hence, I employ qualitative method in the third paper to delve deeper into the influence of relationship management on leadership effectiveness.

While women in higher education leadership positions exhibit a wide range of preferences when it comes to leadership styles, gender stereotypes have an impact on the evaluation of leadership effectiveness. These stereotypes determine whether certain acts are seen as indicative of good leadership (Heilman, 2012). Historical and cultural contexts shape these stereotypes, and leaders are considered effective when they conform to stereotyped positions (Madden, 2011). Leadership is a concept that is created by the society and is influenced by relationships, cultural norms, and collective ideas. These factors have a key role in how leadership outcomes are understood (Endres & Weibler, 2017). Therefore, it is essential to examine the dynamics of leader-follower relationships within the complex interaction of several social identities. In addition, numerous academic studies have thoroughly investigated the role of women in leadership positions in colleges and universities (e.g., Madsen, 2012; Brabazon & Schulz, 2020). Although there has been progress in terms of increasing leadership opportunities, implementing effective strategies, and adopting recommended approaches (e.g., Dopson et al., 2019; Barnard et al., 2022), the advancement of women into leadership positions in higher education has only shown limited improvement. However, there are still notable obstacles that remain, including a deficiency in leadership self-efficacy (Blackchen, 2015), being constrained by child-care, maternity, and

household duties (Barnard et al., 2016), and the prevalence of ingrained habits influenced by both conscious and unconscious prejudices. Hence, it is imperative to acknowledge that higher education substantially profit from aggressively finding, equipping, and advocating for a larger proportion of exceptionally qualified women to assume leadership positions (Madsen & Longman, 2020).

As an important indicator of leadership effectiveness, relationship management competency refers to an individual's capacity to perceive the emotional shifts of others and their perspectives on the significance of establishing relationships with others (Stevens et al., 2014). Relational Leadership Theory (RLT) is a leadership concept that highlights the significance of relationships and social connections in the context of successful leadership (Vriend et al., 2020). Using the entity perspective within Relational Leadership Theory (RLT), which emphasizes the role of leaders, followers, and their behaviours and perceptions in influencing and maintaining order within the organization (Baxter, 2011). I investigated how the relationships between women academic leaders and their colleagues affect their leadership effectiveness. I analysed this through the lens of relational dialectics theory (RDT), as the entity perspective highlights the influence of leaders' behaviours and perceptions on maintaining order within the organisational context (Uhl-Bien, 2006). My examination of a data collection pertaining to women academic leaders' encounters with leading their colleagues uncovered two conflicting discourses that provide insight into the impact of the leader-follower relationship on the effectiveness of women academic leaders. The prevailing narrative, known as "Recognition of the Importance of Deep Interaction," underscores the importance of cultivating robust connections with colleagues. It emphasises the detrimental effects of colleague disengagement, the advantages of delegation and empowerment, the significance of recognition and appreciation, the endorsement of strategic planning, and the

benefits of career planning and self-reflection for both colleagues and leaders. Conversely, the marginal discourse, referred to as "Resistance to Deep Interaction," emphasises the possible adverse outcomes of intimate leader-follower connections. These include detrimental effects on the leader's mental and physical health, exhaustion, insufficient delegation resulting in excessive workload, and a detrimental influence on professionalism. The findings emphasise the intricate nature of the leader-follower dynamic and the numerous factors that can impact the effectiveness of leadership. Therefore, it is imperative for women academic leaders to carefully navigate these dynamics, taking into account both the advantages and disadvantages of intimate relationships with colleagues. Moreover, the exchange of ideas between these two conflicting viewpoints emphasises the complex nature of the subject. Participants demonstrated the phenomenon of assimilation, implicitly accepting the prevailing ideology and acknowledging the significance of meaningful engagement. Nevertheless, they exhibited characteristics of neutralisation and issue avoidance, suggesting a recognition of the possible challenges and adverse outcomes linked to intimate connections.

The focus of my third study is to analyse the impact of women academic leaders' interpersonal interactions with their colleagues on their success in leadership roles. The Relational Dialectics Theory (RDT) is employed within the entity perspective of Relational Leadership Theory (RLT) (Baxter, 2011). This work makes substantial contributions to the domains of relational leadership, relational dialectics, and gender studies. My study challenges the prevailing notion, proposed by Hollander (2012), that creating strong ties with followers in the academic setting leads to beneficial outcomes. I offer a fresh perspective and contributes to the advancement of Relational Leadership Theory (RLT) by highlighting the tensions that result from an excessive reliance on interpersonal relationships and the need of developing strong relationships as a beneficial resource for women

academic leaders. The prevailing viewpoint, known as the "Recognition of the Importance of Deep Interaction," argues that establishing strong connections with peers provides leaders with essential resources such as support, expertise, and cooperation. These resources are vital for leaders to overcome resource constraints and effectively fulfil their leadership duties. Furthermore, the study highlights the peripheral discussion around "Resistance to Deep Interaction," recognising the challenges and possible disadvantages of excessively depending on interpersonal connections to obtain resources. This highlights the necessity for leaders to recognise the possible compromises between intimate connections and aspects such as individual welfare, workload, and professionalism.

According to Einola and Alvesson (2021), followers who unduly depend on their elected leader have misunderstandings caused by friction, a lack of responsiveness, and a predisposition towards immaturity. Therefore, the perception of leadership that is deemed 'successful' has the potential to result in adverse outcomes, as it might cause followers to become content and restrict their attention entirely to their assigned responsibilities. I build upon the study undertaken by Einola and Alvesson (2021) by integrating two supplementary paths. First, to delve deeper into the intricacies of the connection between leaders and followers, Introduce the RDT (Baxter, 2011). Second, as it has been argued that there is a tendency for immaturity among followers who excessively depend on the elected leader, it is crucial to conduct thorough empirical research that includes the viewpoints of all parties engaged in a relationship. Hence, I examine the perspectives of leaders to investigate how their relationships with their followers (colleagues) impact their leadership results.

Furthermore, my research provides original perspectives to the current pool of information on the RLT (Uhl-Bien, 2006) theory by introducing RDT (Baxter, 2011) to illuminate the impact of

the leader-follower connection on the effectiveness of women academic leaders. Leaders derive advantages from engaging in relationship management, a practice that enables them to cultivate trust and enhance their effectiveness as leaders (Eagly, 2005; Smit, 2013; Crevani, 2019; Einola & Alvesson, 2021; Barnard et al., 2022). My study suggests using the Relational Dialectics Theory (RDT) to analyse the dynamic character of leader-follower relationships. This is because discourses have a flexible nature and will adapt their underlying meanings in different settings (Baxter & Braithwaite, 2008). The study underscores the significance of cultivating robust relationships with colleagues in the higher education setting, as emphasised by the prevailing rhetoric entitled "Recognition of the Importance of Deep Interaction." The text delves into various issues, including the detrimental effects of uninvolved colleagues, the advantages of assigning tasks and granting authority, the significance of acknowledgment and gratitude, the endorsement of strategic planning, and the benefits for colleagues' and leaders' career development and introspection. These findings improve my understanding of effective leadership by emphasising the importance of positive connections and deep interaction in enhancing leadership effectiveness. Leaders who establish robust relationships with colleagues in the higher education context are more likely to attain positive results in terms of engagement, productivity, and career progression (Bryman & Lilley,2009; Smit, 2013; Cleveland, M., & Cleveland, S., 2020, and Barnard et al., 2022).

Finally, the interaction and exchange of ideas between the dominant and marginalised discourses further enriches the area of gender studies study. The participants' incorporation of the dominant ideology indicates their acceptance of society expectations and norms about women's approaches to leadership and their interactions with others (e.g., Madden, 2011). Furthermore, the study also reveals elements of neutralisation and issue avoidance, demonstrating an acknowledgement of the

potential challenges and negative consequences associated with intimate relationships. The study illuminates the gender dynamics in leadership by highlighting the difficulties and complexities that women leaders may face (Epitropaki et al., 2017) when attempting to maintain a balance between relational leadership and its possible drawbacks.

Collectively, these three studies offer a complete perspective on the various obstacles and opportunities that women encounter in academic leadership positions. They also provide valuable insights into the elements that influence how effective women are seen as leaders within higher education institutions in the United Kingdom. The first study utilises quantitative methods to examine how the perception management competency, relationship management competency, and self-management competency of women academic leaders affect their leadership effectiveness, as evaluated by relations-oriented and change-oriented behaviours. Nevertheless, there has been a scarcity of research examining the collective influence of women academics' personality traits, attitudes towards cultural diversity, perception of gender bias, and motivations to lead on their effectiveness as leaders. Furthermore, the first paper demonstrates that the relationship management competency of women academic leaders has a significant and positive impact on their success in leadership. However, quantitative research may occasionally be inadequate in capturing the multifaceted features of interpersonal relationships due to their dynamic nature. Therefore, I utilise qualitative research in the third paper to further investigate the impact of relationship management on leadership effectiveness.

Philosophical stance

My research follows a critical-realist viewpoint and utilises a combination of research philosophies. Research philosophy encompasses the investigation of the fundamental nature of knowledge, its origins, and its transmission through language. It consists of three essential components: ontology,

epistemology, and methodology. Ontology refers to the philosophical perspective on knowledge, specifically the nature and understanding of knowledge. Epistemology pertains to the methods by which I acquire information about the world and the criteria used to determine whether knowledge is considered valid. Methodology pertains to the systematic approach of uncovering and generating knowledge (Williamson, 2021; Howell, 2012).

Critical Realism advocates for the integration of both quantitative and qualitative methodologies to overcome the constraints associated with relying only on either of these approaches. This is a method used to determine the contextualised accuracy of cognitive factors and perception. The ontology of critical realism posits a perspective that embraces a transcendental realist viewpoint and an interpretivist epistemology (Easton, 2010, p.119). According to Sayer (1992, 2010), critical realism posits that my understanding of the world is constrained, and the concepts of truth and falsehood do not offer a consistent connection between knowledge and its objective. This aligns with my previous literature review, which argued that there is no singular concept of 'leadership', but rather multiple perspectives through which leadership can be understood.

Several leadership studies have been conducted using the interpretive approach to establish a collective awareness of the various interpretations of "what leadership is". Interpretive researchers perceive social reality as intricately intertwined with and inseparable from their social contexts. They engage in an interpretive process to make sense of this reality, rather than following a hypothesis testing approach (Goddard & Melville, 2004). Interpretive research is a research paradigm that operates under the belief that social reality is not singular or objective, but rather influenced by human experiences and social contexts (ontology). This aligns with my previous argument that "leadership" is not a fixed concept, but rather subject to varying interpretations based on individuals' social roles. Hence, to comprehend leadership in its entirety, it is crucial to examine

it within the framework of its social environment, considering the individual perspectives and interpretations of its diverse players (epistemology) (Schwartz-Shea & Yanow, 2013). This argument aligns with the point I previously made, which states that the ontology of critical realism adopts a transcendental realist perspective and an interpretivist epistemology. Hence, an interpretive methodology would align harmoniously with my research attitude.

Conducting interpretive research combined with a quantitative method offers three distinct benefits. The interpretive approach is ideal for investigating the underlying causes of intricate and interconnected social processes, such as inter-firm relationships or inter-office politics. In situations where quantitative data may be biased, unreliable, or hard to obtain, the findings from interpretive research can provide valuable supplementary insights to those obtained from quantitative research. Furthermore, engaging in interpretive research becomes advantageous for the development of theories in domains lacking or having inadequate pre-existing theories. Furthermore, interpretive research may assist in revealing intriguing and pertinent research inquiries and concerns for subsequent investigation.

This dissertation encompasses three research papers, titled "A global leadership competency model for academic women leaders: attaining leadership effectiveness," "The impact of personality on women academics' perceived leadership effectiveness: The mediating role of motivation to lead," and "The impact of the leader-follower relationship on leadership effectiveness from the perspective of women academics: A relational dialectics lens". Data were collected from 255 women academic leaders in the United Kingdom. Collectively, these papers constitute a comprehensive and cohesive analysis exploring: a) the impact of global leadership competencies on leadership effectiveness; b) the specific global leadership competencies affecting the leadership effectiveness of women academic leaders; c) the cumulative impact of personality traits, attitudes

toward cultural diversity, and perceptions of gender bias on women academics' perceived leadership effectiveness; d) an examination of the correlation between women academic leaders' relationships with their colleagues and their overall leadership effectiveness.

Subsequently, I will furnish an elaborate synopsis of the substance encompassed in these three papers, encompassing the theoretical underpinnings, research approach, and both theoretical and practical contributions.

The distinctiveness of higher education leadership compared to business sector leadership

Leadership studies in the business sector are not always directly transferable to the higher education (HE) context due to several critical distinctions between the two domains. Although leadership is essential in both sectors, the characteristics of leadership, the organizational frameworks, and the cultural norms in higher education differ significantly from those in the business world. The following table summarises key reasons that why insights from business leadership studies do not fully apply to the higher education setting.

Table 1 The distinctiveness of higher education leadership compared to business sector leadership

	Business Sector	Higher Education
1. Organisational Structure and Governance	Businesses typically have hierarchical structures with clear chains of command and centralized decision-making processes. Leadership in business often involves setting financial goals, optimizing performance, and making quick, top-down decisions to drive profitability and competitive advantage (Solomon, 2020; Sahlman, 2022).	HE institutions have more complex and decentralized governance structures. Leadership in academia often involves navigating a web of stakeholders, including faculty, students, administrators, and external bodies (e.g., accreditation boards, government agencies) (Bryman, 2007; Gallos & Bolman, 2021). Decision-making tends to be more participatory, with shared

		governance models in which faculty play a significant role in shaping policies and academic priorities. This requires a more consultative, collaborative leadership approach that values consensus-building over quick decision-making (Gmelch & Buller, 2015;).
2. Mission and Values	The primary goal of most businesses is to generate profit and shareholder value. Leadership is often focused on achieving financial targets, improving operational efficiency, and driving innovation to maintain market competitiveness (Aaker & Moorman, 2023; Robbins et al., 2014).	HE institutions have broader and more diverse missions, focusing on the creation and dissemination of knowledge, student learning, and societal impact. The values in academia emphasize intellectual freedom, critical thinking, and long-term educational goals (Breznik & Law, 2019;), which differ from the profit-driven motives in business. As a result, leadership in HE requires balancing multiple, sometimes conflicting, priorities such as academic excellence, research productivity, student engagement, and community service.
3. Nature of the Workforce	Employees in business organizations are generally focused on achieving specific, measurable outcomes (e.g., sales targets, market share) (Aaker & Moorman, 2023). Leadership in this context often centers on performance management, efficiency, and incentives to motivate employees (Northouse, 2021).	Faculty in HE are typically motivated by intrinsic factors such as academic freedom, research opportunities, and intellectual contributions. Academic staff have considerable autonomy over their work and are often less responsive to traditional business-style performance metrics (Gallos & Bolman, 2021). Leading highly autonomous and tenured faculty requires negotiation, influence, and respect for academic freedom, rather than simply managing for outcomes or efficiency.
4. Time Horizons and Change	Businesses often operate on short-term cycles, with a focus on quarterly or annual financial performance (Aaker & Moorman, 2023). Leaders in business sectors are typically evaluated based on their ability	Change in higher education is generally slower and more deliberative. Academic institutions tend to focus on long-term goals such as knowledge creation, student development, and societal impact. Implementing change often requires

	to deliver immediate results and respond quickly to market changes.	extensive consultation and negotiation with various stakeholders, making leadership in HE more about incremental progress and strategic vision over extended periods (Gallos & Bolman, 2021).
5. Stakeholder Expectations	In business, leadership is primarily accountable to shareholders or owners who expect financial returns. The leader's effectiveness is measured in terms of profitability, market expansion, and shareholder value (Northouse, 2021).	In HE, leadership must navigate a broader and more diverse set of stakeholders, including faculty, students, administrators, alumni, government bodies, and donors. The expectations of these groups can vary widely, from academic rigor and research excellence to student success and community engagement. Especially, relationships in higher education are founded on several key principles: the open exchange of knowledge and information, the cultivation of mutual trust, active participation in decision-making processes, and the alignment of stakeholders' interests within strategic planning. Together, these principles contribute to creating greater value for academic institutions (Varadarajan et al., 2023; Langrafe et al., 2020;). Effective leadership in HE requires balancing these different interests while maintaining the integrity of the institution's academic mission.
6. Types of Leadership Competencies	Leaders are expected to make data-driven decisions, manage risks, and optimize resources to maximize profits (Northouse, 2021).	Leadership in academia requires a different set of competencies, such as intellectual leadership, fostering a culture of collaboration, managing complex academic processes, and engaging with a diverse body of scholars and students. Emotional intelligence (Quílez-Robres et al., 2023), empathy (Rachmad, 2022) are also critical in HE leadership.

7. Evaluation and Accountability	Leaders in business are usually evaluated based on financial performance, market share, and growth metrics (Northouse, 2021).	In contrast, leadership in HE is evaluated based on a wider range of criteria, including academic achievements, research outputs, student success rates, and institutional reputation (Ruben et al., 2023; Reyes et al., 2019;). Many of these factors are difficult to quantify and are subject to long-term evaluation rather than immediate results. Furthermore, accountability in HE often involves navigating complex governance structures and managing the interests of multiple internal and external constituencies (Memarian & Doleck, 2023).

A Detailed Introduction of the three studies (Theoretical background, methodologies, and contributions)

Paper One

Globalization and marketization have steered higher education institutions (HEIs) towards significant organizational transformation (García-Morales, Garrido-Moreno, and Martín-Rojas, 2021). Over two decades, the count of English-medium foreign schools surged from 2,584 to 11,200, and the number of full-time academic staff reached 546,000, illustrating a growing demand for academic staff expatriates, according to ISC in 2022. Additionally, Bonaccorsi and Biancardi (2021) note that 19 European countries and more than 1500 HEIs report a consistent increase in the proportion of foreign academic staff, albeit at varying rates. Given this backdrop of cultural diversity and changing academic mobility conditions, academic leaders may find value in developing social, emotional, and intercultural competencies for enhancing their leadership, as highlighted by Müller and colleagues in 2020. However, the existing literature on these

competencies remains limited.

Furthermore, HEIs differ fundamentally from for-profit organizations in terms of their organizational goals, structure, leadership styles, and approaches to performance measurement (Baruch & Ramalho, 2006; Erickson, Hanna & Walker, 2021). The underrepresentation of women is a striking global theme, prevalent both in the business sector and higher education, as emphasized by Merluzzi and Phillips in 2022. The presence of a patriarchal hierarchy, increased work demands, and the challenge of balancing family and work (Eslen-Ziya & Yildirim, 2022; Rowlands, 2019; Lendák-Sabók, 2020) serve as obstacles to the professional advancement of women in academia. This underrepresentation of women academic leaders has resulted in a shortage of women leadership role models (Porter and Serra, 2020), underscoring the loss of significant human capital that can be addressed through effective leadership development interventions.

Hence, my study aims to investigate the impact of global leadership competency on women leaders' perceived leadership effectiveness in higher education (HE). The literature has already established a connection between global leadership competency (GLC) and effective leadership, as well as between social, emotional, and intercultural competencies and effective leadership behaviours (Müller et al., 2020). I concurrently explore whether global leadership competencies can predict specific effective leadership behaviours （Reiche, Osland, Mendenhall, & Szkudlarek，2022). Furthermore, I focus on leadership competency development, which has been shown to enhance the visibility of women academics in leadership roles (He & Leeman, 2021).

My study pursues two primary objectives: first, to determine the connection between global leadership competency (GLC) and the perceived leadership effectiveness of women leaders, and second, to identify which type of GLC can signify a particular type of leadership effectiveness.

My research questions are as follows:

RQ1: What is the impact of global leadership competency on the perceived leadership effectiveness of women leaders in HEIs?

RQ2: Which type of GLC can indicate a specific type of leadership effectiveness?

My study draws on a sample of 255 surveyed women academic leaders from 127 universities in the UK. Structural equation modelling (SEM) is used to analyse the data, and my findings reveal that higher levels of perception management competency (PM), relationship management competency (RM), and self-management competency (SM) among women academic leaders can signal greater leadership effectiveness. PM, RM, and SM are positively associated with leaders' relations-oriented behaviours (RoB), while RM is positively related to leaders' change-oriented behaviours (CoB).

My work adds to the existing body of knowledge on global leadership by addressing the question of how global leaders perceive and develop their identities (Cotter, 2022). Specifically, I investigate the self-identity of women academic leaders and its impact on their leadership effectiveness in a global setting.

   Second, I investigate whether specific categories of global leadership competencies can forecast and influence the effectiveness of leadership at the individual level (Reiche et al., 2022). The Global Leadership Competency (GLC) model provides a detailed analysis of how higher education institutions interact with the internationalisation environment. The differentiation I make between two perceived indicators of leadership effectiveness – relations-oriented behaviours and change-oriented behaviours - can help in understanding how leadership effectiveness is perceived. These indicators are important variables that leaders consider when making decisions (Sahu et al., 2020).

Third, although I emphasised the significance of social, emotional, and intercultural competency in the academic environment, a comprehensive analysis of the existing literature on SEIs in higher education demonstrated that only a limited number of studies investigated the combined effectiveness of all three competencies (Müller et al., 2020). My Global Leadership Competency (GLC) model contributes by assessing the combined effectiveness of three GLCs: social, emotional, and intercultural aspects of leadership behaviour. I evaluate the effectiveness of academic leadership using psychometric assessments that incorporate these social, emotional, and intercultural factors.

Fourth, my research, employing the behavioural approach to leadership analysis, demonstrates that leaders are not inherently innate but can be cultivated (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991; Northouse, 2021). While the behaviour approach may have the seeming drawback of disregarding situational aspects, my research can provide assistance to scholars studying the situation-trait approach (e.g., Gottfredson & Reina, 2020).

Fifth, I provide numerous additions to the body of international management literature. The significance of academic mobility, as highlighted by Baruch and Hall (2004), is underscored by my global leadership competency (GLC) model. This model offers essential content domains for the expatriate literature, which currently lacks a precise leadership competency framework for expatriate academic leaders, particularly for women expatriates. My work has significance for the overall field of academic leadership, as it seeks to identify the unique qualities required for effective leadership from social, emotional, and intercultural standpoints.

Sixth, I have created and tested a scale to assess the correlation between the global leadership competencies of women academic leaders (specifically in perception management, relationship management, and self-management) and their perceived effectiveness in leadership. Prior research

primarily examined the 'connection' between global leaders and their followers, utilising data from either the leaders themselves (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2009) or from many sources, including both leaders and their followers or supervisors (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2012; Gong, 2006). My work employs primary data from leaders and subsequently verifies the hypothesised model using external secondary data, which offers a more objective assessment of leadership performance.

Seventh, women leaders are an underappreciated form of human talent, and my research suggests strategies for higher education institutions to optimise their use of this valuable asset. Esen et al. (2020) employed the bibliometric technique to determine that most of the research on leadership studies in higher education institutions (HEI) has been generated and influenced by researchers from the United States, which highlights the necessity for a scholarly emphasis on understanding effective leadership practices in different settings. Various scholars, such as Eslen-Ziya and Yildirim (2022), have indicated that a significant factor contributing to the under-representation of women in higher education is the absence of women role models, which can be attributed to a pervasive hierarchical society. Although there is an increasing demand for study on gender inequality, there have been very few studies undertaken on the development of gender and leadership. In fact, there has been a 50 percent decrease in such studies during the indicated time (Esen et al., 2020), which goes against the rising demands for gender equality. I make an initial contribution to the existing body of knowledge in the fields of gender studies and leadership development studies. I emphasise two contributions to practical application. I develop a comprehensive global leadership competency (GLC) model that forecasts specific leader behaviours that significantly influence leaders' decision-making process (Vroom & Yetton, 1973).

At last, the incorporation of individual leadership behaviours with institutional requirements in leadership development programmes for women leaders reveals meta-level patterns. These

patterns shed light on the design of leadership development interventions on a global scale (Clark et al., 2020). It fosters the development of a durable, collaborative atmosphere that prioritises Equity, Diversity, and Inclusion (EDI) (Kirton & Greene, 2021).

Paper Two

In the wake of an escalating awareness of social justice issues, the promotion of diversity, equity, and inclusion (DEI) in higher education (HE) has surged to the forefront of academic discussions (Quinteros & Covarrubias, 2023; Jordan et al., 2021). Historically, the methods employed to foster support for DEI among faculty have primarily revolved around structured workshops and intervention programs (Rogers-Sirin & Sirin, 2009), and the effectiveness of these initiatives remains undeniable. A prominent aim of these DEI interventions is to elevate the visibility of women leaders by offering them as exemplar models (Latu et al., 2013). Some argue that leadership is inherently socially constructed, suggesting that leaders' motivations, beliefs, and attitudes are intertwined with their social identities (Fairhurst & Grant, 2010). While previous research has explored structural impediments, such as patriarchal hierarchies, in the context of women's career advancement (Mavin & Yusupova, 2020), limited attention has been paid to the collective influence of women's academics' personality traits, attitudes toward cultural diversity, perceptions of gender bias, and their motivations to lead on their leadership effectiveness, which are integral internal factors impacting women's career progression.

Crucially, the ability to motivate is a pivotal component in leadership effectiveness (Gilley et al., 2009). Kanfer (1990) defines motivation as a conceptual framework to investigate what drives individuals to pursue goals or outcomes. Within organizational behaviour, the relationship between

individuals' motivation to lead and their leadership effectiveness has been extensively examined, revealing a positive correlation between these variables (Sadeghi & Pihie, 2012; Saputra, 2021). Additionally, self-efficacy, as a motivational component, is positively associated with the inclination of individuals to engage in effective leadership behaviours (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Furthermore, intrinsic motivation, characterized by an innate drive to engage in an activity for self-fulfilling purposes, has been identified as a significant predictor of leadership effectiveness (Eden, 1992; Auvinen et al., 2020). In the context of achieving organizational goals, leadership effectiveness pertains to a leader's capacity to influence their followers (Yukl, 2012). Given their inherent high level of autonomy (Henkel, 2005), academics necessitate cultivating high-quality, individualized relationships to achieve optimal leadership outcomes. Drawing from personality theories, which seek to comprehend the processes underlying the formation of individuals' personality patterns, explore the mediating role of motivation to lead in the relationship between individual personality and leadership effectiveness. Personality theories are approached from two main perspectives: psychoanalytic theory (Freud, 1989; Elliott, 2017) and trait theory (Eysenck, 1952; Fleeson, & Jayawickreme, 2015). Through these lenses, I examine how motivation to lead influences the interplay between individual personality and leadership effectiveness.

The trait perspective perceives individuals' personalities as stable and quantifiable traits that can predict their behaviours (Hogan et al., 1994). Numerous studies have discussed the significant impact of personality traits on leadership effectiveness, including relationship interest, interpersonal engagement, and emotional sensitivity (Shaffer et al., 2006; Mendenhall et al., 2012).

Conversely, the psychoanalytic perspective in personality theory underscores individuals'

unconscious attitudes when evaluating specific objects or ideas (Freud, 1923; Kernberg & Caligor, 2005). For instance, in the context of internationalization in higher education, cultural intelligence has been recognized as a critical asset for leaders to achieve favourable leadership outcomes (Groves & Feyerherm, 2011; Grubb, 2015; Gómez-Leal et al., 2022). Scholars have contended that leaders with a heightened awareness of multiculturalism and an orientation toward multicultural leadership are more effective in leading culturally diverse groups. They can foster trust and positive relationships among colleagues from diverse cultural backgrounds, contributing to favourable leadership outcomes (Cox et al., 1991; Gómez-Leal et al., 2022).

Within social cognition, women's academics are often influenced by unconscious judgments and perceptions, particularly about underlying gender bias (PGB), which presents a significant barrier to their career advancement (Eslen-Ziya & Yildirim, 2022). Moreover, studies have argued that these unconscious judgments, often called 'implicit bias,' lead individuals to internalize negative stereotypes about themselves (e.g., Kiefer & Sekaquaptewa, 2007). These gender stereotypes can subtly influence the social behaviours of women academics, potentially causing them to question their suitability and capacity for leadership, further internalizing this bias, which, in turn, affects leadership outcomes (Giacomin et al., 2022).

Nevertheless, from the perspective of personality theory, motivation to lead can be seen as an 'outcome' resulting from an individual's personality traits, attitudes, beliefs, and perceptions of their social environment. As previously discussed, certain combinations of personality traits (namely relationship interest, interpersonal engagement, and emotional sensitivity), more positive attitudes toward cultural diversity (ACD), and lower perceptions of gender bias (PGB) may lead

to higher leadership effectiveness (LE). Consequently, the relationship between motivation to lead and perceived LE may also be influenced by the underlying personality traits, ACD, and PGB embedded within an individual's overall personality framework.

Hence, according to the tenets of personality theory and findings related to motivation to lead and perceived LE, I anticipate that women academic leaders with specific personality traits, more positive ACD, and weaker PGB will have higher perceived LE due to their heightened motivation to lead. My study, therefore, seeks to examine whether the mediating role of motivation to lead in the relationship between personality traits, attitudes toward cultural diversity, perceptions of gender bias, and perceived leadership effectiveness can be substantiated.

My research introduces a fresh perspective on women academic leaders' motivation to lead, conceiving it as an outcome shaped by their personality traits, attitudes toward cultural diversity, and perceptions of gender bias in their work environments. I delve into the association between women academics' motivation to lead and their perceived leadership effectiveness, providing empirical support for my proposed model. In a theoretical context, my findings extend the realm of personality theory (Eysenck, 1952) by identifying factors influencing women's academic leadership effectiveness through their personality traits. My study reveals that higher levels of interpersonal engagement, emotional sensitivity, and relationship interest are linked to a greater motivation to assume leadership roles, culminating in enhanced leadership effectiveness. Additionally, I contribute to the fundamental literature on values (Schwartz et al., 2012) by exploring women academic leaders' attitudes toward cultural diversity, elucidating the intricate social and psychological dynamics that influence inter-group relationships. Furthermore, my study

enriches the realm of social cognition by illustrating how women academics interpret and respond to social cues and stereotypes, ultimately affecting their perceived leadership effectiveness via their motivation to lead and their perceptions of gender bias.

From a managerial standpoint, understanding the personality traits exhibited by women academics can provide Human Resources (HR) professionals with valuable insights to make more judicious decisions regarding recruitment and promotions, ensuring that these decisions align with the core values of their institutions. Additionally, utilizing this knowledge of women academics' personalities can be instrumental in constructing teams that maximize the synergy between their strengths and weaknesses.

Furthermore, developing leadership training and development programs specifically tailored to women's unique strengths and requirements, taking into account their distinct personality attributes, is highly recommended. These programs can serve as a strategic means of empowering women in academia to reach their full potential as influential leaders.

Moreover, the insights gleaned from my examination of women's attitudes toward cultural diversity can play a pivotal role in formulating policies and initiatives to foster multiculturalism and facilitate intercultural dialogue within academic institutions. By incorporating a deeper understanding of these attitudes into the planning and implementation of such programs, institutions can work toward creating an environment that celebrates diversity and promotes constructive interactions among diverse cultural backgrounds.

Paper Three

This study explores the complex relationship between women academic leaders and their colleagues, focusing on how this relationship affects leadership effectiveness. It is based on the entity perspective within Relational Leadership Theory (RLT) (Uhl-Bien, 2006) and examines this dynamic using the lens of relational dialectics theory (RDT) (Baxter, 2011).

The assessment of leadership effectiveness is significantly influenced by prevailing gender stereotypes, which dictate whether specific behaviours indicate effective leadership (Heilman, 2012). Historical and cultural contexts mould these stereotypes, with leaders deemed effective when they conform to predetermined roles (Madden, 2011). However, it is essential to recognize that leadership is a socially constructed concept shaped by complex interactions, cultural norms, and collective beliefs. These factors significantly influence the interpretation of leadership outcomes (Endres & Weibler, 2017). Thus, exploring leader-follower relationships within the intricate interplay of multiple social identities becomes imperative.

A substantial body of scholarly research has scrutinized the position of women in leadership roles within the realm of colleges and universities (e.g., Madsen, 2012; Brabazon & Schulz, 2020). While notable progress has been made in expanding leadership roles, implementing strategies, and adopting best practices (e.g., Dopson et al., 2019; Barnard et al., 2022), the opportunities for women to assume leadership positions in higher education have seen only limited improvement. Despite these advancements, significant barriers persist, and practices influenced by conscious and unconscious biases continue to prevail. Therefore, it is crucial to recognize the immense potential for higher education to benefit from actively identifying, preparing, and promoting a more significant number of competent women into leadership roles (Madsen & Longman, 2020).

This study, grounded in the entity perspective within Relational Leadership Theory (RLT), delves into the intricate relationship between women academic leaders and their colleagues, investigating

how this dynamic influences leadership effectiveness through the lens of relational dialectics theory (RDT). The contrapuntal analysis of a comprehensive dataset reveals two competing discourses that provide insights into the impact of leader-follower relationships on the leadership effectiveness of women academic leaders.

The dominant discourse, "Recognition of the Importance of Deep Interaction," underscores the significance of cultivating robust relationships with colleagues. It highlights the detrimental effects of colleague disengagement and emphasizes the advantages of delegation, empowerment, recognition, and appreciation. This discourse also underscores the importance of strategic and career planning for colleagues and leaders. Conversely, the marginal discourse, "Resistance to Deep Interaction," focuses on the potential negative consequences of close leader-follower relationships. These potential drawbacks include adverse effects on the leader's well-being, burnout, excessive workload due to inadequate delegation, and a possible negative impact on professionalism.

These findings underscore the complexity of leader-follower relationships and the multiple variables that can influence leadership effectiveness. Women academic leaders must navigate these dynamics carefully, considering intimate colleague relationships' benefits and potential drawbacks. Furthermore, the discursive interaction between these two competing discourses highlights the intricate nature of the topic, revealing a dynamic where participants exhibit processes of naturalization, implicit acceptance of the dominant discourse, and an awareness of the potential difficulties and negative consequences associated with close relationships, as indicated by neutralization and topic avoidance.

This study, based on Relational Leadership Theory (RLT, Uhl-Bien, 2006), contributes to the field of leadership by shedding light on the profound impact of the leader-follower relationship on

the effectiveness of women academic leaders. The dominant discourse, "Recognition of the Importance of Deep Interaction," enriches my understanding of effective leadership by emphasizing the role of positive relationships and deep interactions in fostering leadership effectiveness. Women leaders who cultivate strong connections with colleagues are likelier to experience positive outcomes in engagement, productivity, and career development.

This study examines the impact of women academic leaders' interactions with colleagues on their leadership effectiveness based on the entity perspective of Relational Leadership Theory (RLT) and the lens of Relational Dialectics Theory (RDT) (Baxter, 2011), which makes significant contributions to the fields of relational leadership, relational dialectics, and gender studies. First, my study presents a new viewpoint and questions the commonly accepted beliefs about the positive outcomes of developing strong relationships with followers in the academic setting (Hollander, 2012). Second, this study enriches the field of Relational Leadership Theory (RLT) by emphasising the conflicts that arise from relying too much on interpersonal ties, while also recognising the significance of building robust relationships as a valued asset for women who hold leadership positions in academia. Third, this study emphasises the conversation surrounding "Resistance to Deep Interaction," acknowledging the difficulties and potential drawbacks linked to excessive dependence on personal connections for obtaining resources, which underscores the significance for leaders to be aware of the potential trade-offs between close relationships and factors like personal welfare, workload, and professionalism.

Fourth, I further investigate the examination of the relational dynamics between a leader and a follower (Einola & Alvesson, 2021) by introducing two additional approaches. First, to further explore the characteristics of the leader and follower interaction, I will now introduce the RDT (Baxter, 2011). Second, since Einola and Alvesson (2021) argued that an inherent tendency

towards immaturity is present in followers who excessively depend on the chosen leader. Consequently, it is crucial to conduct thorough empirical investigations that encompass the viewpoints of all parties involved in a relationship (Einola & Alvesson, 2021). Therefore, I analyse the viewpoints of leaders to explore how their relationships with their followers (colleagues) influence their leadership outcomes (due to limitations in the data, further research is encouraged to use data from followers).

Fifth, my work contributes to the existing RLT (Uhl-Bien, 2006) scholarship by introducing RDT (Baxter, 2011) to shed light on how the leader-follower connection affects the success of women academic leaders. Leaders benefit from practicing relationship management, which allows them to build trust and improve their performance as leaders (Einola & Alvesson, 2021; Barnard et al., 2022). My study proposes the utilisation of RDT to examine the ever-changing dynamics of leader-follower interactions. This is because discourses, or the ways in which people communicate, have a flexible character and will adjust their underlying meanings in response to different situations (Baxter & Braithwaite, 2008). At last, the interaction between the prevailing and marginalised discourses additionally enhances the field of gender studies scholarship. For instance, when individuals adopt and incorporate the prevailing way of thinking and speaking, it indicates that they have internalised the cultural standards and expectations related to women's leadership styles and relationships (e.g., Madden, 2011). In addition, the study also uncovers aspects of neutralisation and topic avoidance, demonstrating an acknowledgement of the possible difficulties and adverse outcomes linked to intimate relationships. The findings presented in this study contribute to my understanding of gender dynamics in leadership. They shed insight on the tensions and difficulties that women leaders may encounter as they strive to balance relational leadership with its possible downsides (Epitropaki et al., 2017).

Table 2. Summary of the Three Studies

Paper	Research Question(s)	Methods	Findings	Outcome/implications for theory
1	RQ1: What is global leadership competency's impact on women leaders' perceived leadership effectiveness in HEIs? RQ2: Which type of GLC could indicate a specific leadership effectiveness?	Quan, SEM	1. Three dimensions of global leadership competencies (GLCs) incorporating social, emotional, and intercultural aspects are positively related to perceived leadership effectiveness: perception management competency (PM), relationship management competency (RM), and self-management competency (SM). These are positively related to leaders' relations-oriented behaviours, and change-oriented behaviours. 2. In addition, above three dimensions of global leadership competencies are positively related to PTES, NSS and REF scores (with different significant level).	1. My global leadership competency (GLC) model offers a novel contribution to organizational psychology literature by examining the effectiveness of the three GLCs collectively, which include social, emotional, and intercultural components of leadership behaviours. Despite my clarification of the importance of social, emotional, and intercultural competency in the academic setting, a systematic review of SEIs literature in higher education revealed that few studies examined the effectiveness of all three competencies collectively (Müller et al., 2020). 2. I investigate whether certain types of global leadership competencies can predict and shape leadership effectiveness at individual level (Reiche et al., 2022). 3. Methodological contributions: I developed and validated a scale to measure the relationship between women academic leaders' global leadership competencies (perception management competency, relationship management competency and self-management competency) and their perceived leadership effectiveness. Previous studies mainly focused on exploring 'relationship' between global leaders and their followers' using data from either from leader themselves (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2009), or multi-source, from both leaders themselves and their followers or supervisors (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2012; Gong, 2006). My study uses data from leaders as first-level data, then re-validate the hypothesized model using external secondary data which can more objectively measure leadership effectiveness.

2	My study aims to examine whether the mediation effect of the motivation to lead on the relationship between personality, attitudes on cultural diversity, and perception of gender bias and perceived leadership effectiveness can be supported	Quan, SEM	I found that women academic leaders with higher levels of specific personality traits (relationship interest, interpersonal engagement, emotional sensitivity) and more favourable attitudes toward cultural diversity are more likely to be seen as having higher leadership effectiveness. However, women academic leaders who perceive more gender bias in their career development are more likely to be less motivated to lead and exhibit lower leadership effectiveness.	1. First, we expand upon previous research on personality theory (Eysenck, 1952) to understand how women academics' personality traits can influence their leadership effectiveness, which is mediated by their motivation to lead. Previous research suggests that women academics' relationship interest, interpersonal engagement and emotional sensitivity have a positive relationship with leadership effectiveness (Stevens et al., 2014), and there is a positive correlation between individuals' motivation to lead (MLT) and leadership effectiveness (Sadeghi & Pihie, 2012; Saputra, 2021). In alignment with these research streams, I delve into whether the relationship between women academics' underlying personality and leadership effectiveness can be mediated by their motivation to lead. 2. I investigate the outcomes of increasing cultural diversity within top management teams at the institutional level (Ponomareva et al. in 2022) within higher education institutions. 3. Third, I build upon previous studies to gain insights into how the perceptions of gender bias among women academics can influence their leadership effectiveness mediated by their motivation to lead, based upon the basic value (Schwartz et al., 2012) literature. 4. Besides, as there is a positive correlation between individuals' motivation to lead (MLT) and leadership effectiveness (Sadeghi & Pihie, 2012; Saputra, 2021), In alignment with these research streams, I delve into whether the underlying perceptions of gender bias among women academics can influence

				their motivation to lead, considering MLT as an outcome influenced by these perceptions.
3	I examined how women academic leaders' relationship with their colleagues influences their leadership effectiveness through the lens of relational dialectics theory (RDT).	Qualitative, contrapuntal analysis	My analysis of a data corpus revealed two competing discourses that shed light on the influence of the leader-follower relationship on the leadership effectiveness of women academic leaders. The dominant discourse, labelled "Recognition of the Importance of Deep Interaction," emphasizes the significance of developing strong relationships with colleagues, highlighting the negative impact of colleague disengagement, the benefits of delegation and empowerment, the importance of recognition and appreciation, the support for strategic planning, and the advantages of career planning and self-reflection for both colleagues and leaders. On the other hand, the marginal discourse, labelled "Resistance to Deep Interaction" highlights the potential negative consequences of close leader-follower relationships, including adverse effects on the leader's well-being and burnout, inadequate delegation leading to excessive workload, and a negative impact on professionalism.	1. First, my study adds new content on the RLT (Uhl-Bien, 2006) scholarship by illuminating the impact of the leader-follower relationship on the effectiveness of women academic leaders. 2. My study contributes to RLT (Uhl-Bien, 2006) by highlighting the importance of leader-follower relationship as a valuable resource for women academic leaders. 3. My study makes a significant theoretical contribution to the field of gender studies. Findings shed light on the unique challenges and opportunities women leaders encounter in the academic context. The dominant discourse, "Recognition of the Importance of Deep Interaction" emphasizes themes such as the negative impact of colleague disengagement, the benefits of delegation and empowerment, challenge traditional gender stereotypes that may have previously restricted women's leadership opportunities (e.g., lack in women leadership model, Madsen & Longman, 2020).

Chapter 2 Paper 1: A global leadership competency model for academic women leaders: attaining leadership effectiveness

Abstract

The increased internationalization in higher education has shifted academic mobility patterns leading to intercultural management challenges. The United Nations and European Union have encouraged the inclusion of social, emotional, and intercultural competencies in the academic context as sub-areas of global leadership competency (GLC). Yet, there has been little research into how the combined effects of these global leadership competencies influence academics' perceived leadership effectiveness. Moreover, given the disproportionate number of women leaders, leadership competency development requires additional gender equality interventions. Grounded in global leadership theory, I study the relationship between GLC and leaders' perceived leadership effectiveness in higher education (HE). I analysed a survey data with a sample of 255 women academic leaders in the United Kingdom using structural equation modelling. I found that the three competencies of social, emotional, and intercultural of GLCs are positively related to perceived leadership effectiveness: perception management competency (PM), relationship management competency (RM), and self-management competency (SM). These are positively related to leaders' relations-oriented behaviours, and change-oriented behaviours.

Keywords: global leadership, cross-cultural management, gender, higher education

Introduction

Globalization and marketization have shepherded higher education institutions (HEIs) towards enormous organizational transformation (García-Morales, Garrido-Moreno, & Martín-Rojas, 2021). Within two decades, the number of English-medium foreign schools has expanded from 2,584 to 11,200, while the number of full-time academic staff has increased 546,000 during that period (ISC, 2022), showing a substantial rising demand for academic staff expatriates. Furthermore, according to Bonaccorsi & Biancardi (2021), 19 European countries and over 1500 HEIs report the steady increase in the share of foreign academic staff, albeit at varying rates. Under such cultural diversity and shifting academic mobility conditions, academic leaders may benefit from social, emotional, and intercultural competencies for developing effective leadership (Müller et al., 2020). However, the literature covering these competences is scant.

Moreover, HEIs have fundamental differences from for profit organizations in terms of organizational goals, structure, leadership style, and approaches to organizational performance measurement (Baruch & Ramalho, 2006; Erickson, Hanna, & Walker, 2021). Whether in the business sector or higher education, the under-representation of women stands out as an indisputable theme globally (Merluzzi & Phillips, 2022). The existence of a patriarchal hierarchy (Eslen-Ziya & Yildirim, 2022), the increased labour intensity (Rowlands, 2019), and the dual pressure of maintaining a family-work balance (Lendák-Sabók, 2020) are all obstacles to the academic advancement of women. Such under-representation of women academic leaders has led to a shortage of women leadership role models (Porter & Serra, 2020), indicating that society is missing out on half of its human capital, which can be addressed through effective leadership development interventions.

Therefore, grounded in global leadership theory, I aim to investigate the impact of global

leadership competency on women leaders' perceived leadership effectiveness in the context of HE. A link between GLC and effective leadership has been identified, as has the linkage between social, emotional, and intercultural competencies and effective leadership behaviours (Müller et al., 2020). Concurrently, I investigate further whether global leadership competencies can predict certain effective leadership behaviours (Reiche, Osland, Mendenhall, & Szkudlarek, 2022). Moreover, I focus on leadership competency development as it has been shown to boost the visibility of women academics in leadership positions (He & Leeman, 2021).

The objectives of my study are twofold: first, to determine whether there is a connection between women leaders' GLC and their leadership effectiveness; and second, to determine which type of GLC can indicate a particular type of leadership effectiveness. My research questions are:

RQ1: What is the global leadership competency's impact on women leaders' perceived leadership effectiveness in HEIs?

RQ2: Which type of GLCs could indicate relations-oriented and change-oriented leadership effectiveness?

My sample consists of 255 surveyed women academic leaders from 127 universities in the UK. I use structural equation modelling (SEM) to analyse data. I found that higher levels of perception management competency (PM), relationship management competency (RM), and self-management competency (SM) among women academic leaders can indicate greater leadership effectiveness. PM, RM and SM were positively related to leaders' relations-oriented behaviours (RoB) while RM was positively related to leaders' relations-oriented behaviours (RoB).

My study contributes to the literature from both theoretical and practical standpoints. Theoretically, I first contribute to the gender and leadership development literature. Incorporating social, emotional, and intercultural competencies, I establish a global leadership competency (GLC)

model, predicting certain leader behaviours that play an important role in leaders' decision-making process (Vroom & Yetton, 1973). Second, by examining the effectiveness of all three GLCs collectively, my global leadership competency (GLC) model provides an original contribution to the organizational psychology literature. Third, I examine whether specific global leadership competencies can predict and influence individual effectiveness, as suggested by Reiche et al. (2022).

Practically, current, and potential women academic leaders may benchmark their leadership competencies to improve their leadership effectiveness, advance their careers, and promote equality, diversity, and inclusion (Kirton & Greene, 2021). Concurrently, these meta-level patterns in designing and tailoring leadership development program initiatives for women leaders, which integrate individual leadership behaviours with institutional needs, illuminate the design of leadership development interventions worldwide from a global viewpoint (Clark, Chapleo, & Suomi, 2020). From a practical standpoint, my study suggests ways for HEIs to better capitalize on an underutilized source of human capital: women leaders and inform the work of HR professionals. The literature provides ample evidence for women's under-utilization in global leadership roles (Connerley, Mecham, & Strauss, 2008), a challenge [it is not a gap – it is known] that I address in this study.

I explicate the theoretical foundations of my study before constructing a hypothesized model. Then I offer the discussion on the methodology, model estimation and test of my hypotheses. This paper ends with a discussion of findings, implications, and limitations.

Theoretical Background and Hypothesis Development

HE internationalization

Universities are transitioning from a traditional teaching and research role to a more entrepreneurial one in response to significant global concerns (Czerniewicz et al., 2023) Globally, the ever-changing policies and public demands are making leaders in higher education more competitive and adept at achieving sustainable growth (Zulfqar, Valcke, Quraishi, & Devos, 2021). Consequently, numerous institutions have developed their institutional leadership positions to foster sustainable development by adjusting to market demand (Eustachio et al., 2020). Moreover, global, and local events (e.g., expansion of international campuses) raise concerns about their impact on the wider environment. Significant shifts in government policy and a limited capacity to undertake institutional initiatives are influencing HEIs (Scott, 2021). Moreover, because of the enormous growth in operational expenses, HEIs may need to integrate a variety of activities into policy execution to develop a comprehensive global presence (Scott, 2021).

Global leadership theory and its application to higher education context

Global leadership theory (Lobel, 1990) uses multidisciplinary perspectives under the assumption that global leaders possess specific characteristics and acquired knowledge that serve as a basis for higher-level competencies. To familiarize themselves with the psychological, geographical, social, and anthropological repercussions of globalization, it is necessary for future leaders to acquire abilities in all areas of human experience. It is a process that can create new mental models for individuals, given that the literature on global leadership has significantly different theories, models, and empirical findings than the literature on traditional leadership (Bennis & Thomas, 2002).

Intercultural competency is the knowledge, skills and attitudes that allow individuals to

inclusively and adaptively accommodate work demands and live in a culturally diverse environment (Deardorff, 2006). Intercultural competency is a set of cognitive and behavioural skills used to communicate with persons from diverse cultural backgrounds (Leung, Ang, & Tan, 2014), such as interpersonal skills. Concurrently, social, and emotional competency have been discussed with intercultural competence together (Bierman et al., 2008), they are closely related but must be handled independently (Jokinen, 2005). Emotional competency is the capacity to recognize, interpret, and respond to the emotions of others (Mayer, 1999), including self-awareness and self-management. Social competency entails managing social connections and emphasizing contact with others from diverse cultural backgrounds (Rose-Krasnor, 1997).

Numerous international organizations, such as the United Nations and European Union, have encouraged incorporating social, emotional, and intercultural skills (SEIs) in the academic setting (Müller et al., 2020). There are several ways to measure SEIs. For example, The CASEL Five (2005) was an effective approach for examining the SEIs of school staff members, incorporating self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, relationship skills and responsible decision-making. In addition, the Global Competencies Inventory (Stevens, Bird, Mendenhall, & Oddou, 2014) summarized the previously overlapping content domain of global leadership competencies studied by other scholars into three broad dimensions: the cognitive, the relationship-related, and the self-related dimension, and re-labelled them as perception management competency, relationship management competency, and self-management competency. Several discrete dimensions make up perception management competency, such as nonjudgmentalness, and inquisitiveness (of cultural differences). Perception management competency is the cognitive method that individuals employ to interpret the world around them, particularly cultural differences. An individual's perspective on the significance of relationships (e.g., relationship

interest, emotional sensitivity) comprises distinct characteristics of relationship management competency. Self-management competency is the capacity to effectively manage emotions and stress and regulate the self-strength of one's identity (e.g., self-confidence, emotional resilience) (Stevens et al., 2014). Incorporating social, intercultural, and emotional aspects of competencies, GCI covers a broader and more thorough content domain than prior global leadership competency measurements.

However, despite the importance of social, emotional, and intercultural competence in the academic setting, a systematic review of SEIs literature in the higher education context revealed that limited literature examined the effectiveness of all three competencies together (Müller et al., 2020). Consequently, the effect of global leadership competencies, which simultaneously incorporate social, emotional, and intercultural competency, on leadership effectiveness remains unresolved and warrants further investigation.

Perceived Leadership effectiveness and its application to higher education context

Leadership effectiveness refers to a leader's ability to influence followers toward the fulfilment of organizational objectives and an evolutionary process of interconnected events and individual responses to these events (Amagoh, 2009). Effective leadership can be used to predict organizational performance in three aspects: (1) facilitate the implementation of management program and the success of implementation (Zhu, Chew, & Spangler, 2005); (2) a positive impact on the financial performance of the organization (Yukl, 2008); and (3) positively influence human capital outputs (Bowen & Ostroff, 2004).

In the context of higher education, Daniëls, Hondeghem, and Dochy (2019) reviewed and

categorized effective leader behaviours into six categories: (1) focus on curriculum design and instruction, (2) shape academic unit's climate and culture, (3) maintain good internal and external relationships, (4) clearly articulate academic unit's mission and vision, (5) recognize and reward colleagues' achievements, and (6) talent recruitment and retention ability. Although numerous attributes or individual competencies of academic leaders are essential for effective educational leadership (Leithwood, Harris, & Hopkins, 2008; Robinson, 2010), little emphasis has been paid to psychometric measures of leadership behaviours, even though a sets of cognitive, social, and psychological 'personal leadership resources' (Leithwood, Harris, & Hopkins, 2020) can be used to predict and explain leadership results in the education environment.

Due to the complexity of evaluating overall group performance, which was under the combined effect of financial capital, human capital, and leadership effectiveness (Yukl, 2008), there are a plethora of ways to measure leadership effectiveness. However, measuring effective leadership is complex with limited scholarship investigating it in its entirety. Scholars previously evaluated leaders' success primarily based on three factors: follower outcomes, leader effectiveness, and group performance (Derue, Nahrgang, Wellman, & Humphrey, 2011). Effective leadership can be captured through effective leadership behaviours including relations-oriented (Yukl, Mahsud, Prussia, & Hassan, 2019) and change-oriented (Gil, 2005; Yukl et al., 2019) behaviours.

Supporting, developing, recognizing, and empowering subordinates are examples of relationship-oriented behaviours that help to build relationships among group members and improve group performance (Yukl, 2012). They are positively related to staff job satisfaction and performance (Yukl, 2006). Leaders utilize change-oriented behaviours such as promoting change, envisioning change, fostering innovation in teamwork, and enabling collective learning to boost creativity, collective learning, and rapid adaptation to external changes (Yukl, 2012), which are

important indicators of organizational performance (Vera & Crossan, 2004). Given the importance of relations-oriented and change-oriented leadership behaviours as indicators of leadership effectiveness, they have become an essential component of leadership effectiveness-related research in higher education.

In my study, I use the label 'perceived leadership effectiveness' to indicate that the leadership effectiveness I evaluate is more cognitive and tied to leaders' behaviours than objective 'effectiveness' such as financial improvement and performance.

GCI (Global Competency Inventory) model

Bird and Mendenhall (2016) argued that 'Global leaders, unlike domestic leaders, address people worldwide, and interacting with people from different cultural backgrounds. Global leadership theory, unlike its domestic counterpart, is concerned with the interaction of people and ideas among cultures, rather than with either the efficacy of particular leadership styles within the leader's home country or with the comparison of leadership approaches among leaders from various countries – each of whose domain is limited to issues and people within their own cultural environment. A fundamental distinction is that global leadership is neither domestic nor multidomestic' (p.77). The earliest definition of global leadership extrapolated from the definitions of domestic leadership (Yeung & Ready, 1995). Hollander (1985) described global leadership as a process, that members [from different cultural backgrounds] of the community work together towards a common goal and value, leading to an improvement of the life quality. Therefore, 'global leaders' can be recognized as the people who have great influence on the process of global leadership.

Jokinen (2005) argued that global leadership competencies are those universal qualities that enable individuals performing their job outside their countries as well as organizational culture,

despite of their educational or cultural background, or the people interact and communicate with different backgrounds and cultures in their home country. A study of CEOs, senior executives, and other thought leaders indicated that 62% believe that business schools and professional organizations should be developing global leadership competencies, but only a small number had confidence that business schools (8%) or professional organizations (5%) were doing so (Osland et al., 2018).

Practitioners and scholars on global leadership competency studies have developed a number of assessment tools to develop global leaders, which can be classified in three broad aspects, namely cultural difference assessments, global leadership competency assessments and intercultural adaptability assessments (Mendenhal et al., 2017). Due to the focus in this research being on global leadership competency, this section introduces three assessment tools for global leadership competency.

Global Mindset Inventory

The Global Mindset Inventory was introduced by Thunderbird School of Global Management's Global Mindset Institute (GMI) to evaluate the characteristics required for global leaders who need to effectively influence their subordinates. According to Javidan, Teagarden and Bowen (2010, p.4), the concept of global mindset consists of three summarized individual characteristics) intellectual capital (α=.94); b) psychological capital (α=.89); c) social capital (α=.89). The intellectual capital comprises three separate facets: global business savvy, cognitive complexity and cosmopolitan outlook; The psychological capital still comprises three separate facets: passion for diversity, thirst for adventure and self-assurance: The social capital comprises three separate facets

as well: intercultural empathy, interpersonal impact and diplomacy (see Figure 1).

Figure 1 The Global Mindset Inventory (Javidan, Teagarden &Bowen, 2010, p.4)

Intellectual Capital	Psychological Capital	Social Capital
Global business savvy	Passion for diversity	Intercultural empathy
Cognitive complexity	Thirst for adventure	Interpersonal impact
Cosmopolitan outlook	Self-assurance	Diplomacy
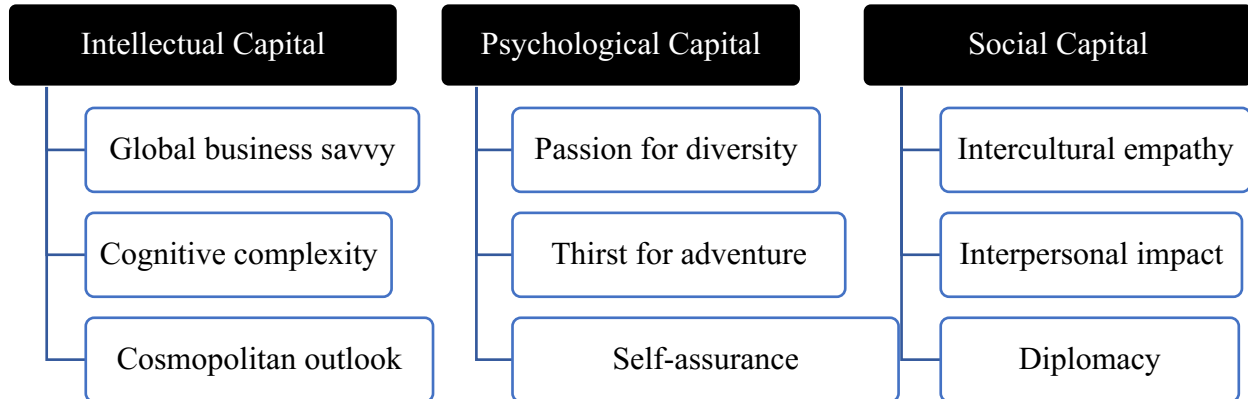
Global Competency Inventory

The Global Competency Inventory (GCI) was initially introduced by Black, Mendenhall and Oddou (1991) to elaborate the expatriate adjustment model, then developed by Stevens, Bird, Mendenhall and Oddou (2014), 17 dimensions of predispositions linked with dynamic global man-agerial-skill acquisition and effective intercultural leadership behaviours. This model comprises of three aspects, Perception Management (α=.91), Relationship Management (α=.93) and Self-Man-agement (α=.92) (see Figure 2)

Figure 2 The Global Competency Inventory (Stevens et al., 2014)

Perception Management	Relationship Management	Self Management
Nonjudgementalness	Relationship interest	Optimism
Inquisitiveness	Emotional sensitivity	Self-confidence
Tolerance of ambiguity	Self-awareness	Self-identity
Cosmopolitanism	Behavioural flexibility	Emotional resilience
Interest flexibility	Interpersonal engagement	Non-stress tendency
		Stress management

The Global Leadership Online

The Global Leadership Online (GLO) has been developed by Gundling et al. (2011) which measured five dimensions of 70 interviewees from 26 different countries and have been worked in up to 32 countries, see Figure 3.

Figure 3 The Global Leadership Online (Gundling et al., 2011)

My selection of intercultural competencies relevant to global leadership is largely informed by the work of Mendenhall, Stevens, Bird, and Oddou (2008), and Bird, Mendenhall, Stevens, and Oddou (2010). These studies utilize two foundational models for their conceptualization of the competencies underpinning the Global Competencies Inventory (GCI): Mendenhall and Oddou's (1985) Dimensions of Expatriate Acculturation and Black, Mendenhall, and Oddou's (1991) International Adjustment Model (IAM). Separate research within the global leadership literature has demonstrated significant overlap between the intercultural competencies required for global leadership and those associated with expatriate adjustment, as articulated in these models (Mendenhall, 2001;

Mendenhall & Osland, 2002).

In Stevens et al (2014)'s further work, the content domain of global competencies can be usefully summarized using three broad facets or dimensions for individuals: the cognitive/perceptual, other/relationship, and self/self-efficacy domains (Bhaskar- Shrinivas, et. al., 2005; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985; Black et. al., 1991; Thomas, 1998: 247). For clarity and pedagogical purposes, these three dimensions have been re-titled the Perception Management, Relationship Management, and Self-management domains in the Global Competencies Inventory (GCI).

Two main reasons have been given to explain why I choose Global Competency Inventory (GCI, Stevens et al., 2014) to measure global leadership competency. First, the GCI has highest reliability of all its sub-scales (Cronbach's value all greater than 0.9). secondly, the GCI model offers a comprehensive framework for analysing global leadership competencies, which infused with three broad facets or dimensions for individuals: the cognitive/perceptual, other/relationship, and self/self-efficacy domains.

Bird and Mendenhall (2016) argued that 'Global leaders, unlike domestic leaders, address people worldwide, and interact with people from different cultural backgrounds. Global leadership theory, unlike its domestic counterpart, is concerned with the interaction of people and ideas among cultures, rather than with either the effectiveness of particular leadership styles within the leader's home country or with the comparison of leadership approaches among leaders from various countries – each of whose domain is limited to issues and people within their own cultural environment. A fundamental distinction is that global leadership is neither domestic nor multidomestic' (p.77). The earliest definition of global leadership extrapolated from the definitions of domestic leadership

(Yeung & Ready, 1995). Hollander (1985) described global leadership as a process, that members [from different cultural backgrounds] of the community work together towards a common goal and value, leading to an improvement of the life quality. Therefore, 'global leaders' can be recognized as the people who have great influence on the process of global leadership.

Jokinen (2005) argued that global leadership competencies are those universal qualities that enable individuals performing their job outside their countries as well as organizational culture, despite of their educational or cultural background, or the people interact and communicate with different backgrounds and cultures in their home country. A study of CEOs, senior executives, and other thought leaders indicated that 62% believe that business schools and professional organizations should be developing global leadership competencies, but only a small number had confidence that business schools (8%) or professional organizations (5%) were doing so (Osland et al., 2018).

Practitioners and scholars on global leadership competency studies have developed a number of assessment tools to develop global leaders, which can be classified in three broad aspects, namely cultural difference assessments, global leadership competency assessments and intercultural adaptability assessments (Mendenhall et al., 2017). Due to the focus in this research being on global leadership competency, this section introduces three assessment tools for global leadership competency. The Global Mindset Inventory was introduced by Thunderbird School of Global Management's Global Mindset Institute (GMI) to evaluate the characteristics required for global leaders who need to effectively influence their subordinates. According to Javidan, Teagarden and Bowen (2010, p.4), the concept of global mindset consists of three summarized individual characteristics) intellectual capital (α=.94); b) psychological capital (α=.89); c) social capital (α=.89). The intellectual capital comprises three separate facets: global business savvy, cognitive complexity and

cosmopolitan outlook; The psychological capital still comprises three separate facets: passion for diversity, thirst for adventure and self-assurance: The social capital comprises three separate facets as well: intercultural empathy, interpersonal impact and diplomacy.

My selection of intercultural competencies relevant to global leadership is largely informed by the work of Mendenhall, Stevens, Bird, and Oddou (2008), and Bird, Mendenhall, Stevens, and Oddou (2010). These studies utilize two foundational models for their conceptualization of the competencies underpinning the Global Competencies Inventory (GCI): Mendenhall and Oddou's (1985) Dimensions of Expatriate Acculturation and Black, Mendenhall, and Oddou's (1991) International Adjustment Model (IAM). Separate research within the global leadership literature has demonstrated significant overlap between the intercultural competencies required for global leadership and those associated with expatriate adjustment, as articulated in these models (Mendenhall, 2001; Mendenhall & Osland, 2002).

In Stevens et al (2014)'s further work, the content domain of global competencies can be usefully summarized using three broad facets or dimensions for individuals: the cognitive/perceptual, other/relationship, and self/self-efficacy domains (Bhaskar- Shrinivas, et. al., 2005; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985; Black et. al., 1991; Thomas, 1998: 247). For clarity and pedagogical purposes, these three dimensions have been re-titled the Perception Management, Relationship Management, and Self-Management domains in the Global Competencies Inventory (GCI). Perception management competency is the cognitive process individuals use to interpret the world, particularly cultural variations, as indicated by nonjudgmentalness, inquisitiveness, tolerance of ambiguity, and interest flexibility, among others (Stevens et al., 2014). Those with a higher tolerance for ambiguity are

more likely to efficiently manage the stress imposed by uncertain surroundings and to be more adaptable and responsive to change (Judge, Thoresen, Pucik, & Welbourne, 1999). In addition, it can also predict effective intercultural communication (Ruben & Kealey, 1979), which facilitates forming positive relationships with others. A two-year post-intervention survey reveals long-term benefits associated with the development of nonjudgmentalness (Pless, Maak, & Stahl, 2012), and it is emphasized as a guiding attitude for school personnel in providing inclusive education (Dewsbury, Murray-Johnson, & Santucci, 2021). Additionally, interest flexibility is the capacity to substitute significant personal interests from one's own background and culture with similar but different cultural interests (Bird, Mendenhall, Stevens, & Oddou, 2010). It exhibits individuals' adaptability and desire to change (Arthur & Bennett, 1995). Furthermore, inquisitiveness is a tendency associated with perception management competency that relates to individuals' aspirations of learning, ideas, and values from diverse cultures, and it frequently leads to a desire to show relationship management-related behaviours (Mendenhall, Stevens, Bird, & Oddou, 2008), which is an important indicator of leadership effectiveness (Zaccaro, Dubrow, & Kolze, 2018) and help individuals work in complex environments (Zhu et al., 2019).

Important indicators of relationship management competency include relationship interest, interpersonal engagement, and emotional sensitivity, among others. Relationship management competency refers to an individual's capacity to perceive the emotional shifts of others and their perspectives on the significance of establishing relationships with others (Stevens et al., 2014). Interpersonal engagement refers to the extent to which individuals wish to develop and maintain interactions with individuals from other cultures, which is a relationship-oriented competency (Bird et al., 2010), and it is crucial to leadership outcomes (Prati et al., 2003; Fernandez & Shaw, 2020).

Emotional sensitivity refers to individuals' capacity to feel others' emotions (Stevens et al., 2014), and it can influence leaders' managerial outcomes (König, Graf-Vlachy, Bundy, & Little, 2020).

Self-management competency is the capacity to manage emotions and stress efficiently and to govern the self-strength of one's identity (e.g., self-confidence, emotional resilience, non-stress tendency) (Stevens et al., 2014). Self- identity has been identified as the individuals' perception of their roles in the social context (Van Knippenberg et al., 2004), and may influence their leadership effectiveness through various leader-member relationships (Hogg et al., 2005). In addition, non-stress tendency relates to an individual's capacity to withstand the stress that can affect their social life, highlighting its significance in relationship management issues (Mendenhall et al., 2008). The level of non-stress tendency is referred to as Neuroticism (Herold, Davis, Fedor, & Parsons, 2002). In a cross-cultural context, individuals with lower neuroticism tend to manage stress well, which is caused by making new friends and succeeding in their professions (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2012). Therefore, individuals with a higher non-stress tendency will exhibit more relationship-focused behaviours.

The rationale for selecting relationship interest, interpersonal engagement, and emotional sensitivity as indicators of relationship management competency is outlined below:

Relationship interest is often conceptually integrated with other abilities into broader constructs of interpersonal skills. For instance, Shaffer, Harrison, Gregersen, Black, and Ferzandi (2006) conceptualize their "people orientation" variable as encompassing both a desire to understand and relate to host country nationals, referred to here as Relationship Interest, and the capacity to develop close relationships with them, referred to here as Interpersonal Engagement. Similarly,

in their meta-analytic review of expatriate performance literature, Mol et al. (2005) identified interpersonal interest as a significant predictor of expatriate job performance. This foundational competency within the domain of Relationship Management has been widely acknowledged in both the expatriate literature (Shaffer et al., 2006) and the global leadership literature (Mendenhall & Osland, 2002).

Interpersonal engagement has been widely recognized as critical to cross-cultural effectiveness and adjustment as evidenced by numerous literature reviews. It has been classified under various terminologies, including people orientation (Müller et al., 2024; López-Cabarcos et al., 2022; Shaffer et al., 2006), interaction management (Larsson & Meier, 2023; Ruben & Kealey, 1979), relational abilities (Jordan & Cartwright, 1998), interpersonal skills (Fulmore et al., 2023), and intercultural competence (Wei & Xing, 2024). Similarly, reviews of global leadership literature emphasize its importance for effective intercultural interaction (Bolden et al., 2023; Dirani et al., 2020; Jokinen, 2005; Mendenhall & Osland, 2002), which consistently highlight the critical role of relationship-oriented competencies in achieving successful cross-cultural interactions and adjustments.

For emotional sensitivity, studies within both general leadership and global leadership research have identified emotional sensitivity as essential to intercultural effectiveness, as it enhances an individual's capacity to: demonstrate appropriate respect toward others, exhibit empathy at both interpersonal and cultural levels and demonstrate tolerance for individual differences (Higgs & Dulewicz, 2024; Goleman, 2021; Görgens-Ekermans & Roux, 2021; Riggio & Reichard, 2008; Hudson & Inkson, 2006;)

Also, these three items have the highest Coefficient Alpha Reliabilities in the rotated Principal Component Analysis conducted by Stevens et al. (2014). Therefore, in my study I chose relation-

ship interest, interpersonal engagement, and emotional sensitivity to measure relationship management competency.

Hypotheses development

Based on the above previous research and theory, I now go on to develop my hypotheses and theoretical model.

Perception management competency

The preceding discussion on global leadership competency and perceived leadership effectiveness indicates that perception management, relationship management, and self-management competencies are crucial global leadership competency indicators (Stevens et al., 2014). Additionally, relations-oriented, and change-oriented behaviours are major indicators of leadership effectiveness (Yukl, 2012).

Perception management competency is the cognitive process individuals use to interpret the world, particularly cultural variations, as indicated by nonjudgmentalness, inquisitiveness, tolerance of ambiguity, and interest flexibility, among others (Stevens et al., 2014). Those with a higher tolerance for ambiguity are more likely to efficiently manage the stress imposed by uncertain surroundings and to be more adaptable and responsive to change (Judge, Thoresen, Pucik, & Welbourne, 1999). In addition, it can also predict effective intercultural communication (Ruben & Kealey, 1979), which facilitates forming positive relationships with others. A two-year post-intervention survey reveals long-term benefits associated with the development of nonjudgmentalness (Pless, Maak, & Stahl, 2012), and it is emphasized as a guiding attitude for school personnel in providing inclusive education (Dewsbury, Murray-Johnson, & Santucci, 2021). Additionally, interest flexibility is the capacity to substitute significant personal interests from

one's own background and culture with similar but different cultural interests (Bird, Mendenhall, Stevens, & Oddou, 2010). It exhibits individuals' adaptability and desire to change (Arthur & Bennett, 1995). Furthermore, inquisitiveness is a tendency associated with perception management competency that relates to individuals' aspirations of learning, ideas, and values from diverse cultures, and it frequently leads to a desire to show relationship management-related behaviours (Mendenhall, Stevens, Bird, & Oddou, 2008), which is an important indicator of leadership effectiveness (Zaccaro, Dubrow, & Kolze, 2018) and help individuals work in complex environments (Zhu et al., 2019). Thus, I propose:

H₁: *Women academic leaders' perception management competency is positively related to their perceived relations-oriented behaviours.*

Here you need strong literature base for each hypothesis. It is about the literature, not 'I'. expect that when women academic leaders perceive the cultural differences fully and quickly while communicating with their colleagues, they tend to exhibit more relations-oriented behaviours, such as encouraging and recognizing the performance of their colleagues, demonstrating a strong desire to maintain positive relationships with colleagues, and their perceived leadership effectiveness will be scored higher.

H₂: *Women academic leaders' perception management competency is positively*

related to their perceived change-oriented behaviours.

I expect that when women academic leaders perceive the cultural differences fully and quickly while communicating with their colleagues, they tend to exhibit more change-oriented behaviours, such as encouraging innovation and collective learning, and their perceived leadership effectiveness will be scored higher.

Relationship management competency

Important indicators of relationship management competency include relationship interest, interpersonal engagement, and emotional sensitivity, among others. Relationship management competency refers to an individual's capacity to perceive the emotional shifts of others and their perspectives on the significance of establishing relationships with others (Stevens et al., 2014). Interpersonal engagement refers to the extent to which individuals wish to develop and maintain interactions with individuals from other cultures, which is a relationship-oriented competency (Bird et al., 2010), and it is crucial to leadership outcomes (Prati et al., 2003; Fernandez & Shaw, 2020). Emotional sensitivity refers to individuals' capacity to feel others' emotions (Stevens et al., 2014), and it can influence leaders' managerial outcomes (König, Graf-Vlachy, Bundy, & Little, 2020). Thus, I propose:

H_3: *Women academic leaders' relationship management competency is positively related to their perceived relations-oriented behaviours.*

I expect that when women academic leaders show great interest in establishing positive relationships with their colleagues and are sensitive to their emotional fluctuations. They tend to exhibit more relations-oriented behaviours, and their perceived leadership effectiveness will be scored higher.

H_4: *Women academic leaders' relationship management competency is positively related to their perceived change-oriented behaviours.*

I expect that when women academic leaders perceive the culture differences fully and quickly while communicating with their colleagues. They tend to exhibit more change-oriented behaviours, and their perceived leadership effectiveness will be scored higher.

Self-management competency

Self-management competency is the capacity to manage emotions and stress efficiently and to govern the self-strength of one's identity (e.g., self-confidence, emotional resilience, non-stress tendency) (Stevens et al., 2014). Self- identity has been identified as the individuals' perception of their roles in the social context (Van Knippenberg et al., 2004), and may influence their leadership effectiveness through various leader-member relationships (Hogg et al., 2005). In addition, non-stress tendency relates to an individual's capacity to withstand the stress that can affect their social life, highlighting its significance in relationship management issues (Mendenhall et al., 2008). The level of non-stress tendency is referred to as Neuroticism (Herold, Davis, Fedor, & Parsons, 2002). In a cross-cultural context, individuals with lower neuroticism tend to manage stress well, which is caused by making new friends and succeeding in their professions (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2012). Therefore, individuals with a higher non-stress tendency will exhibit more relationship-focused behaviours. Thus, I propose:

H_5: *Women academic leaders' self-management competency is positively related to their perceived relations-oriented behaviours.*

When women academic leaders can effectively manage their emotions and have a strong sense of self-identity, they tend to exhibit more relations-oriented behaviours, and their perceived leadership effectiveness will be scored higher.

H_6: *Women academic leaders' perceived self-management competency is positively related to their perceived change-oriented behaviours.*

I expect that when women academic leaders are able to effectively manage their emotions and have a strong sense of self-identity, they tend to exhibit more change-oriented behaviours, and their perceived leadership effectiveness will be scored higher.

I present my hypothesized model in Figure.1. This model is used to help understand the impact of global leadership competency on perceived leadership effectiveness.

Figure 4. Hypothesised Model
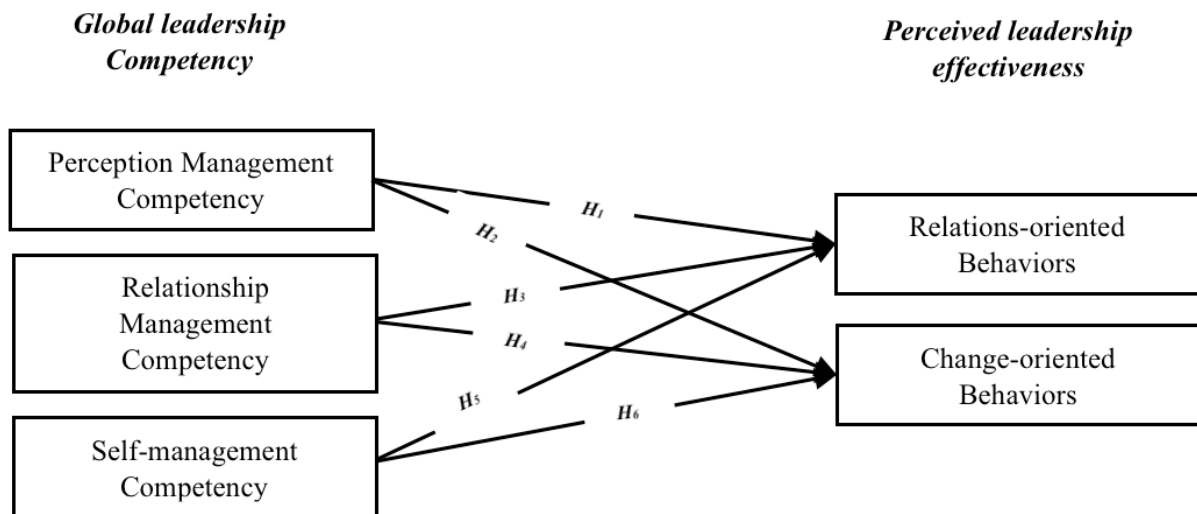
The context: UK HEIs

Shifting academic mobility trends

The UK government explicitly confirmed that transnational education is one of the crucial contributors in the expansion of the higher education industry (British Council, 2012). The percentage of full-time academic staff from outside the UK has fluctuated between 35% and 36% over the past seven years (HESA, 2022). In addition, the rapid growth of overseas campuses of UK universities is reflected in shifting pattern of academic staff mobility. Data from the Cross-Border Education Research Team indicates that 43 overseas campuses hosted by UK universities

were globally distributed as of November 2020 (C-BERT, 2021). These findings reflect an increase in academics' overseas postings and a shifting pattern of academics' mobility. Thus, the internationalization of UK HEIs and the shifting pattern of academic mobility imply the need for a more global discussion of leadership concerns.

Under-representation of women academic leaders

An analysis of the representation of women in leadership roles in 173 UK universities indicate that 40% of all UK higher education governing body members are women, but only 27% of governing bodies are chaired by women (HESA, 2019), demonstrating the under-representation of women academics in leadership positions. Women-specific leadership development programs have been launched for women academics to provide them with leadership models and skills. For example, Advance HE's 2013 introduction of 'Project Aurora' has shown to be an effective method for raising the proportion of women academic leaders (Arnold, Barnard, Bosley, & Munir, 2019). The program's annual reports reveal that certain issues remain. In the Year Five Report (Barnard, Arnold, Bosley, & Munir, 2021), despite the positive effects of attending Aurora, some participants reported that their perceptions of a collaborative and developmental workplace culture were more negative than positive, indicating an issue with individuals' perceptions of surrounding environments such as workplace values, beliefs, and colleagues' cultural backgrounds.

Thus, based on the issues in Aurora, my research on establishing a set of leadership competency models could greatly assist in adding further insights to not only the design of this program but all similar initiatives across the global context of higher education. Leaders with crucial global perspectives who can execute internationalization and manage personnel in a more culturally inclusive manner are essential in developing effective internationalized institutions (López-Roca, 2021). Therefore, it is necessary to explore such 'global' perspectives in greater depth and broader

scope (Esen, Bellibas, & Gumus, 2020). and women academics in the UK higher education context serve as an appropriate sample population in my study.

Methodology

Data collection

To empirically answer my research questions, 964 academic leaders (Deans of Faculties, Heads of Schools, and Heads of Departments or equivalent) from 127 UK-based universities, who identify as 'women' based on their institution website profiles, were selected. An online survey was distributed via email using personalized links, generating 286 responses (a response rate of 27.2%), in line with response rate with academic populations (Baruch & Holtom, 2008). After deleting the incomplete questionnaire, 255 replies were used. Of these, 127 were from Department Heads (or equivalent), 86 from School Heads (or equivalent), and 42 from the Deans of Faculty.

This is a cross-sectional research design, so the paper can only realistically be submitted to low-ranking journals (1* or 2* in the ABS list).

Measurements

All variables were measured in the survey using a 5-point Likert scale. Strongly Disagree was scored as 1, Strongly Agree was scored as 5. According to my research context, all items for each indicator were adapted from the works of Stevens et al. (2014) and Yukl (2012).

Global Leadership Competency (GLC)

GLC was measured by variables perception management (PM), relationship management (RM) and self-management (SM) competency, which was adapted from Stevens et al. (2014). PM (α = 0.91) was a measure of the cognitive approach that people used to perceive this world, especially cultural differences, which comprised three sub-dimensions: nonjudgmentalness (α= 0.72),

inquisitiveness (α = 0.84), cosmopolitanism (α = 0.84). RM (α= 0.91) was a measure of people's attitudes towards the importance of relationships, which have three sub-dimensions: relationship interest (α = 0.80), interpersonal engagement (α = 0.81), emotional sensitivity (α = 0.74). SM (α= 0.92) was a measure of the ability of self-identify establishment and emotion management, consisting of three sub-dimensions: optimism (α = 0.74), self-identity (α = 0.73), emotional resilience (α = 0.81). A sample item is "I can question myself and become genuinely open to behaviours and ideas of others" (1= strongly disagree, 5 strongly agree).

Perceived Leadership Effectiveness (LE)

Perceived leadership effectiveness was indicated by two leadership behaviours developed from Yukl's (2012) work: relations-oriented and change-oriented behaviours. Relations-oriented behaviours consist of supporting, developing, recognizing, and empowering. Change-oriented behaviours were performed by leaders to increase innovation and collective learning and to rapidly adapt to external changes, which consists of advocating change, envisioning change, encouraging innovation, and facilitating collective learning. A sample item is "I monitor my colleagues to assess if they are carrying out their assigned tasks, the work is progressing as planned, and tasks are being performed adequately" (1= strongly disagree to 5 strongly agree).

Analysis and Results

Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) was selected as the primary data analysis technique involving sets of statistical models designed to identify relationships between multiple variables using multivariate analysis techniques and multiple regression analysis (Hair, 2009). According to Hair et al (2019), I selected Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) as my data analysis technique due to its unique ability to simultaneously examine complex relationships between observed and latent

variables. Unlike traditional regression techniques, SEM allows me to incorporate latent variables—unobservable factors that are inferred from multiple indicators. In this study, these latent constructs (e.g., global leadership competencies) are central to understanding the nuanced relationships in leadership studies. Second, SEM permits the simultaneous estimation of multiple dependent relationships, which is crucial for my study involving complex, interconnected factors. This helps in understanding the intricate cause-and-effect dynamics within my research framework. Third, by explicitly modeling measurement error, SEM improves the accuracy of the estimates and provides a more reliable understanding of the relationships between variables. This is especially important for studies that rely on self-reported data, as measurement error can be a significant concern. Fourth, SEM provides various goodness-of-fit indices, which help to assess how well the model fits the data. This provides a solid foundation for evaluating the robustness of my model and ensuring that the theoretical framework aligns with the empirical evidence.

Research data was analysed using Amos 28.0 and SPSS 28.1.1. AMOS refers to the analysis of mean and covariance structures. The latest version of IBM SPSS Amos is version 28.0. A distinctive feature of AMOS is that it offers researchers two distinct modes for specifying models. One option, AMOS Graphics, allows users to specify models directly through path diagrams, while the other, AMOS Basic, enables model specification using equation statements. Given (a) the extensive range of drawing tools provided, (b) their alignment with SEM conventions, and (c) the ease and efficiency with which publication-quality path diagrams can be created, it is expected that most researchers will prefer the AMOS Graphics mode. As a result, the comparisons in this article are based on this approach. AMOS Graphics offers a comprehensive suite of tools for creating and managing SEM path diagrams. Each tool is represented by an icon or button, each serving a specific function. In addition to those icons, all analytical options are also accessible via drop-down

menus. The estimates produced from analyses can be presented in various formats, including text, tables (i.e., spreadsheet format), and visually as path diagrams. For a more detailed explanation of both the icons and drop-down menus within the context of different SEM applications, readers are directed to Byrne (2013).

SPSS and AMOS are both widely used in research, but when it comes to validity and reliability analysis, SPSS is generally considered more user-friendly and straightforward for five reasons. At first, SPSS is particularly advantageous for researchers working with smaller datasets and simpler models, especially in the early stages of research when basic validity and reliability tests are crucial. It includes pre-built tools like Cronbach's Alpha, split-half reliability, and item-total correlations, making it easier to assess internal consistency and conduct various reliability checks without complex setup. Additionally, SPSS is user-friendly for Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA), providing intuitive interfaces for examining factor loadings, communalities, and model fit. This allows researchers to efficiently assess construct validity without the need for more advanced models. Third, for basic validity analysis, SPSS offers tools for testing convergent and discriminant validity, allowing users to compute correlations and run factor analysis without requiring structural equation models (SEM). Furthermore, its long history and wide documentation in textbooks and academic literature provide researchers with ample resources and support. On the other hand, AMOS, as a specialized SEM tool, is better suited for more complex models, such as Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and path analysis, which involve relationships between latent and observed variables (Hair, 2009).

A preliminary analysis was first carried out to determine the appropriateness of the analysis of

collected data. Next, the reliability and validity of the theoretical constructs were tested by assessing the measurement model. Thirdly, I evaluated and reported the common method variance of my research. In the final step, the structural model was validated by testing the significance of relationships between constructs. All the above analysis results are presented as follows.

Preliminary analysis

Due to my survey being adapted from others' works, to explore the factorial structure of the instrument, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was performed on all 17 items of the instrument with varimax rotation in SPSS 28.1.1. Before performing EFA, the results of Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin and Bartlett's Test indicated that the correlation structure of my data set is strong enough to do EFA, with KMO = .869, which is greater than the threshold value 0.7 (Kaiser, 1974; Hair et al., 2018) and Bartlett's test of sphericity $\chi2$ (df) = 2316.501 (136), p =0.000 <.05.

Next, principal component analysis was performed. Kaiser's criterion of eigenvalues greater than 1 (Kaiser, 1960) generated a five-factor solution as a good fit of the data with 73.595% of the accumulated variance, which is greater than 60% (Hair et al., 2012). Next, varimax rotation was applied to the principal components for interpretation purposes (see Table 2); 17 items were categorized into five groups, all with varimax values greater than 0.75, indicating strong factor loading and considered for selection. Therefore, the results of EFA indicated that my adapted scales have good content validity.

Table 3. Exploratory Factor Analysis - Factor Rotation Matrix

		1	2	3	4	5
	PM1			0.846		
1.PM	PM2			0.853		
	PM3			0.801		
	RM1				0.780	
2.RM	RM2				0.851	
	RM3				0.785	
	SM1					0.751
3.SM	SM2					0.810
	SM3					0.829
	RoB01		0.777			
4.RoB	RoB02		0.758			
	RoB03		0.712			
	RoB04		0.732			
	CoB01	0.767				
5.CoB	CoB02	0.881				
	CoB03	0.768				
	CoB04	0.889				
Cumulative %		17.375	33.304	47.660	60.815	73.595

Note: This part uses Varimax Rotation method.

Here it is the place to enter the Eigen-value etc. For the Exploratory Factor Analysis.

Measurement Model Analysis

I first assessed the reliability and validity of measures. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed to confirm the unidimensionality of the measurement constructs and latent variables. It can be found that the $\chi2/df = 1.314$ suggests a good fit of the model to the data. The CFA results illustrate that the model has a good fit of the data with RMSEA=0.035, CFI=0.985, TLI=0.981, IFI = 0.985, SRMR=0.045, which satisfy all threshold values, indicating my data are suitable to do further analysis (McDonald & Ho, 2002). Indeed a very good fit.

Convergent validity was tested by assessing Cronbach's alpha (α), standardized factor loadings (FL), composite reliability (CR) and average variance extracted (AVE) values (Hair, 2009). Results in Table 3 showed that for each variable, αvalues ranged from 0.804 to 0.882; for each indicator,

αvalues ranged from 0.728 to 0.848, which indicates good reliability (Bollen & Lennox,1991). Composite reliability (CR) values ranged from 0.804 to 0.882, which were more significant than the recommended value of 0.7 (Henseler et al., 2014). Average variance extract (AVE) values ranged from 0.580 to 0.714, which exceeds the threshold value of 0.5 (Hair, 2009). Besides, Standardized factor loading (FL) values were all statistically significant at 0.01 level and ranged from 0.648 to 0.946, which is greater than the minimum required value of 0.5. All the above results confirmed the reliability and convergent validity of my study.

Table 4. Constructs and Items with Descriptive Statistics, standardized Factor Loading and Reliability Values

		α	FL	CR*	AVE*
PM		0.882		0.882	0.714
	PM01	0.825	0.852***		
	PM02	0.825	0.851***		
	PM03	0.848	0.832***		
RM		0.827		0.826	0.614
	RM01	0.742	0.841***		
	RM02	0.771	0.742***		
	RM03	0.770	0.764***		
SM		0.804		0.804	0.578
	SM01	0.728	0.803***		

	SM02	0.730	0.749***		
	SM03	0.739	0.727***		
RoB		0.844		0.846	0.580
	RoB01	0.778	0.820***		
	RoB02	0.811	0.723***		
	RoB03	0.829	0.680***		
	RoB04	0.787	0.813***		
CoB		0.871		0.870	0.633
	CoB01	0.856	0.647***		
	CoB02	0.816	0.906***		
	CoB03	0.861	0.630***		
	CoB04	0.801	0.946***		

Note: * Indicates an acceptable benchmark value; **FL**= standardized factor loading; **CR**=composite reliability= $(\Sigma\lambda)^2/((\Sigma\lambda)^2+(\Sigma\delta))$; **AVE**= average variance extracted= $(\Sigma\lambda)^2/((\overline{\Sigma}\lambda)^2+(\Sigma\delta))$; *** $P \leq .001$

Next, discriminant validity was tested by assessing the square root of the average variance extracted (AVE). The results showed that the square root of AVE for each construct diagonal element with bracket in the correlation matrix (Table 4) was higher than the correlation between any pair of constructs (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). All results shown in Table 2 confirmed that all latent variables differ entirely from each other and therefore confirmed the discriminant validity

of the measurement model (Hair, Risher, Sarstedt, & Ringle, 2019).

Table 5. Discriminant validity for the measurement model

	1	2	3	4	5
1.PM	**0.844**				
2.RM	.391**	**0.783**			
3.SM	.452**	.321**	**0.760**		
4.RoB	.549**	.511**	.502**	**0.761**	
5.CoB	.257**	.348**	.232**	.354**	**0.795**

Note: * Indicates an acceptable benchmark value; ** $P \leq .01$

Common Method Variance

Procedural and statistical strategies are common approaches to mitigating (CMV). Galbreath & Shum (2012, cited in Jordan & Troth, 2020) argued that implementing procedural strategies effectively mitigates CMV, such as random ordering survey questions and separating independent and dependent variables in the survey. In my survey design, independent and dependent variables were separated, and open-ended questions were intertwined with closed-ended questions.

From the perspective of implementing statistical strategies to diagnose the risk of CMV further, post-hoc statistical tests were performed. Harman's single-factor test showed a low potential of CMV, with the first factor only explaining 37.946% of the variance, less than the threshold of 50% (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Although some literature criticizes Harman's single factor test, there been no decline in utilizing this test in the past ten years (Bozionelos & Simmering, 2022). In addition, their review work also shows that only 0.33% of tests reported CMV in 300 post hoc tests, indicating the rarity or difficulty of CMV detection.

Therefore, after reporting the priori procedures I implemented to mitigate CMV and assessing

the severity of CMV in my study, which may cause by the self-report survey, the results showed that the likelihood of CMV contamination of my results is very low.

Structural Model Analysis

After testing the related measurement validity, reliability and model fit, I tested the structural model. The results show that the structural model fits well with $\chi^2/df = 1.330$, RMSEA= 0.036, CFI= 0.984, TLI= 0.980, SRMR= 0.049. Therefore, I move to hypothesis testing.

Hypothesis Testing

The results show that three competencies are positively related to relations-oriented behaviours, they are perception management competency (std. βH1 = 0.302, Std. error =0.080, t=4.108, p= 0.000), relationship management competency (std. βH2 =0.366, Std. error =0.078, t=5.300, p= 0.000) and self-management competency (std. βH3 =0.297, Std. error =0.072, t=4.006, p= 0.000), which accordingly supported H1, H2, H3. In addition, relationship management competency is also positively related to change-oriented behaviours (std. βH1 =0.302, Std. error =0.060, t=3.591, p= 0.000). Therefore, H5 is supported. However, I find there is no relationship between perception management competency and change-oriented behaviours (std. βH1 =0.073, Std. error =0.060, t=0.838, p= 0.402). Also, there is no relationship between self-management competency and change-oriented behaviours (std. βH1 =0.090, Std. error =0.054, t=1.026, p= 0.305), which separately reject H4 and H6 (see Table 5 and Figure 2).

Table 6. Hypotheses Testing Results

Hyp.	Direction of Path			Std.β	Std. error	t	*p*	Results
H_1	PM	→	RoB	0.302	0.080	4.108	***	Supported
H_2	RM	→	RoB	0.366	0.078	5.300	***	Supported
H_3	SM	→	RoB	0.297	0.072	4.006	***	Supported
H_4	PM	→	CoB	0.073	0.060	0.838	0.402	Rejected
H_5	RM	→	CoB	0.302	0.060	3.591	***	Supported
H_6	SM	→	CoB	0.090	0.054	1.026	0.305	Rejected

Note: *** $P \leq .001$

Figure 5. Estimation Results of Hypothesized Model
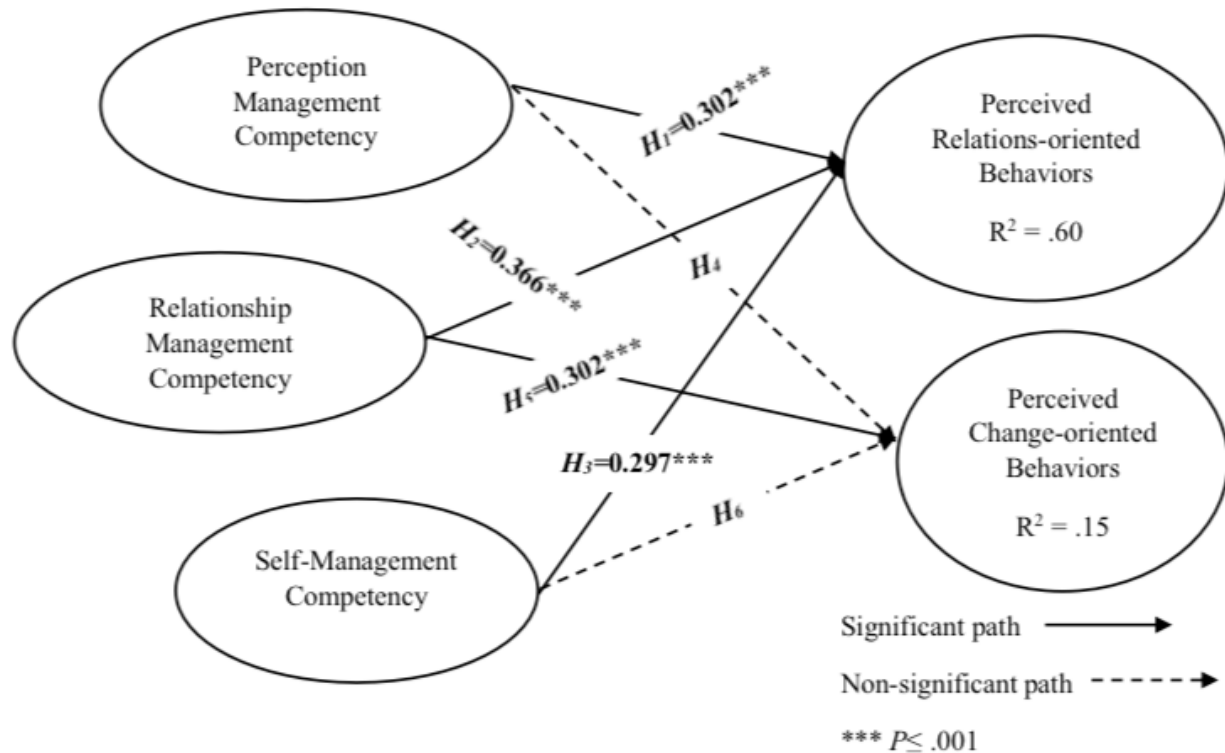
Supplementary Data Analysis

To mitigate the influence of Type I errors on my research outcomes, I extended my investigation by integrating supplementary external experimental data for a secondary evaluation of hypothesis verification. This supplementary analysis encompasses the utilization of the Research Excellence Framework (REF) score, the National Student Survey (NSS) score, and the Postgraduate Taught Experience Survey (PTES) score.

So why is it not in the model, leaving the impression of cross-sectional research design?!

Instruments

The Research Excellence Framework (REF) score is a universally recognized assessment system deployed to gauge the quality of research conducted within Higher Education Institutions (HEIs)

across the United Kingdom. These assessments wield direct influence over the distribution of financial resources to each HEI. The evaluation process encompasses three distinct facets: the evaluation of research outputs, including publications, performances, and exhibitions; an assessment of the broader impact of these outputs beyond academic circles; and an examination of the research-supporting environment (Research Excellence Framework, n.d.). The evaluation of REF scoring submissions comprises five ascending levels, which include unclassified quality, one star, two stars, three stars, and four stars. Specifically, the rating of 4 stars denotes excellence in quality, showcasing world-leading attributes in terms of originality, significance, and rigor. A three-star rating indicates quality that is internationally excellent in the facets of originality, significance, and rigor but does not attain the highest standards of excellence. A rating of 2 stars reflects quality that is acknowledged internationally for its originality, significance, and rigor, while a one-star rating signifies quality that is recognized at the national level in terms of originality, significance, and rigor. The "unclassified" category pertains to work that falls below the standard of nationally recognized work or work that does not align with the published definition of research for the purposes of this assessment. To facilitate subsequent SEM analysis, a relabelling of the scoring will be implemented, ranging from one star to five stars.

The National Student Survey (NSS) is an independent survey that solicits candid feedback from final-year undergraduate students regarding their educational experience at their respective universities. Core inquiries of various dimensions of the student learning experience, covering teaching quality, learning opportunities, assessment and feedback, academic support, organizational management, learning resources, student representation, and mental health and well-being services (limited to England students). Additionally, students in England are queried

about freedom of expression, while overall satisfaction is assessed exclusively for students in Scotland, Wales, and Northern Ireland. Students are encouraged to provide both positive and negative comments on their holistic student learning experience. NSS findings are made publicly available at the unit level, which can encompass a provider, a country, or a specific subject area within a provider (Office for Students, n.d.). The Postgraduate Taught Experience Survey (PTES), administered by Advance HE, empowers postgraduate students to offer feedback on their teaching and learning encounters at the university.

PTES is a valuable tool for gaining insights into postgraduate students' experiences across critical dimensions such as teaching and learning quality, engagement, assessment and feedback, organizational and managerial aspects, skills development, motivations for pursuing their program, and experiences with dissertation or major project work (AdvanceHE, n.d.).

Data have been extracted from the results published on the official websites of the universities which the respondents come from. The PTES and NSS scores incorporate a three-year span covering 2020, 2021, and 2022. Due to the unique frequency of the REF score assessment (an average assessment occurring once every seven years), utilizing a three-year REF score dataset (2008, 2014, 2021) would lead to the exclusion of many respondents (as their tenure may not be sufficiently long). Consequently, my study exclusively employs the REF score from the year 2021.

Measurement Model Analysis

After data screening, 22 missing values were identified. Amos 28.0 was used to conduct SEM.

I initiated the evaluation of the measures' reliability and validity. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was executed to validate the unidimensionality of the measurement constructs and latent variables. Notably, the $\chi 2/df = 1.448$, indicates a favourable fit of the model to the data. The CFA outcomes reveal that the model demonstrates a strong fit with the data, as evidenced by RMSEA=0.042, CFI=0.983, TLI=0.976, IFI=0.983, and NFI=0.948, all of which meet the specified threshold criteria, which underscores the suitability of my data for further analysis (McDonald & Ho, 2002).

Convergent validity was assessed through an examination of Cronbach's alpha (α), standardized factor loadings (FL), composite reliability (CR), and average variance extracted (AVE) values, as proposed by Hair (2009). As indicated in Table 6, the α values for each variable fell within the range of 0.804 to 0.963. These results underscore the robust reliability of the measurements, aligning with the findings of Bollen and Lennox (1991). Composite reliability (CR) values spanned from 0.804 to 0.963, all surpassing the recommended threshold of 0.7, as stipulated by Henseler et al. (2014). Furthermore, the AVE values ranged from 0.578 to 0.897, exceeding the prescribed minimum threshold of 0.5, in accordance with Hair's (2009) guidelines. Additionally, all Standardized factor loading (FL) values were statistically significant at the 0.01 level and ranged from 0.727 to 0.970, exceeding the minimum required threshold of 0.5. These collective findings affirm my study's reliability and convergent validity.

Table 7. Constructs and Items with Descriptive Statistics, standardized Factor Loading and

Reliability Values

		α	FL	CR*	AVE*
PM		0.882		0.882	0.714
	PM01		0.852***		
	PM02		0.851***		
	PM03		0.832***		
RM		0.827		0.826	0.614
	RM01		0.841***		
	RM02		0.742***		
	RM03		0.764***		
SM		0.804		0.804	0.578
	SM01		0.803***		
	SM02		0.749***		
	SM03		0.727***		
PTES		0.963		0.963	0.897
	PTES01		0.942 ***		
	PTES02		0.970 ***		
	PTES03		0.928 ***		
		0.921		0.926	0.807

	NSS01		0.846 ***		
NSS	NSS02		0.991 ***		
	NSS03		0.851 ***		
				0.898	0.746
	REF01		0.848 ***		
REF	REF02	0.897	0.887 ***		
	REF03		0.855 ***		

Note: * Indicates an acceptable benchmark value; **FL**= standardized factor loading; **CR**=composite reliability= $(\sum\lambda)^2/((\sum\lambda)^2+(\sum\delta))$; **AVE**= average variance extracted= $(\sum\lambda)^2/((\overline{\sum}\lambda)^2+(\sum\delta))$; *** $P \leq .001$

Subsequently, I turned my attention to assessing discriminant validity through an examination of the square root of the average variance extracted (AVE). The outcomes demonstrated that the square root of AVE for each construct's diagonal element (Table 7), exceeded the correlation between any pair of constructs, in alignment with the criteria (Fornell and Larcker, 1981). The entirety of the results presented in Table X collectively substantiated that all latent variables exhibit distinct dissimilarity from one another, thereby providing robust confirmation of the discriminant validity inherent within the measurement model (Hair, Risher, Sarstedt, and Ringle, 2019).

Table 8. Discriminant validity for the measurement model

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1.PM	**.844**					
2.RM	.465***	**.783**				
3.SM	.537***	.397***	**.760**			
4.PTES	.408 ***	.364***	.396***	**.947**		
5.NSS	.381 ***	.390***	.359***	.297***	**.898**	
6.REF	.370 ***	.332***	.359***	.290***	.275***	**.864**

Note: * Indicates an acceptable benchmark value; ****-P* ≤.001

Common Method Variance

Harman Single Factor Test

Considering the application of statistical methodologies for the purpose of diagnosing potential Common Method Variance (CMV) risk, post-hoc statistical examinations were executed using Amos 28.0. The results of the Harman's single-factor test indicate a minimal likelihood of CMV, as the initial factor accounts for 37.776 % of the variance, falling below the established threshold of 50% (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

Structural Model Analysis

The structural model underwent rigorous testing after a comprehensive examination of measurement validity, reliability, and model fit. The outcomes reveal that the structural model exhibits a favourable fit, as evidenced by $\chi 2/df$ = 1.452, RMSEA=0.042, CFI=0.983, TLI=0.976, IFI=0.983, and NFI=0.947. Thus, I proceed with hypothesis testing.

Hypothesis Testing

The results show that three competencies are respectively positively related to PTES, NSS and

REF, below are the results (Table 8).

Table 9. Hypotheses Testing Results

Direction of Path			Std.β	Std. error	t	p	Results
PM	⟶	PTES	0.208	0.757	2.552	0.011*	Supported
PM	⟶	NSS	0.177	0.649	2.171	0.030 *	Supported
PM	⟶	REF	0.187	0.093	2.146	0.032 *	Supported
RM	⟶	PTES	0.188	0.783	2.499	0.012 *	Supported
RM	⟶	NSS	0.244	0.680	3.198	0.001***	Supported
RM	⟶	REF	0.173	0.096	2.156	0.031 **	Supported
SM	⟶	PTES	0.217	0.793	2.638	0.008 **	Supported

SM	→	NSS	0.174	0.676	2.118	0.034 *	Supported
SM	→	REF	0.199	0.097	2.268	0.023 *	Supported

Note: *** $P \leq .001$; ** $P \leq .01$; * $P \leq .05$

Based on the SEM findings presented above, the prior model outcomes have once more been substantiated.

Discussion

Drawing on global leadership theory, I developed and tested a model that depicts the relationships between GLC and behavioural outcomes in HEIs. By examining the role of perception management competency, relationship management competency and self-management competency in global leadership competency development, I provide a deeper understanding of the impact of global leadership competency development on women academic leader's self-perception of leadership effectiveness.

In the supplementary validation procedure, I employed PTES score, NSS score, and REF score as 'objective' metrics to assess the leadership effectiveness of women academic leaders. My results indicate a positive correlation between perception management competency and PTES score (std. β =0.208, Std. error =0.757, t=2.552, p= 0.011), NSS score (std. β =0.177, Std. error =0.649, t=2.171, p= 0.030), and REF score (std. β =0.187, Std. error =0.093, t=2.146, p= 0.032). Similarly, relationship management competency exhibits a positive correlation with PTES score (std. β =0.188, Std. error =0.783, t=2.499, p= 0.012), NSS score (std. β =0.244, Std. error =0.680, t=3.198,

p= 0.001), and REF score (std. β =0.173, Std. error =0.096, t=2.156, *p*= 0.031), and self-management competency is positively correlated with PTES score (std. β =0.217, Std. error =0.793, t=2.638, *p*= 0.008), NSS score (std. β =0.174, Std. error =0.676, t=2.118, *p*= 0.034), and REF score (std. β =0.199, Std. error =0.097, t=2.268, *p*= 0.023). Thus, in accordance with the structural equation modelling (SEM) results elucidated earlier; the outcomes of the initial model have been reaffirmed.

My first key finding is that perception management competency can predict women academic leaders' relations-oriented behaviours. This identifies that when women academic leaders have a higher tendency of nonjudgmentalness, inquisitiveness, and cosmopolitanism, they tend to exhibit more relations-oriented behaviours, such as encouraging and recognizing colleagues' performance, providing mentoring, empowering colleagues – indicating higher perceived leadership effectiveness. My finding is consistent with the research on global leadership, albeit in a different setting, that perception management competencies are significant indicators of relations-related leadership performance. For instance, Mendenhall et al. (2008) suggested that global business executives' demands for learning, ideas, and values from different cultures are associated with their inquisitiveness, which frequently leads to a desire to show relationship management-related behaviours. Additionally, as a cognitive capacity, inquisitiveness is a significant predictor of leadership outcomes (Zaccaro et al., 2018), and it assists corporate leaders in navigating complicated and dynamic contexts (Zhu et al., 2019). Similarly, cosmopolitanism is also essential for managers to effectively perform global tasks and deal with dynamic working environments (Bird et al., 2010). Nonjudgementalness was found to relate to intercultural effectiveness (Stevens et al., 2014), and it is highlighted as a guiding attitude for school staff in delivering genuinely transformative inclu-

sive education (Dewsbury et al., 2021). My findings establish a previously unexplored link between perception management competency and women academic leaders' relations-oriented and change-oriented behaviours. Specifically, nonjudgementalness, inquisitiveness, and cosmopolitanism are important components of perception management competency, which help predict perceived leadership effectiveness.

In addition, my study reveals a correlation between relationship management competency and the relations-oriented and change-oriented behaviours of women academic leaders. When women academics have a higher level of relationship interest, interpersonal engagement, and emotional sensitivity, they are likely to exhibit more relations-oriented and change-oriented behaviours, indicating a higher perceived leadership effectiveness score. Other research (Fernandez & Shaw, 2020) also emphasizes that the academic leaders' involvement in – this case responding to the COVID-19 pandemic – is crucial to academic leadership outcomes. In addition, my finding is consistent with the global leadership literature in other industries. For instance, interpersonal engagement is an essential relationship-oriented capacity (Bird et al., 2010), effective relationship management is crucial to leadership outcomes (Prati et al., 2003), and leaders' emotional sensitivity to distress can influence them in managing organizational crises (König et al., 2020). Nevertheless. I establish a link between relationship management competency and women academic leaders' relations-oriented and change-oriented behaviours, which has not been made before. Specifically, relationship interest, interpersonal engagement, and emotional sensitivity are important components of relationship management competency, which are indicators of perceived leadership effectiveness.

The third key finding of my study is that self-management competency can predict academic leaders' relations-oriented behaviours. When women academic leaders have a higher level of

optimism, self-identity, and emotional resilience, they tend to exhibit more relations-oriented behaviours. Consequently, their perceived leadership effectiveness is scored higher. A part of my finding is consistent with prior global leadership literature, though in a different context. For example, self-identity, also known as independent self-construal, is a significant indicator of perceived leadership effectiveness (Van Knippenberg et al., 2004) and may influence the leadership effectiveness of various leader-member relationships (Hogg et al., 2005).

Intriguing findings are that perception management competency and self-management competency had no relationships with change-oriented behaviours, which have not yet been examined in previous studies. Change-oriented behaviours include advocating change, envisioning change, encouraging innovation, and facilitating collective learning (Yukl, 2012). One of the possible reasons behind such a finding is that both leaders' values and their traits incline them to specific organizational decisions (Berson et al., 2008). Values influence leaders' interpretations of organizational reality and outcomes they perceive as desirable (Miller, Droge, & Toulouse, 1988). Therefore, even though leaders possess specific global leadership competencies, their behaviours may also be influenced by their values, which may result in their resistance to change or failure to take change actions. In addition, leadership would be a risk-free endeavour if their organizations and communities only encountered difficulties for which they already had the solutions. Uncertainty threatens leaders' sense of competence, forces them to evaluate and maybe reinterpret their identity and feel inept, thus, resolving problems with unknowable answers increases their resistance to change (Heifetz & Linsky, 2017).

 The results of this study bridge the link between global leadership competency and perceived leadership effectiveness and examine the impact of perception management, relationship management, and self-management competencies on leaders' relations-oriented and change-

oriented behaviours, which are indicators of perceived leadership effectiveness. Precisely, academic leaders with a higher level of perception management, relationship management, and self-management competency, resulting in higher level relations-oriented leadership behaviours, and academic leaders with a higher level of relationship management competency indicating higher level change-oriented leadership behaviours.

My study contributes to the global leadership literature by answering how global leaders perceive and formulate their identities (Cotter, 2022), by exploring the self-identity of women academic leaders as antecedents to their effectiveness in a global context. Second, I answer whether certain types of global leadership competencies can predict and shape leadership effectiveness at individual level (Reiche et al., 2022). My global leadership competency (GLC) model conceptually unpacks the engagement with the relevant internationalization environment in higher education. My distinction between two perceived leadership effectiveness indicators - relations-oriented behaviours and change-oriented behaviours - would aid in conceptualizing the perceived leadership effectiveness, which are crucial decision-making factors for leaders (Sahu et al., 2020).

Third, a systematic review of SEIs literature in higher education revealed that few studies examined the effectiveness of all three competencies collectively (Müller et al., 2020). My global leadership competency (GLC) model offers a contribution by examining the effectiveness of the three GLCs collectively, which include social, emotional, and intercultural components of leadership behaviours, since I evaluate the effectiveness of academic leadership using psychometric assessments that incorporate social, emotional, and intercultural factors.

Fourth, my findings, based on the behavioural approach to the study of leadership, indicate that leaders are not necessarily born but can be developed (Kirkpatick & Locke, 1991; Northouse, 2021). Although the apparent disadvantage of the behavior approach is that it ignores the influence

of situational factors (Northouse, 2021), my research can also assist those who study the situation-trait approach (e.g., Gottfredson & Reina, 2020).

Fifth, considering the importance of academic mobility (Baruch & Hall, 2004), in particular, my global leadership competency (GLC) model provides valuable content domains for the expatriate literature, which lacks specific leadership competency for expatriate academic leaders, especially for women expatriates. My study has implications for academic leadership as a whole in order to understand the specific competencies that are necessary to be effective leaders from social, emotional, and intercultural perspectives.

Also, I developed and validated a scale to measure the relationship between women academic leaders' global leadership competencies (perception management competency, relationship management competency and self-management competency) and their perceived leadership effectiveness. Previous studies mainly focused on exploring 'relationship' between global leaders and their followers' using data from either from leader themselves (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2009), or multi-source, from both leaders themselves and their followers or supervisors (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2012; Gong, 2006). My study uses data from leaders as first-level data, then re-validate the hypothesised model using external secondary data which can more objectively measure leadership effectiveness.

Previous studies delineated such collaboration in various working processes (Haefner et al., 2021; Pereira et al., 2023; Vrontis et al., 2022) but lack empirical measurement. This construct provides a foundation for further exploration that connects to its different antecedents and consequences. Comprehending such collaboration identifies the distinct superiority that AI brings over other technology. Moreover, I consider that AI plays an intellectual role during work. Similarly, some research also attests to the value of human–AI collaboration for increased

productivity and performance (e.g., Chowdhury et al., 2022; Haesevoets et al., 2021; Jia et al., 2023; Sowa et al., 2021).

In terms of the managerial implications, women leaders are an undervalued source of human capital, and my study proposes approaches for higher education institutions to maximize their use of this resource. I highlight two contributions to practice. My first contribution is to the literature on gender studies and leadership development studies. I establish a global leadership competency (GLC) model, predicting certain leader behaviours that play an important role in leaders' decision-making process (Vroom & Yetton, 1973). Using the bibliometric method, Esen et al. (2020) found that most of the knowledge about leadership studies in HEI has been created and shaped by scholars in the U.S.A, demonstrating the need for an academic focus to better comprehend effective leadership practices in other contexts. According to numerous studies (e.g., Eslen-Ziya & Yildirim, 2022), one of the primary reasons for the under-representation of women in higher education is a lack of role models caused by strong hierarchy culture. Despite the growing call for research on gender inequality, few studies have been conducted on gender and leadership development, a decline of 50 percent during the aforementioned period (Esen et al., 2020), which contradicts the growing calls for gender equality.

Second, these meta-level patterns in designing and tailoring leadership development program initiatives for women leaders, which integrate individual leadership behaviours with institutional needs, illuminate the design of leadership development interventions worldwide from a global viewpoint (Clark et al., 2020). It contributes to the establishment of a sustainable, collegiate environment that emphasizes EDI (Kirton & Greene, 2021).

In terms of the recommendations for stakeholders in HEIs, institutions should design initiatives that align individual leadership competencies with institutional objectives, particularly for women

leaders. These programs would emphasize skill development in intercultural communication, decision-making, and adaptability to diverse environments.

Second, since policies that promote women leadership visibility can mitigate hierarchical barriers, thus, creating pathways for women in leadership through formal mentorship programs helps address underrepresentation by offering support networks that inspire and guide emerging leaders.

Third, institutional policies should encourage gender-sensitive leadership training that accounts for cultural nuances. Implementing leadership programs focused on equity, diversity, and inclusion (EDI) ensures a supportive environment.

At last, institutions should adopt global competency frameworks to assess leadership effectiveness across different cultural contexts. These tools can help identify areas for development, ensuring that leaders are well-equipped to manage multicultural teams and global challenges.

Limitations and Future Research Agenda

Although the preliminary tests demonstrate the validity of my research, we must point out some limitations.

My response rate of 25% is relatively low, but in line with studies on academics, and yet it is an acceptable response rate, within the norm in the field (Holtom et al., 2022; Baruch & Holtom, 2008). Future research could focus on improving response rates by exploring alternative methods of engagement, such as personalized follow-up emails, incentives for participation, or using multiple modes of survey distribution (e.g., online, paper, or phone surveys). Second, future studies

could adopt a longitudinal design, tracking changes in the responses over time, which could mitigate the limitations associated with low response rates by observing trends and patterns among respondents over an extended period, thus providing more comprehensive insights into academic behaviours and attitudes. Third, to address this issue, future research could expand the sample size or broaden the demographic scope to include more institutions or academic disciplines, which would enhance the generalisability of the findings and provide a more diverse representation of the academic population. Fourth, future research could compare the response patterns between studies with different response rates. By analysing how lower or higher response rates affect research outcomes, future studies can provide more nuanced insights into the trade-offs and potential biases introduced by response rates in academic studies. Fifth, to supplement the quantitative data, future research could employ qualitative methods such as interviews or focus groups to gain deeper insights from a smaller, more engaged subset of respondents. This could provide additional context and mitigate the limitations of a lower response rate by ensuring richer, more detailed data collection.

Second, interaction effects in sociology are non-linear and cannot be properly assessed or interpreted using statistical methods (Siemsen et al., 2010; Mize, 2019). Given the limitations of statistical methods in capturing non-linear interaction effects, future research should incorporate qualitative approaches, such as interviews, case studies, or ethnographic methods. These approaches would allow for a more nuanced and in-depth exploration of leadership effectiveness and its interaction with various sociological factors, providing insights that quantitative methods alone may miss. Second, another direction for future research could involve the exploration of more advanced statistical techniques that are designed to handle non-linear interaction effects. For example, methods like machine learning, structural equation modelling (SEM), or hierarchical linear

modelling (HLM) may provide more flexibility in capturing the complexity of sociological inter-actions, particularly in the realm of leadership effectiveness.

In addition, Reiche et al. (2017) claimed that global leadership is a complex process in which an individual influences people from many cultural backgrounds by their behaviours, and that this process may take a long time to develop. Therefore, I advocate the longitudinal study as a means of expanding my research. Longitudinal studies would allow researchers to observe how global leadership competencies develop, change, and adapt over time in response to diverse cultural in-teractions. This approach would provide a more dynamic and comprehensive understanding of the long-term processes involved in global leadership. More specifically, future research could specif-ically focus on tracking the evolution of leadership behaviours across different stages of a leader's career. This would help in identifying key milestones, behavioural shifts, and the critical experi-ences that contribute to the development of effective global leadership skills. Second, future re-search could design multi-phase developmental models that map out the stages of global leadership growth. These models could offer insights into the specific competencies, challenges, and experi-ences that are most significant at each phase, providing a roadmap for both researchers and prac-titioners to better understand and nurture global leadership talent.

Conclusion

I investigate the impact of GLC development on women academic leaders' perceived leadership effectiveness and which type of global leadership competency can predict a specific type of perceived leadership effectiveness. I observe that globalization and marketization have ushered higher education institutions (HEIs) into massive organizational transformation. Under cultural diversity and shifting academic mobility conditions, social, emotional, and intercultural abilities

are necessary to develop effective academic leadership. I propose three global leadership competencies that incorporate social, emotional, and intercultural dimensions: perception management competency, relationship management competency, and self-management competency, which are respectively measured by three cognitive abilities. In addition, leaders' relations and change-oriented behaviours reflect the perceived leadership effectiveness. I find that perception management competency, relationship management competency, and self-management competency correlate positively with relationship-oriented leadership behaviours. Relationship management competency is positively correlated with change-oriented leadership behaviours.

In terms of the recommendations for stakeholders in HEIs, institutions should design initiatives that align individual leadership competencies with institutional objectives, particularly for women leaders. These programs would emphasize skill development in intercultural communication, decision-making, and adaptability to diverse environments.

Second, since policies that promote women leadership visibility can mitigate hierarchical barriers, thus, creating pathways for women in leadership through formal mentorship programs helps address underrepresentation by offering support networks that inspire and guide emerging leaders.

Third, institutional policies should encourage gender-sensitive leadership training that accounts for cultural nuances. Implementing leadership programs focused on equity, diversity, and inclusion (EDI) ensures a supportive environment.

At last, institutions should adopt global competency frameworks to assess leadership effectiveness across different cultural contexts. These tools can help identify areas for development, ensuring that leaders are well-equipped to manage multicultural teams and global challenges.

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Chapter 3: Paper 2: The impact of personality on women academics' perceived leadership effectiveness: The mediating role of motivation to lead

Abstract

A systematic long-term under-representation of women in academic leadership roles is a serious concern for individuals, universities, and the wider society. I examined the combined effect of women academics' personality traits, attitudes toward cultural diversity, and perceptions of gender bias on their perceived leadership effectiveness. Anchored from the perspective of trait theory and basic human value theory, I identified the mediating role of the motivation on the relationship between women academics' personality traits, attitudes toward cultural diversity, perceptions of gender bias and their perceived leadership effectiveness. Using a nonprobability sampling approach, I surveyed 255 women academic leaders in the United Kingdom. Women academic leaders with higher levels of specific personality traits (relationship interest, interpersonal engagement, emotional sensitivity) and more favourable attitudes toward cultural diversity were more likely to be seen as having higher leadership effectiveness. However, women academic leaders who perceive less gender bias in their career development are more likely to be more motivated to lead and then therefore exhibit lower leadership effectiveness.

Keywords: personality traits, cultural diversity, gender bias, leadership, higher education

Introduction

As there has been a growing awareness of social justice issues, support for diversity, equity, and inclusion (DEI) in higher education (HE) has recently become a hot topic (Quinteros & Covarrubias, 2023; Jordan et al., 2021). Methods for fostering faculty DEI support have primarily centred on formal workshops and interventions (Rogers-Sirin & Sirin, 2009), and the benefits of these training programs are indisputable. One of the purposes of these DEI interventions is to increase the visibility of women leaders by providing women leadership models (Latu et al., 2013). Some consider leadership to be socially constructed, where leaders' motivations, beliefs, and attitudes are reflected and intertwined with their social identities (Fairhurst & Grant, 2010). While structural barriers such as patriarchal hierarchy have been investigated in relation to women's career advancement (Mavin & Yusupova, 2020), little research has explored the combined impact of women academics' personality traits, attitudes toward cultural diversity, perception of the level of gender bias, and their motivations to lead on their leadership effectiveness, which were attributed to internal factors influencing women's career advancement.

The capacity to motivate is a crucial element for leaders' effectiveness (Gilley et al., 2009). Individuals' motivation to lead and their leadership effectiveness have been extensively studied in the organizational behavior field, and it has been stated that individuals' motivation to lead is positively correlated with their leadership effectiveness (Sadeghi & Pihie, 2012; Saputra, 2021).

Taking the vantage point of psychoanalytic and trait perspective, I examine the mediating role of motivation to lead on the relationship between individual personality and leadership effectiveness. Academics are typically highly autonomous (Henkel, 2005), which adds impetus to the need

for leaders to cultivate high-quality relationships on an individual level to achieve optimal leadership outcomes. Within personality theory, trait theory (Eysenck, 1952) and psychoanalytic theory (Freud, 1989) are two main approaches. Many studies have discussed the distinguished impact of personality traits on leadership effectiveness (Bass, 1990; Zaccaro et al., 2018), such as relationship interest, interpersonal engagement and emotional sensitivity (Shaffer et al., 2006; Mendenhall et al., 2012).

The psychoanalytic perspective of personality study emphasizes individuals' unconscious attitudes when evaluating a particular object or idea (Freud, 1923; Kernberg & Caligor, 2005). Many scholars argued that leaders who have a multicultural leadership awareness and orientation are more effective in leading culturally- diverse groups, and they are more able to build trust and foster positive relationships with colleagues with diverse cultural backgrounds, which link with positive leadership outcomes (Cox, Lobel, & Blake, 1991; Gómez-Leal et al., 2022).

As individuals' social behaviours are influenced by unconscious judgments (Greenwald & Banaji, 1995), many scholars argued that unconscious judgments or alliteratively 'implicit bias' would make individuals internalize negative stereotypes about themselves (e.g., Kiefer & Sekaquaptewa, 2007). Therefore, gender stereotypes of women may subconsciously influence women academics' social behaviours.

However, from a personality theory perspective, motivation to lead can be seen as a 'result' driven by an individual's personality traits, attitudes, beliefs, and perception of their surrounding social environments. As discussed, a certain combination of personality traits (namely relationship interest, interpersonal engagement, and emotional sensitivity), more positive ACD and lower PGB would lead to higher LE. Thus, the relationship between motivation to lead and perceived LE may also be influenced by the underlying personality traits, ACD, and PGB inherent in an individual's

overall personality 'framework'.

Therefore, according to personality theory and studies on the motivation to lead and perceived LE, I expected that women academic leaders with certain personality traits, more positive ACDs, and weaker PGB would have higher perceived LE due to their stronger motivation to lead. Thus, my study aims to examine whether the mediation effect of the motivation to lead on the relationship between personality, attitudes on cultural diversity, and perception of gender bias and perceived leadership effectiveness can be supported.

The study introduces a fresh perspective on women academic leaders' motivation to lead, framing it as a result of their personality traits, attitudes toward cultural diversity, and perceptions of gender bias in their work environments. I explore the connection between women academics' motivation to lead and their perceived leadership effectiveness, finding support for my proposed model. Theoretically, my findings expand the field of personality theory (Eysenck, 1952) by identifying factors that influence women academics' leadership effectiveness through their personality traits. I show that higher levels of interpersonal engagement, emotional sensitivity, and relationship interest are linked to greater motivation for leadership roles, resulting in increased leadership effectiveness. Besides, I contribute to the basic value literature (Schwartz et al., 2012) by examining women academic leaders' attitudes toward cultural diversity, shedding light on the complex social and psychological dynamics that shape inter-group connections. Furthermore, my study enriches the social cognition literature by revealing how women academics interpret and respond to social cues and stereotypes, affecting their perceived leadership effectiveness via their motivation to lead and their perceptions of gender bias. From the managerial contribution perspective, understanding the personality traits of women academics can guide HR professionals in making more informed hiring and promotion decisions aligned with institutional values. Besides,

leveraging knowledge of women academics' personalities can help in building more effective teams that complement each other's strengths and weaknesses. In addition, designing leadership training and development programs tailored to women's unique strengths and needs based on their personality features is recommended. Further, my insights into women's attitudes toward cultural diversity can inform the development of policies and initiatives aimed at fostering multiculturalism and intercultural dialogue.

Theoretical Background and Hypothesis

The differences between leadership effectiveness and perceived leadership effectiveness

In the process of attaining positive leadership outcomes, leadership effectiveness refers to a leader's capacity to influence followers toward the achievement of organizational goals (Yukl, 2012). Academics are typically highly autonomous (Henkel, 2005), which adds impetus to the need for leaders to cultivate high-quality relationships on an individual level to achieve optimal leadership outcomes.

In the study of leadership, leadership effectiveness and perceived leadership effectiveness are two crucial and different concepts. Leadership effectiveness focuses on the real impact of a leader's actions and choices on organizational results and member well-being. It refers to the real influence of a leader's actions and choices on organizational results and the well-being of his or her followers (Yukl, 2012). Leadership effectiveness can be objectively assessed based on indicators such as team performance, productivity, and employee satisfaction, and it can be assessed using objective indicators like financial success, employee satisfaction, and productivity (Northouse, 2019).

Leadership effectiveness perceptions may be subjective and impacted by followers' expectations, beliefs, and attitudes, it mainly focuses on the subjective views of followers on their leader's influence, and it can be assessed by the subjective judgments of followers.

In contrast, perceived leadership effectiveness refers to leaders' self-perceptions of their leader's influence on the company and its members. It measures the amount to which followers feel their leader is successful in attaining the organization's objectives and in growing, inspiring, and motivating the organization's members.

The differences between leadership effectiveness and perceived leadership effectiveness resides in the degree to which they represent objective versus subjective assessments of a leader's influence. Perceived leadership effectiveness focuses on followers' perceptions, beliefs, and attitudes, while leadership effectiveness focuses on tangible outcomes and results. When assessing a leader's performance, it is crucial to examine both indicators since they give various views on the leader's influence on the company and its members (Podsakoff et al.,2012).

The measurement of effective leadership is complicated due to the intricate relationship between financial capital, human capital, and leadership effectiveness (Yukl, 2008). Scholars have traditionally assessed leader success by focusing on three factors: follower outcomes, leader effectiveness, and group performance (Derue et al., 2011). Effective leadership can predict organizational performance in three aspects, including the implementation and success of management programs, positive financial performance, and increased human capital outputs (Zhu et al., 2005; Yukl, 2008; Bowen & Ostroff, 2004). In higher education, Daniëls, and colleagues (2019) identified six effective leader behaviours, including focusing on curriculum design and instruction, shaping the academic unit's climate and culture, maintaining good internal and external relationships, clearly articulating academic unit mission and vision, recognizing and rewarding

colleagues' achievements, and possessing talent recruitment and retention ability. Although academic leaders' individual competencies are crucial, there has been little focus on utilizing psychometric measures of leadership behaviours, even though they have the potential to predict and clarify leadership outcomes in the higher education setting using cognitive, social, and psychological "personal leadership resources" (Leithwood et al., 2020).

I employ the term "perceived leadership effectiveness" to indicate that the leadership effectiveness that is being evaluated is more cognitive in nature and is not directly related to the tangible actions of leaders, which is in contrast to objective measures of "effectiveness" such as financial improvement and performance.

Mediating role of the motivation to lead (MTL) linking PT and perceived LE

Personality traits (PT)

The trait theory (Eysenck, 1952) views individuals' personalities as a set of stable and measurable traits, which can predict individuals' behaviours (Hogan et al., 1994). The trait theory assumed that: (1) Each individual has qualities; (2) the purpose of life is to uncover one's traits; and (3) the objective of personality testing is to identify one's various traits.

Many studies have discussed the distinguished impact of personality traits on leadership effectiveness (Bass, 1990; Zaccaro et al., 2018), such as relationship interest, interpersonal engagement and emotional sensitivity (Shaffer et al., 2006; Mendenhall et al., 2012).

Relationship Interest

Relationship interest examines and studies how individuals perceive, evaluate, and engage in interpersonal relationships (Stevens, Bird, Mendenhall, & Oddou, 2014). It focuses on

understanding the cognitive, affective, and behavioural factors influencing individuals' motivation to initiate, maintain, and terminate relationships. Individual differences in relationship interest, such as personality traits, attachment patterns, and cultural influences, can be investigated by researchers, along with the effects of these variables on the formation and dynamics of relationships. In addition, researchers also investigated the influence of communication processes, social norms, power dynamics, and relational satisfaction on relationship interest (Stevens et al., 2014).

The complex and multifaceted relationship between an individual's relationship interest and their leadership effectiveness has been studied in the field of leadership research. Scholars have investigated how individuals' desire to develop and maintain positive relationships with others may affect their capacity to effectively lead and influence a group or organization. According to (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Stevens et al., 2014), there is a correlation between a leader's interest in relationships and leadership effectiveness. When leaders are authentically interested in fostering and sustaining positive relationships with their followers, they are typically more effective at leading and influencing team performance. Besides, many scholars also argued that leaders with a genuine interest in relationships could frequently establish and maintain social networks and alliances within and beyond their organizations, which can provide access to information, resources, and support that can be utilized to achieve organizational objectives and navigate intricate organizational dynamics (Nicholson & Kurucz, 2019).

Interpersonal Engagement

Interpersonal engagement is the dynamic interaction between individuals in social interactions that entails active participation, communication, and connection. It is a multidimensional concept

that includes verbal and non-verbal behaviours, affective expression, and relational processes. According to research (e.g., Vasquez et al., 2021), interpersonal engagement is essential for leadership effectiveness. Baumeister and Leary (2017) posited that individuals possess an inherent desire for social connection and a sense of belongingness, which impels them to seek interpersonal relationships, leaders who prioritize building strong relationships and fostering a sense of community within their organizations are more likely to create a workforce with heightened levels of organizational identification (Cicero & Pierro, 2007). Besides, leaders who can effectively interact with others on an interpersonal level are more effective than those who lack these interpersonal skills. Interpersonal engagement allows leaders to cultivate positive relationships with their followers, fostering trust, open communication, and collaboration (Presbitero, 2021). This, in turn, increases adherents' commitment, motivation, and job satisfaction, resulting in improved organizational performance and productivity (Salanova et al., 2005). In addition, leadership effectiveness substantially impacts the success of academic institutions, including universities and research organizations. For example, academic leaders who engage effectively with their constituents can better understand and address their needs and concerns, establish a positive organizational climate, and cultivate a sense of community within the academic institution (Fernandez & Shaw, 2020).

Emotional Sensitivity

Emotional sensitivity is a psychological construct that alludes to a person's heightened awareness and responsiveness to their and others' emotions. It includes many cognitive, affective, and behavioural processes influencing how individuals perceive, interpret, and respond to emotional and social cues (Melita Prati et al., 2003). It was frequently studied in the context of

emotional intelligence (e.g., Goleman, 2021), which incorporates the capacity to recognize, comprehend, and manage one's emotions and those of others. According to (Chen & Guo, 2020), emotionally sensitive individuals are typically more emotionally aware, empathetic, and responsive than those with lower emotional sensitivity, and they can be more attuned to their own emotional experiences and more adept at detecting subtle emotional signals in others. Besides, they may also be more susceptible to emotional stimuli, experiencing more intense emotions and exhibiting more robust emotional responses (Goleman, 2021).

According to research, emotional sensitivity correlates positively with leadership effectiveness (Riggio & Reichard, 2008). Emotionally sensitive leaders are better suited to navigate complex social interactions and manage relationships with their team members, subordinates, and other stakeholders. They are exposed to the emotions and needs of others, which enables them to cultivate positive relationships, establish trust, and create a supportive and inclusive workplace, which leads to increased levels of employee engagement, motivation, and commitment, which are crucial for organizational success (Kock et al., 2019). In addition, emotional sensitivity enables leaders to regulate their emotions, make informed decisions, and adapt their leadership style to various situations and people, and they are more likely to be self-aware, capable of managing their emotions in high-pressure situations (Riggio & Reichard, 2008).

The motivation to lead

Kanfer (1990) defines motivation as a framework for studying what motivates individuals to work towards a goal or outcome. Motivation to lead (MTL; Chan et al., 2000) is a personal characteristic that reflects a person's desire to occupy leadership positions and willingness to exert effort to fulfil the responsibilities of leadership roles. Understanding MTL is essential for investigating who is likely to be attracted to leadership roles and whether those who are

intrinsically motivated to pursue leadership roles are more likely to be effective leaders. In addition, from a practical standpoint, comprehending MTL is essential for optimizing investments in leadership training and development, as it facilitates the evaluation of employees' tendency to exert effort in carrying out their leadership responsibilities (Chan & Drasgow, 2001; Auvinen et al., 2020). In terms of how MTL is defined and measured, Chan and Drasgow (2001) proposed three distinct types of MTL: affective-identity MTL (AFI-MTL), which pertains to the extent to which an individual derives pleasure from leadership roles and identifies as a leader; social-normative MTL (SN-MTL), which pertains to the extent to which an individual perceives leadership as a responsibility and obligation, and non-calculative MTL (NC-MTL), which pertains to the extent to which a person views leadership opportunities favourably despite potential costs or minimal personal gains.

Many scholars argued that individuals' motivation to lead and their leadership effectiveness have been extensively studied in the organizational behaviour field, and it has been stated that individuals' motivation to lead is positively correlated with their leadership effectiveness (Sadeghi & Pihie, 2012; Saputra, 2021). In addition, a person's innate drive to engage in an activity for its self-fulfilling purposes, was a significant predictor of leadership effectiveness (Eden, 1992; Auvinen et al., 2020).

However, from a personality trait and human basic value perspective, the MLT can be seen as 'result' driven by an individual's personality traits, attitudes, beliefs, and perception of their surrounding social environments. As discussed, a certain combination of personality traits (namely relationship interest, interpersonal engagement, and emotional sensitivity) would lead to higher LE. Thus, the relationship between motivation to lead and perceived LE may also be influenced by the underlying personality traits inherent in an individual's overall personality 'framework'.

Therefore, I expected that women academic leaders with certain personality traits would have higher perceived LE due to their stronger motivation to lead. Therefore, I propose:

When certain personality traits (a. relationship interest, b. interpersonal engagement, c. emotional sensitivity) are positively related to the motivation to lead (H_{1a-c}), the motivation to lead is positively related to perceived leadership effectiveness (H_2), and motivation to lead has an indirect mediation effect linking personality traits and perceived leadership effectiveness (H_3).

Mediating role of the motivation to lead linking ACD and perceived LE

Attitudes toward cultural diversity (ACD)

I investigated the attitudes towards cultural diversity (ACD) grounded in the refined theory of basic value (Schwartz et al., 2012). The theory asserts that a set of universal fundamental values is present across cultures, and these values can be categorized into a circular structure with opposing values positioned at the opposite extremities of the circle. Moreover, values can motivate and predict individuals' behaviours and attitudes (Schwartz et al., 2012).

In a social, organizational, or community setting, cultural diversity refers to numerous cultural groups, traditions, beliefs, values, and practices (Cox & Blake, 1991). It involves the coexistence and interaction of diverse cultural contexts and points of view, including but not limited to race, ethnicity, nationality, language, religion, gender, sexual orientation, age, disability, and socioeconomic status (Parekh, 2001).

Attitudes are viewed as more specific and context-dependent than personality characteristics, which are broader and more stable (Ajzen, 2001). For example, a person's positive attitude towards a particular political ideology does not necessarily indicate that their personality trait is consistent

with that ideology (Jost et al., 2008; Vecchione et al., 2012). Personality traits, such as openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and emotional stability, are regarded as relatively stable over time and across situations, whereas attitudes are susceptible to change due to experiences and external factors (Bettencourt et al., 2001; Hopwood et al., 2022).

Attitudes toward cultural diversity (ACD), also known as cultural intelligence or competence, consist of a person's beliefs, values, and behaviours towards individuals of diverse cultural backgrounds (Cox, 1994). Individuals' ACD can be influenced by various factors, including personal characteristics, upbringing, education, exposure to diverse cultures, social conventions, societal and cultural contexts, and individual encounters with diversity (Pettigrew & Tropp, 2006). Research indicates a positive correlation between ACD and leadership effectiveness. For example, positive ACD make leaders more capable of managing and leading diverse teams, which can foster an environment conducive to innovation, creativity, and collaboration Kayworth & Leidner, 2002; Martins, 2020, Ponomareva et al., 2022)), which is also essential for academic achievement (Walker & Dimmock, 2005; Bush, 2020)

In terms of the application of ACD in the academic context, an example is cultural intelligence. Cultural intelligence refers to a person's capacity to comprehend and navigate diverse cultural environments, which includes recognizing one's own cultural heritage and values as well as having knowledge and sensitivity regarding the cultural practices and norms of others (Earley & Mosakowski, 2004). Cultural intelligence is essential for leaders in HE to achieve desirable leadership outcomes (Groves & Feyerherm, 2011; Grubb, 2015; Gómez-Leal et al., 2022). Many scholars argued that leaders who have a multicultural leadership awareness and orientation are more effective in leading culturally- diverse groups, and they are more able to build trust and foster positive relationships with colleagues with diverse cultural backgrounds, which link with positive

leadership outcomes (Cox, Lobel, & Blake, 1991; Gómez-Leal et al., 2022).

As previously discussed, more positive ACD would result in greater LE. Consequently, the relationship between motivation to lead and perceived LE may also be influenced by an individual's underlying ACD. Thus, I expected that women academic leaders with more positive ACDs would have higher perceived LE due to their stronger motivation to lead. Thus, I propose:

~~H₂:~~ When attitudes toward cultural diversity are positively related to the motivation to lead (H₄), the motivation to lead is positively related to perceived leadership effectiveness (H₅), and the motivation to lead has an indirect mediation effect linking attitudes towards cultural diversity and perceived leadership effectiveness (H₆).

Mediating role of the motivation to lead linking PBG and perceived LE

Perceptions of gender bias (PBG) and perceived Leadership effectiveness (LE)

Similar to ACD, the perception of gender bias (PGB) in my study is also grounded in the refined theory of basic value (Schwartz et al., 2012). Individuals' perception of gender bias (PGB) refers to how individuals interpret the presence or absence of gender-based prejudice in various contexts. It includes the subjective and cognitive processes by which individuals interpret and makes sense of their experiences related to gender bias, as well as how these perceptions influence their beliefs, attitudes, and behaviours. PGB is shaped by cognitive filters, influenced by personal experiences, socialization, cultural norms, and individual differences, it can vary based on multiple factors, such as a person's gender, age, race, ethnicity, sexual orientation, and intersectionality of

various social identities (Petsko & Bodenhausen, 2020). Those who identify as women may be more attuned to and perceive gender bias in male-dominated industries or leadership positions, whereas those who identify as males may be less cognizant of gender bias or interpret it differently due to their socialization and privilege. Similarly, marginalized individuals may perceive and experience gender bias differently depending on the intersectionality of their social identities and the multiple forms of bias they may encounter (Swan & Wyer Jr, 1997; Petsko & Bodenhausen, 2020).

As individuals' social behaviours are influenced by unconscious judgments (Greenwald & Banaji, 1995), women academics often perceive underlying gender bias (PGB) and are influenced by them, which was a significant barrier to their career development (Eslen-Ziya, & Yildirim, 2022). Also, many scholars argued that unconscious judgments or alliteratively 'implicit bias' would make individuals internalize negative stereotypes about themselves (e.g., Kiefer & Sekaquaptewa, 2007). Therefore, gender stereotypes of women may subconsciously influence women academics' social behaviours. For example, keeping receiving the signal of gender stereotype bias may cause women academics to question their suitability or capacity for leadership. They will unconsciously internalize this bias, which would influence leadership outcomes (Giacomin et al., 2022).

As discussed, lower PGB would lead to higher LE, thus, the relationship between motivation to lead and perceived LE may also be influenced by the underlying PGB inherent in an individual's overall personality 'framework'. Thus, I expected that women academic leaders with weaker PGB would have higher perceived LE due to their stronger motivation to lead. Therefore, I propose:

When perception of gender bias is negatively related to the motivation to lead (H[7]), the motivation to lead is negatively related to perceived leadership effectiveness (H[8]), and the motivation to lead has an indirect mediation effect linking attitudes towards cultural diversity and perceived leadership effectiveness (H[9]).

Thus, my study aims to examine whether the mediation effect of the motivation to lead on the relationship between personality, attitudes on cultural diversity, and perception of gender bias and perceived leadership effectiveness can be supported. <u>I present my hypothesized model in Figure.3. This model is used to help understand the impact of global leadership competency on perceived leadership effectiveness.</u>

Figure 6. Hypothesized Model
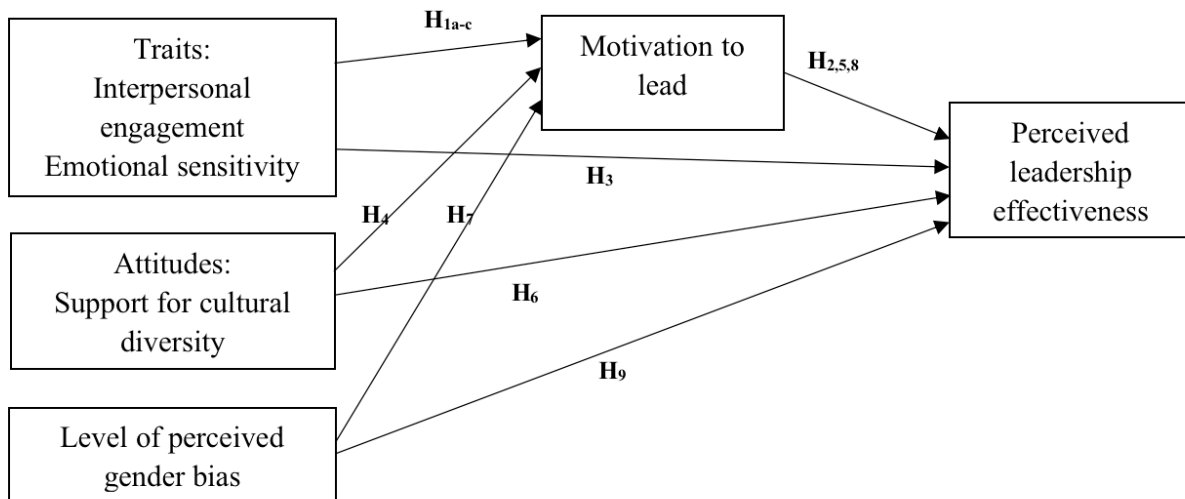
Method

I used a non-probability sampling technique to identify people who are already knowledgeable about the [leadership in my study] process (Acharya et al., 2013). Women leaders in academia were therefore targeted.

Data collection

I identified 964 women academic leaders (Deans of Faculties, Heads of Schools, and Heads of Departments or equivalent) from 127 UK-based universities, based on their institution website profiles. An online survey was distributed via email using personalized links, generating 286 responses (a response rate of 27.2%), in line with response rate with academic populations (Baruch & Holtom, 2008). After deleting incomplete questionnaire, 255 replies were used. Of these, 127 were from Department Heads (or equivalent), 86 from School Heads (or equivalent), and 42 from the Deans of Faculty.

Measurements

Personality The measurement of personality was adapted from the works of Stevens et al (2014) using a 5-point Likert scale (1= strongly disagree, 5 strongly agree). I adopted three personality traits related closely to relationship management: relationship interest ($\alpha = 0.80$), interpersonal engagement ($\alpha = 0.81$), and emotional sensitivity ($\alpha = 0.74$).

Motivation to lead the measurement of motivation to lead was converted from my inductively coded qualitative data. To ensure the validity of my quantitatively coded qualitative data, I followed Srnka and Koeszegi (2007)'s guideline for transferring qualitative data to quantitative

data. First, I used the thematic analysis approach to analyse the qualitative data of open-ended question 'Please tell me more about why you wanted to do your current leadership role', the response rate of this question is 100%. Then I developed a category scheme, which categorized respondents' answers into five broad categories. Most negative responses were labelled as '1' (e.g., Initially do not want to apply, [I] was forced by senior managers); neutral responses were labelled as '3' (e.g., rotating role in nature); most positive responses were labelled as '5' (e.g., individual values fulfilment).

Attitudes toward cultural diversity This measurement was similarly converted from my inductively coded qualitative data. To ensure the validity of my quantitatively coded qualitative data, I followed Srnka and Koeszegi (2007)'s guideline for transferring qualitative data to quantitative data. First, I used the thematic analysis approach to analyse the qualitative data of open-ended question 'What are your thoughts on whether selecting leaders with prior cross-cultural management experience would be beneficial to the unit's performance', the response rate of this question is 100%. Then I developed a category scheme, which categorized respondents' answers into five broad categories, the most negative responses were labelled as '1' (e.g., led by non-academics is bad.); neutral responses were labelled as '3' (e.g., it depends on individuals and institutions); the most positive responses were labelled as '5' (e.g., EDI is important).

Perception of gender bias First, I used the thematic analysis approach to analyse the qualitative data of open-ended question 'Were barriers during your career advancement process to get to your current position related to gender?' the response rate of this question is 100%. Then I developed a category scheme, which categorized respondents' answers into two broad categories showing as binary variable, 'Yes' was labelled as '0', 'No' was labelled as '1'.

Perceived leadership effectiveness Perceived leadership effectiveness was indicated by leadership

behaviours developed from Yukl's (2012) work. supporting, developing, recognizing, and empowering (1= strongly disagree to 5= strongly agree). Leaders can engage in relationship-focused behaviours, such as supporting, developing, recognising, and empowering subordinates, in order to foster improved relationships among group members and enhance group performance. According to research conducted by Yukl (2012), these behaviours have a positive effect on employee job satisfaction and performance. To boost creativity, collective learning, and rapid adaptation to external changes, leaders can also employ change-oriented behaviours such as promoting and imagining change, fostering innovation in collaboration, and facilitating collective learning. Vera and Crossan (2004) identified these behaviours as significant indicators of organisational performance. Given the importance of both relationship-oriented and change-oriented leadership behaviours in determining leadership effectiveness, they have become integral components of higher education research on leadership effectiveness.

Analysis and Results

Preliminary Analysis

Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) was selected as the primary data analysis technique involving sets of statistical models designed to identify relationships between multiple variables using multivariate analysis techniques and multiple regression analysis (Hair, 2009). Research data was analysed using Amos 28.0. A preliminary analysis was first carried out to determine the appropriateness of the analysis of collected data. Next, the reliability and validity of the theoretical constructs were tested by assessing the measurement model. Thirdly, I evaluated and reported the common method variance of my research. In the final step, the structural model was validated by

testing the significance of relationships between constructs. All the above analysis results are

presented as follows.

Table 10. Demographic Information (n=255)

Demographic Information	Range	Frequency	Percentage %
Leadership role [a]	Head of department/division	127	49.8
	Head of school	86	33.7
	Dean of faculty	42	16.5
Age range	25-34	1	0.4
	35-44	31	12.2
	45-54	122	47.8
	55-64	94	36.9
	65 and over	7	2.7
Ethnicity [b]	Asian	11	4.3
	Black	2	0.8
	Mixed	4	1.6
	White	236	92.5
	Other	1	0.4
	Prefer not to say	1	0.4
Education degree	Doctoral degree	219	85.9
	Master's degree	28	11.0
	Professional Qualification [c]	3	1.2
	Undergraduate degree	3	1.2
	Masters	1	0.4
	Currently submitting doctoral dissertation	1	0.4
Nationality	Australia	2	0.8
	Belgium	1	0.4
	Dual nationality	18	7.1
	European	1	0.4
	French	1	0.4
	Germany	5	2.0
	Greece	3	1.2
	Indian	1	0.4
	Ireland	7	2.7
	Italian	8	3.1
	Spain	1	0.4
	UK	176	69.0

	USA	6	2.4
	Prefer not to say	25	9.8
Tenure of current leadership position	1-2 year(s)	53	20.8
	3-4 years	88	34.5
	5-10 years	58	22.7
	Less than a year	44	17.3
	More than 10 years	12	4.7
If had overseas academic working experiences	Yes	151	59.2
	No	99	38.8
	Prefer not to say	5	2.0

Note: a. or equivalent role; b. detailed descriptions see Appendix xx; c. solicitor, musician, dancer, etc.

Measurement Model Analysis

Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) was selected as the primary data analysis technique (Hair, 2009). Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed in Mplus 8.8 to confirm the unidimensionality of the measurement constructs and latent variables. Convergent validity was tested by assessing Cronbach's alpha (α), standardized factor loading (FL), composite reliability (CR) and average variance extracted (AVE) values (Hair, 2009). Table 10 shows strong reliability, with α values ranging from 0.804 to 0.856, (Bollen & Lennox,1991). CR values ranged from 0.807 to 0.856, which were more significant than the recommended value of 0.70 (Henseler et al., 2014). AVE values ranged from 0.512 to 0.665, which exceeds the threshold value of 0.50 (Hair, 2009). Besides, FL values were all statistically significant at .001 level and ranged from 0.670 to 0.828, which is greater than the minimum required value of 0.60. Next, the discriminant validity was evaluated by calculating the square root of the extracted average variance (AVE). According to the results, the square root of AVE for each construct diagonal element in the correlation matrix was greater than the correlation between any pair of constructs (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Table 11. Constructs and Items with Descriptive Statistics, standardized Factor Loading and

Reliability Values

		α	FL	CR*	AVE*
Personality traits		0.856			
	Relationship interest		0.795	0.856	0.665
	Interpersonal engagement		0.823		
	Emotional sensitivity		0.828		
Perceived Leadership effectiveness		0.804			
	Supporting		0.713	0.807	0.512
	Developing		0.674		
	Recognizing		0.670		
	Empowering		0.799		

Note: * Indicates an acceptable benchmark value; **FL**= standardized factor loading;

CR=composite reliability= ; **AVE**= average variance extracted= ; *** *P* <.001

Common Method Variance

Several scholarly perspectives on common method variance (CMV) exist. Conway &

Lance (2010) argued against the 'generally accepted' viewpoint that 'individuals' self-ratings are

connected with higher correlations than being assessed by others' from the standpoint of reviewers

and verified their points using a variety of mathematical methodologies. Findings indicate that self-reported score correlations are relatively good approximations of their true-score counterparts since "the attenuating effects of measurement error offset (were slightly more than) the inflating effects of common method bias."

On the other hand, other academics suggested that the issue of common method bias is not specific to self-reports, but also appears in peer-rating reports (Spector, 2006), since the reason of CMV is assigned to the measuring technique rather than the structures the measures reflect (Podsakoff et al., 2003; Bozionelos & Simmering, 2022). Common techniques to mitigate CMV include procedural tactics and statistical strategies. In my survey design, independent and dependent variables were separated, and open-ended and closed-ended questions were interwoven.

Harman Single Factor test

From the perspective of implementing statistical strategies to diagnose the risk of CMV further, post-hoc statistical tests were performed in SPSS 28.1.1. The Harman's single-factor test suggests a low potential of CMV, with the first factor only explaining 39.819% of the variance, less than the threshold of 50% (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

Common Latent Factor Technique

Common latent factor technique was performed in Mplus 8.8. The results presented in Table 11 show that the test for two-factor model resulted in a model with $\chi2/df = 1.142$, CFI = 0.997, TLI = 0.996, RMSEA = 0.024 and SRMR = 0.022. Next, adding a common latent factor resulted in a model with $\chi2/df = 1.115$, CFI = 0.998, TLI = 0.996, RMSEA = 0.021 and SRMR = 0.021. The comparison of the two models shows the increase of CFI and TLI values was less than 0.1, and the

decrease of RMSEA and SRMR values was less than 0.05, indicating that there was no serious common method bias in this study. Therefore, after reporting the priori procedures I mitigated against CMV and assessed the prospects of CMV, which may cause by the self-report survey. My results suggest that the likelihood of CMV contamination is very low.

Table 12. Model Comparison Results with Latent Factor

model	$\chi2$/df	CFI	TLI	RMSEA	SRMR
Two-factor model	1.142	0.997	0.996	0.024	0.022
Common Latent Factor	1.115	0.998	0.996	0.021	0.021
Model Comparison	-	0.001	0.000	-0.003	-0.002

Structural Model Analysis

After testing the related measurement validity, reliability and model fit, we tested the structural model. The results show that the structural model fits well with $\chi2$/df = 1.020, RMSEA= 0.009, CFI= 0.999, TLI= 0.999, SRMR= 0.024. Therefore, I move to hypothesis testing.

Mediation Effect and Hypothesis Testing

In order to test the mediation effect, indirect effects of the motivation to lead on the relationship between personality traits, attitudes on cultural diversity, and perception of gender bias and perceived leadership effectiveness were also tested in Mplus 8.8. In the path model, the mediation effect can be tested by the indirect effect computed by the product of involving path coefficients (MacKinnon et al., 2002). Specifically, the mediation effect of the motivation to lead between personality traits, attitudes on cultural diversity, and perception of gender bias and

perceived leadership effectiveness is the product of the path loading between 1) personality traits and perceived leadership effectiveness, 2) attitudes on cultural diversity and perceived leadership effectiveness, 3) perception of gender bias and perceived leadership effectiveness, 4) the motivation to lead and perceived leadership effectiveness.

To test the mediation effect, Bollen-Stine Bootstrap technique (Bollen & Stine, 1992) was performed (n=5000 at 95% bias-corrected confidence interval), to achieve convincible evidence in terms of confidence intervals (Schumacker & Lomax, 2004). As the path analysis (see Table 12) and bootstrapping results (see Table 13) show, I found personality traits (Std. β = .185, p = .006), attitude on cultural diversity (Std. β = .224, p < .001) were positively related to motivation to lead. Motivation to lead was positively related to perceived leadership effectiveness (Std. β = .337, p < .001). The bootstrapping (n= 5000) results showed a significant indirect effect of the motivation to lead linking personality traits (effect size = .061, confidence intervals [0.016,0.13]), attitudes on cultural diversity (effect size = .076, confidence intervals [0.034,0.14]) to perceived leadership effectiveness. Thus, H_1 and H_2 are supported. However, interestingly, I found women academics' perception of gender bias was negatively related to their motivation to lead (Std. β = -.213, p = .001), with a bootstrapping (n= 5000) result showing a significant indirect effect of the motivation to lead linking perception of gender bias to perceived leadership effectiveness (effect size = -0.072, confidence intervals [-0.134,-0.03]). Thus, H_3 is supported.

Table 13. Path Analysis and Hypotheses testing Results

Path	Std. β	Std. error	t	p
PT → LE	.185	.068	2.726	.006
ACD → LE	.195	.071	2.743	.006
PGB → LE	-.291	.067	-4.322	***

ML→LE	.337	.069	4.92	***
PT → ML	.181	.075	2.419	.016
ACD → ML	.224	.062	3.626	***
PGB → ML	-.213	.063	-3.374	.001

Note: PT = personality traits; ACD = attitudes on cultural diversity; PGB = perception of gender bias; ML = motivation to lead; LE = perceived leadership effectiveness; *** $P < .001$

Table 14. Results of Mediation Effect Test with Bootstrapping (n=5000)

Path		Effect size	Std. error	t	*p*	95%CI
PT→ML→LE	Total	.246	.077	3.208	.001	[0.098,0.398]
	Indirect	.061	.028	2.154	.031	[0.016,0.13]
	Direct	.185	.068	2.726	.006	[0.053,0.317]
ACD→ML→LE	Total	.270	.070	3.863	***	[0.132,0.404]
	Indirect	.076	.026	2.920	.003	[0.034,0.14]
	Direct	.195	.071	2.743	.006	[0.06,0.337]
PGB→ML→LE	Total	-.362	.068	-5.333	***	[-0.496,-0.23]
	Indirect	-.072	.026	-2.797	.005	[-0.134,-0.03]
	Direct	-.291	.067	-4.322	***	[-0.422,-0.161]

Note: PT = personality traits; ACD = attitudes on cultural diversity; PGB = perception of gender bias; ML = motivation to lead; LE = perceived leadership effectiveness; *** $P < .001$

Discussion

I developed and tested a model that examines the mediating role of the motivation to lead in

the relationship between women academic leaders' personality traits, attitudes towards cultural diversity, perceptions of gender bias, and their perceptions of their leadership effectiveness. My study is novel in two ways: first, it focuses on the context of higher education, which is distinct from the business context. In higher education, there is an emphasis on flat management structure. Due to the fact that higher education institutions typically have a broader range of stakeholders than businesses, including students, faculty, staff, alumni, donors, and community members, leaders in higher education may need to be more adept at managing relationships and building consensus among diverse stakeholder groups. Second, my study examined the mediating role of academics' leadership motivation, which was viewed as the' results of the interaction between their personality characteristics, attitudes towards cultural diversity, and perceptions of gender bias in the workplace.

The relationship between the personality traits of women academic leaders and their perceived leadership effectiveness is mediated by their motivation to lead. Specifically, this indicates that when women academic leaders have a greater propensity for relationship interest, interpersonal engagement, and emotional sensitivity, their motivation to lead becomes stronger, and they tend to exhibit more relations-oriented behaviours, such as encouraging and recognizing colleagues' performance, providing mentoring, and empowering colleagues, which are crucial indicators of leadership effectiveness.

In addition, my research indicates that the relationship between women academic leaders' attitudes toward cultural diversity and their perceptions of their leadership effectiveness is mediated by their leadership motivation. In particular, when women academic leaders hold more positive attitudes toward cultural diversity in their working environments, their motivation to lead increases, resulting in greater effectiveness in relation-based leadership.

Surprisingly, my study reveals that their motivation to lead negatively mediates the relationship between women academic leaders' perceptions of gender bias and their perceptions of their leadership effectiveness. In particular, when women academic leaders perceive more significant gender bias in their working environment, they are less motivated to lead, resulting in a diminished perception of their leadership effectiveness. My finding is partially consistent with the research on global leadership, albeit in a different context, in that women academics who perceive a stronger hierarchy in work are significantly more likely to believe that being a woman in academia hinders their job prospects (Eslen-Ziya & Yildirim, 2022).

While previous research has explored structural barriers, such as patriarchal hierarchies, in the context of women's career advancement (Mavin & Yusupova, 2020), there is a notable gap in the literature regarding the comprehensive examination of the collective impact of women academics' personality traits, their attitudes toward cultural diversity, their perceptions of gender bias, and their motivations to lead on their leadership effectiveness. These factors, considered internal influences in women's career progression, have yet to be extensively investigated. Distinguishing my study from others (e.g., Sadeghi & Pihie, 2012; Saputra, 2021), who often view motivation to lead as a driving force behind varying levels of leadership effectiveness, my research adopts a new perspective rooted in personality theory. I perceive the 'motivation to lead' as an outcome shaped by an individual's personality traits, beliefs, attitudes, and perceptions of gender bias within their professional environments. Specifically, I contend that the relationship between motivation to lead and perceived leadership effectiveness is influenced by the underlying personality traits, attitudes toward cultural diversity, and perceptions of gender bias that are integral to an individual's overall personality 'framework.' I offer both theoretical and practical contributions to literature about

organizational behavior industrial psychology and gender studies literature.

In terms of the theoretical implications, First, we expand upon previous research on personality theory (Eysenck, 1952) to understand how women academics' personality traits can influence their leadership effectiveness, which is mediated by their motivation to lead. Previous research suggests that women academics' relationship interest, interpersonal engagement and emotional sensitivity have a positive relationship with leadership effectiveness (Stevens et al., 2014), and there is a positive correlation between individuals' motivation to lead (MLT) and leadership effectiveness (Sadeghi & Pihie, 2012; Saputra, 2021). In alignment with these research streams, I delve into whether the relationship between women academics' underlying personality and leadership effectiveness can be mediated by their motivation to lead. My research illustrates that heightened levels of interpersonal engagement, emotional sensitivity, and a strong interest in building relationships are linked to a stronger motivation to assume leadership roles, resulting in enhanced leadership effectiveness.

Second, I investigate the outcomes of increasing cultural diversity within top management teams at the institutional level (Ponomareva et al. in 2022) within higher education institutions. My study focused on testing mediation effect of women academics' motivation to lead on the relationship between the attitudes toward cultural diversity and their leadership effectiveness. I find that the relationship between the attitudes towards cultural diversity their assessments of their leadership effectiveness is mediated by their motivation to lead, when women academic leaders have more favourable attitudes toward cultural diversity within their workplace, their motivation to lead experiences a surge, consequently leading to enhanced effectiveness in leadership characterized

by relation-related dynamics.

Third, I build upon previous studies to gain insights into how the perceptions of gender bias among women academics can influence their leadership effectiveness mediated by their motivation to lead, based upon the basic value (Schwartz et al., 2012) literature. Current study indicates that women academics who perceive a pronounced hierarchical structure within the academia are notably more inclined to believe that their gender hinders their career prospects in higher education institutions. This perspective fosters pessimism regarding the challenges they currently face and makes them more sceptical about women's ability to surmount these obstacles in the future (Eslen-Ziya & Yildirim, 2022), which can detrimentally impact their effectiveness as leaders. Besides, as there is a positive correlation between individuals' motivation to lead (MLT) and leadership effectiveness (Sadeghi & Pihie, 2012; Saputra, 2021), In alignment with these research streams, I delve into whether the underlying perceptions of gender bias among women academics can influence their motivation to lead, considering MLT as an outcome influenced by these perceptions. My findings reveal that the motivation to lead among women academics plays a negative mediating role in the connection between their perceptions of gender bias and their assessment of their leadership effectiveness. Specifically, when women academic leaders perceive more pronounced gender bias in their professional environment, their motivation to lead diminishes, decreasing their leadership effectiveness.

From a managerial perspective, understanding the personality traits of women academics can serve as a valuable resource for human resources professionals. It can inform more judicious decision-making in hiring and promotion, aligning these decisions with the institution's core values.

Moreover, leveraging this knowledge can contribute to forming more cohesive and effective teams, as it enables pairing individuals with complementary strengths and weaknesses. Additionally, the insights gained from my research can guide the design of leadership training and development programs specifically tailored to women's unique strengths and needs based on their personality characteristics. Lastly, my research offers valuable insights into the attitudes of women academics towards cultural diversity, which can be instrumental in informing the development of policies and initiatives aimed at fostering multiculturalism and intercultural dialogue.

From a managerial perspective, understanding the personality traits of women academics can enhance human resources strategies in multiple ways. First, it aids in more informed hiring and promotion decisions, ensuring alignment with institutional values and long-term goals. By recognizing personality traits, HR can strategically pair individuals in teams, maximizing complementary strengths to create more cohesive, productive groups. Additionally, such insights can shape the design of leadership development programs that focus on women's unique strengths, helping them overcome challenges in the academic environment. Training can be tailored to foster confidence in areas like negotiation, assertiveness, or decision-making.

Moreover, understanding women academics' attitudes toward cultural diversity enables institutions to foster more inclusive environments. These insights can inform the creation of policies and initiatives aimed at promoting multiculturalism and intercultural dialogue. By understanding the values women place on diversity, HR can implement practices that support not just gender inclusivity but also cultural sensitivity, aligning leadership practices with global standards of diversity and equity.

This multifaceted approach—combining knowledge of personality traits with diversity attitudes—provides a comprehensive foundation for cultivating an academic culture that is both inclusive and conducive to women's leadership development. Institutions that invest in such initiatives not only support the personal growth of women leaders but also strengthen their organizational adaptability and global competence.

Limitations and Future Research Agenda

Even though the early tests confirm the validity of my study, I must acknowledge a few limitations. While my response rate of 25% is comparatively low, it is consistent with the rates commonly reported in studies involving academic populations and remains within the acceptable standard for research in this domain (Holtom et al., 2022; Baruch & Holtom, 2008). Future research could seek to enhance response rates by exploring alternative engagement strategies, such as personalized follow-up emails, offering participation incentives, or utilizing multiple modes of survey distribution (e.g., online, paper, or phone-based surveys). Additionally, adopting a longitudinal design in future studies could help track changes in responses over time, thereby addressing the limitations posed by low response rates. Observing trends and patterns across an extended period would provide more comprehensive insights into academic behaviors and attitudes. Expanding the sample size or broadening the demographic scope to include more institutions or academic disciplines is another avenue for future research, which would improve the generalizability of findings and ensure a more diverse representation of the academic population. Moreover, future studies could compare response patterns across different response rates to explore how variations in participation levels influence research outcomes. This analysis would yield nuanced insights into the trade-offs and potential biases introduced by response rates in academic studies. Lastly, future research could

complement quantitative data with qualitative methods, such as interviews or focus groups, to gather richer insights from a smaller but more engaged subset of respondents. This would provide additional context and mitigate the limitations of lower response rates by capturing in-depth perspectives and detailed data.

Second, the reliance on cross-sectional data in my study poses constraints in fully capturing the dynamic and evolving nature of leadership effectiveness, particularly in a global context. Reiche et al. (2017) noted that global leadership is a complex process that involves influencing individuals from diverse cultural backgrounds, a process that may unfold over several years. To address this limitation, future studies should consider employing a longitudinal research design to track changes over time and capture the long-term effects of leadership behaviours on diverse groups. This would provide a more comprehensive understanding of how leadership effectiveness evolves in various cultural settings. In addition, future research should prioritize multi-source sampling, incorporating data from a variety of stakeholders, such as peers, subordinates, and supervisors, to offer a more holistic view of leadership effectiveness. Multi-source data would also mitigate the limitations of self-reported measures and increase the reliability and generalizability of the findings. Besides, qualitative methods such as interviews or ethnographic studies should be integrated into future research to gain deeper insights into the nuanced and complex interactions that quantitative approaches might overlook. By using qualitative data to complement quantitative findings, researchers can explore the intricate ways in which leadership effectiveness is perceived and enacted across different cultural and organizational contexts.

Conclusion

I identified the mediating role of the motivation to lead on the relationship between women academics' personality traits, attitudes towards cultural diversity, perceptions of gender bias, and their perceived leadership effectiveness, based on trait theory and basic human value theory. I interviewed 255 women academic leaders in the United Kingdom using a non-probability sampling method. I discovered that women academic leaders with higher levels of specific personality traits (relationship interest, interpersonal engagement, and emotional sensitivity) and more positive attitudes towards cultural diversity are more likely to be perceived as having higher leadership effectiveness. However, women academic leaders who perceive a greater degree of gender bias in their career development are more likely to be less motivated to lead and to demonstrate a smaller degree of leadership effectiveness.

From a managerial perspective, understanding the personality traits of women academics can enhance human resources strategies in multiple ways. First, it aids in more informed hiring and promotion decisions, ensuring alignment with institutional values and long-term goals. By recognizing personality traits, HR can strategically pair individuals in teams, maximizing complementary strengths to create more cohesive, productive groups. Additionally, such insights can shape the design of leadership development programs that focus on women's unique strengths, helping them overcome challenges in the academic environment. Training can be tailored to foster confidence in areas like negotiation, assertiveness, or decision-making.

Moreover, understanding women academics' attitudes toward cultural diversity enables institutions

to foster more inclusive environments. These insights can inform the creation of policies and initiatives aimed at promoting multiculturalism and intercultural dialogue. By understanding the values women place on diversity, HR can implement practices that support not just gender inclusivity but also cultural sensitivity, aligning leadership practices with global standards of diversity and equity.

This multifaceted approach—combining knowledge of personality traits with diversity attitudes—provides a comprehensive foundation for cultivating an academic culture that is both inclusive and conducive to women's leadership development. Institutions that invest in such initiatives not only support the personal growth of women leaders but also strengthen their organizational adaptability and global competence.

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Chapter 4: Paper 3: The impact of the leader-follower relationship on leadership effectiveness from the perspective of women academics: A relational dialectics lens

Abstract

Grounded in the entity perspective within Relational Leadership Theory (RLT), I examined how women academic leaders' relationship with their colleagues influences their leadership effectiveness through the lens of relational dialectics theory (RDT). I utilized contrapuntal analysis to explore the impact of the leader-follower relationship on leadership effectiveness. 255 women academic leaders from UK HEIs were surveyed with open-ended questions related to their experiences of leading their colleagues. Findings from the respondents revealed two discourses that competed to illuminate the impact of leader-follower relationship towards the interaction depth with their colleagues. Namely, the dominant discourse of Recognition of the Importance of Deep Interaction and the marginal discourse of the Resistance to Deep Interaction. These discourses interplayed through contractive practices (i.e., neutralization and naturalization), diachronic separation, synchronic interplay (i.e., entertaining, countering, and negating), and dialogic transformation (i.e., discursive hybridization), illuminating a discursive struggle that both supported and denied the Importance of Deep Interaction among women academic leaders and their colleagues.

Keywords: gender, relational leadership theory, relational dialectics theory, academia

Introduction

Women in leadership positions in higher education display diverse inclinations towards leadership styles. The assessment of leadership effectiveness is influenced by gender stereotypes, which dictate whether specific behaviours are perceived as indicative of effective leadership (Heilman, 2012). These stereotypes are moulded by historical and cultural contexts, and leaders are deemed effective when they adhere to predetermined roles (Madden, 2011). However, leadership is a socially constructed concept that is shaped by interactions, cultural norms, and collective beliefs, which significantly influence the interpretation of leadership outcomes (Endres & Weibler, 2017). Thus, it is crucial to explore leader-follower relationships within the intricate interplay of multiple social identities.

Previous research has underscored the significance of trust in interpersonal relationships as a crucial factor for facilitating effective communication and collaboration (Mayer, Davis & Schoorman, 1995). According to Liden, Wayne, and Sparrowe (2000), the presence of interpersonal relationships within the workplace has a significant impact on employees' psychological empowerment. This, in turn, has a direct influence on their attitudes and behaviours in the workplace, ultimately leading to various work-related outcomes. Burt (2000) emphasised the advantages linked to social capital, such as the ability to obtain information, resources, and opportunities. He posits that individuals or organisations possessing robust social capital are more effectively situated to navigate ambiguous circumstances, attain their objectives, and adjust to evolving contexts.

Additionally, the study conducted by Jehn and Bendersky (2003) revealed that the degree of task interdependence within a group plays a moderating role in the association between intragroup conflict and outcomes. Within groups characterised by significant task interdependence, conflict can yield both advantageous and detrimental consequences, contingent upon the manner in which it is handled and resolved. The influence of task interdependence on conflict outcomes is contingent upon whether it results in enhanced decision-making and innovation, or a decline in cooperation and performance. Furthermore, Avolio and Gardner (2005) highlighted the importance of leaders actively reflecting on themselves, actively seeking feedback, and fostering genuine relationships to improve their leadership abilities. They put forward a model for developing authentic leadership that combines relational skills, self-awareness, and self-regulation. These initiatives help create a leadership pipeline that can positively influence and drive innovation within organisations. Besides, Gómez-Leal et al (2022) emphasised that the leader's ability to establish trusting relationships significantly impacts teacher satisfaction and performance. In addition, numerous studies indicate that in educational institutions where principals actively participate in instructional and staff development, teachers tend to exhibit greater collective efficacy and engage in more frequent collaborative efforts (Calik et al., 2012; Ninković & Knéević Florić, 2018; Qadach, Schechter & Da'as, 2020; Meyer, Richter & Hartung-Beck, 2022).

However, while progress has been made in terms of expanding leadership roles, implementing strategies, and adopting best practices (e.g., Dopson et al., 2019; Barnard et al., 2022), the opportunities for women to assume leadership positions in higher education have only seen limited improvement. Despite these advancements, significant barriers persist, such as a lack of leadership self-efficacy (Blackchen, 2015), being tied to child-care, maternity and home responsibilities

(Barnard et al., 2022), and pervasive practices influenced by conscious and unconscious biases continue to prevail. Thus, it is crucial to recognize that higher education stands to benefit greatly by actively identifying, preparing, and promoting a greater number of highly capable women into leadership roles (Madsen & Longman, 2020).

My study takes the perspective of relational leadership theory since the relationship between relational leadership theory and relationship management in the field of leadership studies is highly interconnected due to their shared emphasis on the pivotal role of relationships in determining the effectiveness of leadership (Uhl-Bien, 2006). Relational Leadership Theory (RLT) represents a leadership framework emphasizing the importance of relationships and social connections in the context of effective leadership (Vriend et al., 2020). Grounded in the entity perspective within Relational Leadership Theory (RLT), I examined how women academic leaders' relationship with their colleagues influences their leadership effectiveness through the lens of relational dialectics theory (RDT), as the entity perspective emphasises the impact of leaders' behaviours and perceptions on influencing and sustaining order within the organizational context (Uhl-Bien, 2006). My analysis of a data corpus related to related to women academic leaders' experiences of leading their colleagues revealed two competing discourses that shed light on the influence of the leader-follower relationship on the leadership effectiveness of women academic leaders. The dominant discourse, labelled "Recognition of the Importance of Deep Interaction," emphasizes the significance of developing strong relationships with colleagues, highlighting the negative impact of colleague disengagement, the benefits of delegation and empowerment, the importance of recognition and appreciation, the support for strategic planning, and the advantages of career planning and self-reflection for both colleagues and leaders. On the other hand, the marginal

discourse, labelled "Resistance to Deep Interaction" highlights the potential negative consequences of close leader-follower relationships, including adverse effects on the leader's well-being and burnout, inadequate delegation leading to excessive workload, and a negative impact on professionalism. The findings underscore the complexity of the leader-follower relationship and the multiple variables that can influence leadership effectiveness. Thus, it is crucial for women academic leaders to navigate these dynamics carefully, considering both the benefits and drawbacks of intimate relationships with colleagues. Furthermore, the discursive interaction between these two competing discourses highlights the intricate nature of the topic. Participants exhibited processes of naturalization, implicitly embracing the dominant discourse and recognizing the importance of deep interaction. However, they also demonstrated elements of neutralization and topic avoidance, indicating an awareness of the potential difficulties and negative consequences associated with close relationships.

My study examines how the relationships that women academic leaders have with their colleagues affect their leadership effectiveness. I use the framework of Relational Dialectics Theory (RDT) as part of the entity perspective within Relational Leadership Theory (RLT) (Baxter, 2011). This study provides significant contributions to the fields of relational leadership, relational dialectics, and gender studies.

First, my study presents a new viewpoint and questions the commonly held beliefs about the positive outcomes of developing deep connections with followers in the academic setting (Hollander,2012). I challenge the excessive inclusion of various attributes in leadership research, where a preconceived notion of 'excellent' leadership is accompanied with excellent' follower

reactions (e.g., Yukl, 1999; Kaiser & Craig, 2014). My findings suggests that overreliance on interpersonal networks might result in vulnerabilities, such as favouritism or groupthink, that can undermine the effectiveness of leadership effectiveness.

Second, my research enhances the field of Relational Leadership Theory (RLT) by emphasising the conflicts that arise from an overdependence on interpersonal relationships and the significance of cultivating robust relationships as a valuable asset for women academic leaders.

Third, I expand upon the research conducted by Einola and Alvesson (2021) by incorporating two additional pathways. First, to further explore the dynamics of the leader and follower relationship, I introduce the RDT (Baxter, 2011). Second, as they argue that there is a tendency for immaturity among followers who excessively depend on the elected leader, it is crucial to conduct thorough empirical research that includes the viewpoints of all parties engaged in a relationship (Einola & Alvesson, 2021). Therefore, I analyse the viewpoints of leaders in order to explore how their interactions with their followers (colleagues) influence their leadership outcomes.

Fourth, my research contributes novel insights to the existing body of knowledge on the RLT (Uhl-Bien, 2006) theory by introducing RDT (Baxter, 2011) to shed light on the influence of the leader-follower relationship on the effectiveness of women academic leaders. Different from prior studies on relational leadership (e.g., Uhl-Bien, 2006; Crevani et al., 2010; Vriend et al., 2020), my study distinguishes itself by condensing and classifying all the gathered data, then implemented contrapuntal analysis from RDT as a data analysis technique, which produced results that challenge the commonly accepted belief that "effective leadership leads to positive leadership outcomes"

(e.g., Yukl, 1999; Kaiser & Craig, 2014).

At last, the interaction and exchange of ideas between the prevailing and marginalised discourses additionally enhances the field of gender studies research. Participants' assimilation of the prevailing ideology demonstrates their adoption of societal standards and norms concerning women's leadership methods and interactions (e.g., Madden, 2011). In addition, the findings shed light on the gender dynamics in leadership by emphasising the challenges and intricacies that women leaders may encounter (Epitropaki et al., 2017) when trying to balance relational leadership with its potential disadvantages.

Theoretical Backgrounds

Relational Leadership Theory (RLT)

Relational Leadership Theory (RLT) is a leadership approach that underscores the significance of relationships and social connections in effective leadership. RLT was initially formulated by Uhl-Bien in 2006 and has since been further developed and expanded upon by numerous scholars (e.g., Crevani et al., 2010; Vriend et al., 2020). It recognizes that leadership is not a solitary endeavour, but a dynamic and interactive process embedded within a relational context. Besides, RLT also emphasizes the reciprocal influence between leaders and followers, highlighting the crucial role of trust, communication, and collaboration in shaping effective leadership outcomes. At the core of RLT lies the understanding that effective leadership is characterized by the ability to cultivate and sustain positive relationships with followers. The RLT encompasses two distinct perspectives:

the entity perspective and the relational perspective (Uhl-Bien, 2006). The entity perspective centres around individual cognitions and perceptions within relationships. It views individuals (both leaders and followers) as stable entities capable of exerting control over the relationship. This perspective also considers organizations as fixed and stable entities. It emphasizes the role of leaders, followers, and their behaviours and perceptions in influencing and maintaining order within the organization. Essentially, the entity perspective adopts a subject-object understanding of relationships, where individuals enact social relations to influence others and gain knowledge about them. The entity perspective takes an objectivist epistemological stance, assuming a separation between the mind and nature, and positing the existence of objective truths. It distinguishes between individuals and the contents of their minds. In contrast, the relational perspective emphasizes the subjective and contextual nature of knowledge and understanding (Uhl-Bien, 2006).

The importance of Relational Leadership Theory (RLT) and its entity perspective in academia aligns with the characteristics of collegiality under educational settings (Bryman & Lilley, 2009), offering insights and guidance on how leadership can be adapted to meet the unique demands of academic institutions. Academics can be considered as stakeholders in their organisations, as stakeholders are individuals, groups, or entities who have a stake in the decisions, activities, or results of an organisation (Bass & Steidlmeier; 1999; Maak & Pless; 2006). The entity perspective of relational leadership and the concept of stakeholders both emphasise the importance of relationships, interdependencies, and reciprocal interests within organisational environments. Specifically, academics can be considered stakeholders inside their organisations primarily for seven reasons. First, academics have specialised knowledge, skills, and competence in their

particular fields, which enhance the intellectual capital and research output of the organisation (Toquero, 2020). Therefore, their research, teaching, and scholarly endeavours actively contribute to the organization's overarching mission and objectives. Second, within educational institutions, academics hold a pivotal position in providing top-notch education and training to students. They are accountable for developing the curriculum, delivering courses, mentoring students, and providing academic guidance (Kuokkanen, 2011; Sin & Amaral, 2017). All of these responsibilities contribute to the institution's educational objectives and the achievement of student success.

Third, academics frequently engage in institutional governance structures, such as faculty senates and academic committees, where they actively contribute to decision-making processes, policy creation, and strategic planning initiatives within the organisation (Kuokkanen, 2011; Sin & Amaral, 2017). Fourth, academics actively participate in research and innovation endeavours that enhance the progression of knowledge, exploration of novel concepts, and creation of inventive resolutions to social dilemmas (Jones et al., 2021). Fifth, academics have a crucial responsibility in obtaining external financing, grants, and research contracts for the organisation. Their capacity to draw in money bolsters research programmes, infrastructure development, and other organisational activities, hence enhancing institutions' financial sustainability and expansion (Kuokkanen, 2011; Sin & Amaral, 2017). Sixth, the reputation and status of an organisation are frequently influenced by the achievements and acknowledgment of its academic staff (Jones et al., 2021). Academics who are recognised with awards, honours, and accolades help to improving the organization's reputation, attracting highly skilled professors and students, and cultivating a culture of excellence. At last, academics establish and maintain connections with alumni, industry partners,

and other external stakeholders. These relationships can be advantageous to the organisation in terms of alumni involvement, financial support, and chances for collaboration reasons (Benneworth & Jongbloed, 2010).

Thus, the features of educational environments that fit with the entity perspective of relational leadership theory, which highlights the importance of relationships and social ties in effective leadership within the educational context. The entity perspective highlights these relationships' influence on leadership effectiveness in educational settings. These settings acknowledge the significance of interpersonal relationships between academic leaders and their colleagues, emphasising the development of "Collegiality" (Tight, 2014; Sahlin & Eriksson-Zetterquist, 2023). Collegiality refers to the professional and collaborative relationships among academic leaders and colleagues within an academic environment: a) academic leaders actively cooperate with their colleagues to establish a favourable learning environment; b) educational leaders promote open communication channels, ensuring information is clearly shared among all individuals involved; c). academic leaders and their colleagues prioritise synchronising goals and objectives to foster a unified and efficient learning environment (Tight, 2014).

The leader-follower connection can be examined through various avenues of research. Many scholars expressed their interests in investigating leader-follower relationship due to the importance of leader-follower relationship management. Dulebohn et al. (2012) conducted a comprehensive examination of leader-member exchange (LMX) quality and identified antecedents and consequences of LMX quality, highlighting the significance of leader behaviours, follower characteristics, interpersonal relationship characteristics, and contextual variables. Besides, Graen

and Uhl-Bien (1995) adopted a levels perspective to trace the evolution of LMX and its categorization as a relationship-based approach to leadership, which provided a taxonomy of approaches to leadership and discussed LMX within this framework. In addition, Uhl-Bien and Maslyn (2003) explored positive and negative norms of reciprocity in managerial work relationships, which examined three components of reciprocal behaviour: immediacy, equivalence, and interest motive. Additionally, they also identified different reciprocity styles and explored their impact on work outcomes, such as perceived organizational support, altruism, performance, and conscientiousness. Furthermore, Uhl-Bien et al. (2014) highlighted the neglect of followers and followership theory in leadership research that they emphasized the crucial role of followership in the leadership process and provided a systematic review of the followership literature. Currently, Einola and Alvesson (2021) conducted an in-depth empirical study on the leader-follower relationship, uncovering unintended consequences that can undermine team potential and member satisfaction. They explored the complexities of assigning team members as leaders and followers, highlighting the risks of over-reliance on elected leaders. Besides, Caniëls and Hatak (2022) proposed and empirically tested a theorization on the alignment of social and economic leader-member exchanges (SLMX and ELMX) for employee resilience. Additionally, they also explored the role of follower narcissism in the leader-follower relationship. Their findings suggested that for optimal. The aforementioned research demonstrates that the examination of the connection between a leader and a follower is currently a highly sought-after subject, with its popularity steadily rising. Furthermore, these studies demonstrate that the interaction between leaders and their followers can be examined through various avenues, including the leader's viewpoint, the follower's viewpoint, or a more dynamic analysis involving both parties. Conducting scientific investigation.

Gender and Relational Leadership Theory (RLT)

Within this section. first, I discussed the significance of examining leader-follower relationships within the context of the interactions involving diverse social identities. Furthermore, I explored the advantages of prioritising relationship management. Women leaders in higher education exhibit varying propensities for leadership styles, as reported by themselves and observed by others. The processing of information regarding leadership effectiveness is influenced by gender stereotypes, which determine whether certain behaviours are perceived as demonstrating effective leadership. These stereotypes are shaped by historical and cultural contexts, and leaders are considered effective when they conform to expected roles (Madden, 2011). However, leadership is a socially constructed concept, influenced by social interactions, cultural norms, and shared beliefs, which significantly impact the interpretation of leadership outcomes (Grint, 2005; Epitropaki et al., 2017), which highlights the importance of investigating leader-follower relationships under the multi-interaction of different social identities.

Perceiving someone to be genuine in their interactions increases the likelihood of individuals trusting and engaging with them in a real manner. Leaders that possess authenticity have the ability to cultivate robust and nurturing connections with their followers, resulting in enhanced cooperation, productivity, and overall performance (Mayer et al., 2012). Thus, leaders benefit from relationship management to establish trust and improve leadership effectiveness. According to Eagly (2005), achieving relational authenticity requires leaders to advocate for a set of values on behalf of a community, thereby gaining personal and social identification from their followers.

However, women leaders and outsider groups face greater challenges in obtaining this identification. Therefore, training programs for women and outsiders should prioritize the development of relational aspects in order to achieve authenticity as leaders. Furthermore, Smit's (2013) qualitative inquiries into relational women leadership and ethics of care in a rural educational setting underscored the need for in-depth research on the African continent. The findings revealed that a woman school principal, operating in a disadvantaged community, effectively demonstrates curriculum leadership while upholding relational aspects of leadership. Smit (2014) further explored the qualities that characterize a feminist approach to leadership, challenging the traditional male-dominated discourse through an ethnographic perspective on relational leadership. Through narratives and ethnographic observational field texts, leadership was redefined, creating a new language that disrupts the prevailing male-centric discourse. The identification of feminist attributes evident in the field texts highlighted the explanatory power of attributes in relational leadership, including care, collaboration, vision, intuition, and courage. Additionally, Crevani (2019) emphasized the challenges faced by relational leadership due to cultural constructions of masculinity that prioritize independence over interdependence. The celebration of independence posed a challenge to practising leadership relationally, making a shift away from individualism essential for effective relational leadership. In addition, Post et al. (2019) examined and validate the differences in trust between men and women leaders who adopted relational behaviours during organizational crises. Their study delved into the advantages of women leaders employing relational behaviours to establish trust, particularly in uncertain circumstances. Based on the aforementioned findings, effective leadership entails managing relationships to build trust and improve leadership effectiveness. It emphasizes the significance of leaders promoting community ideals in order to obtain personal and social identification from their

followers. In addition, attributes such as compassion, collaboration, vision, intuition, and courage are emphasized for their ability to explain relational leadership.

Leaders who adopt a relational leadership approach prioritize the promotion of diversity and inclusion. Sugiyama et al. (2016) proposed that leadership techniques centred around relationships are essential for effectively leveraging the advantages of today's varied and worldwide workforces and those of the future. Their research indicates that women's leadership development programs (WLDPs) remain highly beneficial in promoting the progress of women leaders. However, both WLDPs and general leadership development programs (GLDPs) have room for improvement in inclusivity by considering a more comprehensive range of diverse identities, which will enable the development of future leaders with inclusive leadership qualities. Besides, regarding cultural aspects, Cleveland, M., & Cleveland, S. (2020) discussed the role of cultural agility in leadership development programs and the significance of leaders promoting inclusion and diversity through relational leadership approaches. They argued that culturally agile leaders prioritize inclusive hiring practices and foster greater diversity within their leadership networks. This article explored the impact of a leader's positionality and level of cultural agility on their ability to effect change within their organization. It also suggested that leaders have both the capacity and responsibility to develop other leaders through a relational leadership approach that promotes inclusion and diversity. Additionally, Oliver et al. (2022) integrated implicit leadership theory and gender role theory to examine stakeholder perceptions of leaders during the COVID-19 pandemic. Their findings contributed to the understanding of strategic leadership, stakeholder management, and the challenges faced in addressing grand challenges, advancing the knowledge of scholars and practitioners in the field. Therefore, prior research highlights the significance of adopting a relational strategy in the development of women's leadership.

Relational Dialectics Theory (RDT)

'Leadership processes in which a number of simultaneously existing stories-so-far meet, co-evolve, leave, clash, return and so on' (Crevani, 2018, p. 89)., therefore, the relationship between women academic leaders and their colleagues is dynamic, and their interactions can be interpreted into different meanings under different scenarios. Relational Dialectics Theory (RDT) helps individuals and researchers understand the inherent tensions and contradictions within relationships (Baxter & Braithwaite, 2008).

Relational dialectics theory (RDT) draws from Bakhtin (1981)'s dialogic approach to meaning making. The theory suggests that language plays a crucial role in shaping the meaning of a social object through the interplay of competing discourses (Baxter, 2011). In this context, a discourse refers to a system of meaning or ideology that circulates within a larger cultural context. The meaning-making process is characterized by competition and power struggles between these discourses. The dominant ideology of society is represented by centripetal discourses, while centrifugal discourses reflect more marginalized perspectives. According to Baxter (2011), centripetal positions often hold dominant status due to their legitimacy through social acceptance (e.g., the belief that "psychologists know my mental health best"). In contrast, less powerful discourses take the centrifugal position, such as the belief that "I know my mental health best". These discourses are often seen as deviant or non-normative in the meaning-making process (Baxter, 2011). Thus, as centripetal and centrifugal discourses interact, meaning is established within an interaction, and the competition between these discourses leads to either the reproduction of culturally dominant meanings or the creation of new meanings (Baxter, 2011).

Baxter's discursive interplay continuum is a model that describes the range of possible ways that competing discourses can interact within a relationship, and it consists of three positions: monologic, dualistic, and dialectical. The monologic position represents an extreme form of discursive interaction, where only one discourse is acknowledged, and the other is either ignored or suppressed, resulting in a lack of communication. In a monologic position, one discourse dominates, and the other is silenced or dismissed. On the other hand, the dualistic position represents a more balanced interaction, where both discourses are acknowledged, but they are kept separate and not allowed to interact. In this position, individuals may agree to disagree, but they do not engage in a meaningful dialogue about the competing discourses, leading to a lack of integration between them. Finally, the dialectical position represents the most desirable form of discursive interaction, where the competing discourses are acknowledged and allowed to interact with each other in a meaningful way. In this position, individuals actively engage in a dialogue about the competing discourses, and they seek to integrate them into a cohesive and meaningful whole, characterized by a sense of openness, flexibility, and an ability to navigate the tensions between the competing discourses (Baxter, 1990, 2011).

Relational Dialectics Theory (RDT) encompasses various practices that contribute to the process of meaning-making. Among these practices are disqualification and naturalization, which are types of contractive practices that shape communication dynamics. Additionally, the concept of diachronic separation highlights how power and dominance evolve over time. On the other hand, synchronic interplay illustrates intensified competition and is characterized by instances of entertaining, countering, and negating within a conversation or interaction. While diachronic

separation occurs across different utterances, synchronic interplay manifests within individual utterances. The most impactful form of interplay within RDT is dialogic transformation. This includes the emergence of hybrid meanings and aesthetic moments. Hybrid meanings arise when competing discourses are integrated, allowing for the creation of new meanings that incorporate different perspectives. Aesthetic moments, on the other hand, involve a profound transformation of an existing meaning through affective processes, leading to the formation of entirely new meanings (Baxter, 2011).

Many studies have utilised the relational dialectic technique to investigate matters pertaining to relationship management. For example, Hoppe-Nagao & Ting-Toomey (2002) examined the conflicting aspects of marriage and identified the communication tactics employed to handle these conflicting tensions. The study conducted by Kim & Yun (2007) utilises a relational dialectics technique to obtain a deeper understanding of the characteristics of relational communication on Cyworld, a social networking site in Korea. The participants encountered a novel conflict between their interpersonal relationships and their relationship with themselves, similar to the connection-autonomy paradox described by Baxter and Montgomery (1996). The study conducted by Fox (2014) utilised Baxter's (2011) enhanced version of relational dialectics theory to investigate the impact of Facebook on the romantic relationships of young adults. Miller-Ott & Schultz (2023) employed Relational dialectics theory 2.0 to examine how parents' communication exposed their interpretation of their responsibility in their adolescent daughters' utilisation of social media. In my study, RDT is a suitable approach for the below three reasons:

First, RDT places significant importance on the existence of contradictions and tensions within

relationships (Baxter, 2011). While gendered expectations (e.g., communal leadership style; balancing work and family) and demands often create conflicting pressures for women leaders in the realm of leadership (Eagly & Carli, 2007), RDT facilitates the examination of these inconsistencies and the strategies employed by leaders to navigate them. Second, RDT specifically emphasises the analysis of communication patterns that occur within interpersonal relationships (Baxter, 2011). While leadership effectiveness is closely connected to communication, and analysing the communication dynamics using RDT can offer valuable insights into how leaders and followers navigate the process of creating shared meaning, comprehension, and expectations. Third, RDT exhibits a high level of sensitivity towards the impact of context on relationships (Baxter, 2011; Baxter & Montgomery, 2013;). Leadership effectiveness is greatly influenced by the specific circumstances, and the RDT enables the analysis of how the academic environment, organisational culture, and societal norms affect the dynamics of leadership.

Discursive Interplay (Contractive Process)

This section primarily presents many communicative strategies that occur throughout the discursive interplay of utterances, including Disqualification, Naturalisation, Neutralisation, Topic avoidance, and Pacification.

Disqualification In Relational Dialectics Theory (RDT), disqualification is a communicative practice that involves downplaying or dismissing certain aspects or perspectives in a relationship or conversation. It is a contractive practice that seeks to negate or invalidate conflicting or opposing viewpoints. Disqualification occurs when individuals or groups in a relationship selectively choose to ignore or discredit specific perspectives, ideas, or feelings, and it often arises from the tensions

between competing discourses and conflicting desires within a relationship. Moreover, disqualification can serve as a strategy to maintain stability or avoid conflict by suppressing opposing viewpoints. Individuals or groups aim to uphold a particular dominant discourse or maintain a sense of unity or consistency within the relationship by disqualifying certain aspects or perspectives (Baxter, 2011).

Naturalization is a communicative practice that involves making certain aspects or perspectives appear as if they are inherent or unquestionable within a relationship or conversation. It is a contractive practice that seeks to normalize or accept conflicting or opposing viewpoints as natural or inevitable. Naturalization occurs when individuals or groups in a relationship present certain ideas, values, or behaviours as fixed or predetermined, thereby minimizing the potential tensions or contradictions they may create. It is a way of making aspects of the relationship seem unquestionable or taken for granted. By naturalizing certain aspects, individuals or groups aim to maintain stability, establish a sense of familiarity, or alleviate potential conflicts. It can provide a sense of comfort and familiarity by suppressing the acknowledgement of tensions or competing discourses (Baxter, 2011).

Neutralization Neutralisation is technique individuals or couples employ to manage the inherent tensions in a relationship. In relationships, opposing and contradictory desires and needs generate these tensions. Neutralisation entails locating a compromise or middle ground that temporarily resolves or reduces the tension between two relational dialectics or opposing forces. It temporarily satisfies both desires without resolving the tension completely (Baxter, 2011).

Topic avoidance Topic avoidance is a communication strategy used by individuals or couples to avoid discussing a topic or issue that may cause tension or conflict in a relationship. This could be because the subject matter is delicate, controversial, or has the potential to evoke negative emotions. Individuals hope that avoiding the topic will prevent the tension and conflict from escalating. However, topic avoidance may also result in the suppression of emotions or unresolved issues, which may cause long-term damage to the relationship (Baxter, 2011).

Pacification is a communicative strategy employed by individuals or couples to temporarily subdue or reduce relational tensions and conflicts. It entails minimising or avoiding the expression of opposing desires or needs in order to foster harmony and agreement within the relationship. Pacification can involve accommodating the partner's desires, avoiding conflicts, or adopting a more conciliatory stance. It is a method for managing relational dialectics by seeking compromise and temporarily reducing tension (Baxter, 2011).

Diachronic Separation

Diachronic separation refers to the recognition of how power dynamics and dominance shift and evolve over time within a relationship (Baxter, 2004; Malhotra et al., 2022). It involves understanding the changes and transitions that occur in power dynamics, discourses, and relational patterns over the course of the relationship. Diachronic separation recognizes that relationships are not static but undergo transformations and shifts in power dynamics. It acknowledges that power imbalances, dominant discourses, and relational patterns can change over time due to various factors such as personal growth, shifting circumstances, or external influences. Also, diachronic separation emphasizes the importance of considering the historical context and temporal

dimensions of a relationship, and it encourages an understanding that power dynamics and dominant discourses can be fluid and subject to transformation throughout the course of the relationship (Baxter, 2011).

Synchronic Interplay

Entertaining refers to a communicative practice characterized by engaging with and considering multiple perspectives or discourses within a relationship. It involves actively acknowledging and exploring contrasting viewpoints, desires, or tensions. Entertaining occurs when individuals or groups in a relationship consciously engage in a dialogue that embraces the coexistence of conflicting discourses or desires. Instead of dismissing or suppressing opposing viewpoints, entertaining involves actively considering and giving space to these differing perspectives (Baxter et al., 2021).

Countering is a communicative practice characterized by actively challenging or opposing the viewpoints, desires, or tensions present within a relationship. It involves offering contrasting arguments or perspectives in response to the dominant discourses or ideas. Countering occurs when individuals or groups within a relationship engage in a dialectical process of challenging or contradicting the prevailing beliefs, norms, or expectations. It involves voicing dissent or presenting alternative viewpoints that question or oppose the dominant discourses or desires within the relationship (Baxter et al., 2021).

Negating is a communicative practice that involves the rejection or dismissal of specific viewpoints, desires, or tensions within a relationship. It entails invalidating or refusing to acknowledge opposing perspectives or contradictions. Negating occurs when individuals or groups in a relationship deny or undermine the legitimacy of conflicting discourses or desires. Its purpose is to minimize or eliminate the recognition and discussion of contradictory elements within the relationship. This practice is driven by the aim to maintain a sense of stability, certainty, or unity within the relationship by downplaying or disregarding tensions (Baxter et al., 2021).

Dialogic Transformation

Discursive hybridization

Discursive hybridization is the process in which conflicting or opposing discourses merge or intertwine, generating fresh meanings or understandings within a relationship. It entails integrating diverse perspectives, discourses, or ideologies to create hybrid discourses. This occurs when individuals or groups in a relationship engage in dialogue and negotiation, resulting in the blending or synthesis of conflicting discourses. The aim is to find common ground, reconcile differences, or establish a shared discourse that incorporates elements from multiple perspectives. By challenging the idea of a singular, dominant discourse, discursive hybridization acknowledges the intricate and diverse nature of human communication. It allows for the coexistence of varying viewpoints, values, or ideologies within the relationship, ultimately giving rise to new and distinctive understandings (Baxter et al., 2021).

Aesthetic moment

An aesthetic moment refers to a transformative experience within a relationship where existing meanings and understandings are reimagined or reconceptualized. It represents a unique and profound moment that triggers a sudden shift in perception, emotion, or understanding, thereby creating new possibilities for the relationship. Aesthetic moments occur when individuals or groups in a relationship encounter a deep sense of resonance, emotional intensity, or profound connection that surpasses the boundaries of existing discourses or frameworks. Within these moments, individuals may undergo a transformative shift in their perception, emotions, or values, opening up fresh avenues for relating and understanding. Such moments involve a significant emotional and cognitive <u>re-evaluation</u> of an existing meaning, leading to the emergence of a new understanding or perspective within the relationship (Baxter et al., 2021).

Given women academic leaders possess diverse identities that comprise several roles and duties, including being women, functioning as leaders, and actively participating as followers within the intricate academic environment. These individuals fulfil many responsibilities that contribute to the diverse and complex nature of academia. Their identities encompass more than just their leadership positions and expand to encompass broader societal functions. Therefore, examining power dynamics in leadership implementation becomes a complex endeavour since establishing and sustaining positive relationships with colleagues have gradually evolved into an inherent aspect of their leadership responsibilities (Hollander, 2012). Hence, drawing upon the theoretical framework of Relational Leadership Theory (RLT), this study seeks to investigate two research questions by employing relational dialectics theory:

RQ1: What discourses stimulate the different interpretations of impact of the leader-follower relationship on leadership effectiveness from the perspective of women academic leaders?

RQ2: How do these discourses interact to affect the impact of leader-follower relationship on leadership effectiveness from the perspective of women academic leaders?

Method

Data Collection Procedure and Participants

To empirically answer my research questions, 964 academic leaders (Deans of Faculties, Heads of Schools, and Heads of Departments or equivalent) from 127 UK-based universities who identify as 'women' on their institution websites were chosen. The distribution of an online survey via email with personalised links yielded 286 responses (a response rate of 27.2%), which is consistent with response rates for academic populations (Baruch & Holtom, 2008). After removing incomplete questionnaire responses, 255 responses remained. These included 127 from Department Heads (or equivalent), 86 from School Heads (or equivalent), and 42 from Faculty Deans. The survey included a combination of closed-ended and open-ended questions, carefully designed to gather relevant data. To ensure the quality of responses, a minimum word limit of 150 words was set for each open-ended question, aiming to minimize the likelihood of receiving low-quality or

insufficient answers.

Data Analysis Procedure

I adopted contrapuntal analysis method in this study, which is a corresponding approach of RDT (Baxter, 2011). Contrapuntal analysis refers to a similar approach within the context of literary or cultural analysis. It entails analysing multiple texts, narratives, or voices in relation to one another, with an emphasis on their interactions, tensions, and underlying structures. Besides, it also seeks to elucidate the complexities and nuances of these texts or voices, frequently revealing contrasting ideologies, perspectives, or themes (Thomas, 2017; Baxter, 2011).

The first step of contrapuntal analysis is discourse identification. Through iterations of the data, I engaged the thematic analysis approach which defined as "a method for identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (themes) within data" (Braun & Clarke, 2006:79) to analyse the qualitative data of open-ended question 'How do relationships with your followers affect your performance? Please give some examples', the response rate of this question is 100%. Then I developed a category scheme, which categorized respondents' answers into five broad categories. The process involves developing codes, identifying themes, combining them into discourses, labelling the themes and discourses, and selecting impactful examples.

Followed by the discourse identification, the exploration of the discursive interplay is the second step of contrapuntal analysis. Thus, I analysed my data followed by Baxter (2011)'s different forms of contractive processes: dialogue contraction (disqualification, naturalization, neutralization, topic avoidance, and pacification). Then, I explored the corpus from the different forms of interplays: (a) synchronic interplay (entertaining, countering and negating); (b) diachronic

separation; (c) dialogic transformation (discursive hybridization and aesthetic moment). Examples of findings can be found in Appendix A.

Findings

Through the contrapuntal analysis, I found two competing discourses that can indicate the impact of the leader-follower relationship on women academic leaders' leadership effectiveness, which are the dominant discourse of 'Recognition of the Importance of Deep Interaction' which contains six themes and the marginal discourse of the 'Resistance to Deep Interaction' which contains three themes.

The Dominant Discourse - Recognition of the Importance of Deep Interaction

The discourse on the Recognition of the importance of deep interaction shapes the interpretation of women academic leaders regarding the impact of their relationships with colleagues on their effectiveness in leadership. Within this discourse, six themes underscore the importance of deep interaction: (a) colleague 's disengagement lowers leader performance. (b) delegation and empowerment increase leadership efficiency. (c) attain ownership through recognition and appreciation. (d) support strategic planning. (e) benefiting colleagues' career planning and self-reflection. (f) benefiting women academic leaders' career planning and self-reflection. Codes of thematic analysis are presented in Appendix B.

Colleague 's Disengagement lowers leader performance

When colleagues are disengaged, they may lack motivation and dedication, resulting in decreased productivity and poor performance, which make it difficult for leaders to achieve team objectives and maintain overall work quality (Afrahi et al., 2022). In addition, disengaged colleagues may exhibit diminished cooperation and collaboration, impeding the organisation's teamwork and communication (Rastogi et al., 2018). What is more, the negative effects of disengagement can spread to other team members, negatively impacting team morale and performance as a whole (Afrahi et al., 2022). As leaders rely on the contributions and efforts of their colleagues, their own performance may suffer if their workforce is disengaged. One of the participants explained:

> On the slightly less pleasant note, I have an administrative colleague who is not at all proactive. It's someone who peaked in their salary, their skillset is quite basic, and they are not interested in growth, coasting until retirement. Although I do entice this person with new ideas and interesting work, they rely on me to have to 'tell' them each time, about every task they need to undertake. If I don't say, it won't happen spontaneously. Example: I organise events often. I ask the colleague if they found out prices for hospitality and menu choices. No, not yet – event is next week (!). The person appears to be surprised every time I need a venue, agenda, speaker bios etc. I do them at least 4 times a year, in the last 6 years. It is exhausting... I do address it, but it only improves for a while. I strongly dislike working with disengaged or not work-proud staff, it zaps my energy.

Delegation and empowerment increase__ leadership efficiency

The participants engaged in a discourse concerning the benefits associated with the delegation of overwhelming tasks that exceeded their individual capacities to their colleagues. These tasks encompassed those demanding urgent responses that surpassed the capabilities of administration systems, as well as tasks that lacked enthusiasm from others. Within this context, the participants emphasized the advantages derived from fostering strong collegial relationships. They underscored the ability to rely on colleagues with whom they maintained positive relationships, who willingly and gladly extended their support in accomplishing these tasks. This direct collaboration not only bolstered their working efficiency but also afforded them additional time to allocate toward other responsibilities. One of the respondents reflected that:

> I think it fair to say that I would not have performed so well in my current role if I did not have the relationships I do with my immediate team members (particularly Operations Manager and Deputy Head). When I am overwhelmed with tasks I am able to delegate to them, as well as other colleagues (Director of Education; Director of Research; Director of Recruitment). I get on well with all of these individuals, and this has largely allowed me to remain buoyant even with the challenges of a pandemic to deal with.

Besides, insufficient depth of communication between participants and their colleagues, coupled

with a lack of support from subordinates, can hinder the complete resolution of certain issues. As a result, the underlying causes remain unresolved, leading to the repetitive emergence of problems and reaching a stalemate. Consequently, participants are compelled to consistently allocate time to address these recurring issues, significantly impairing work efficiency:

I haven't really considered this as things seem to go smoothly - but if I'm honest, I probably do too much myself and should delegate/reallocate tasks more. So in taking my approach of being seen to contribute (e.g., contributing to teaching as much as I do, going to all meetings that are expected, getting involved in sorting some problems which probably someone else could do), I probably do hold myself back from spending more time on strategic parts of the role. Similarly in research groups, I am not a good delegator - this is more from not liking to ask people to do things (I worry they are stressed!) than lack of trust. I could probably do both of these better without compromising the relationship now it has been built up - but it would have been challenging to come in as someone they know, at not a particularly high career stage, and start saying no to these sorts of things.

Attain ownership through recognition and appreciation

According to Bradler et al (2016), recognition increases workers' performance. According to the responses, participants recounted that establishing strong relationships with colleagues facilitated open and unrestrained sharing of inner thoughts and seeking advice on work-related challenges. This, in turn, fostered a sense of personal value. However, there were instances when participants

allowed their colleagues to independently find solutions to problems, resulting in remarkable resolutions. According to feedback from their colleagues, engaging in this positive problem-solving process helped cultivate a sense of ownership and approach work with a more positive attitude：

... their relationship with me is very important to my performance. For example, some colleagues find it easier to ask for solutions and answers, but I do prefer where appropriate to get colleagues to seek out and think about solutions themselves so that they can feel ownership. A number of colleagues have come back to me in a strong positive frame of mind ad feeling valued by seeking solutions themselves and solutions that are correct for them.

Moreover, participants also underscored the significance of cultivating positive relationships with colleagues, as it correlates with receiving heightened recognition from colleagues. This, in turn, aids in alleviating the stress commonly associated with working in academia and contributes to an increased retention rate. One of the participants said:

I have good relationships with my staff, which is why I am still in the job and haven't handed in my resignation given the current stress of academia.

... This makes me actively try to give others praise for their performance and thanks for going the extra mile etc.

Given the influence of individual factors on employees' psychological attachment to their work, it becomes necessary to employ targeted selection procedures that specifically address personality facets (Albrecht & Marty, 2020). Participants recollected that establishing positive relationships with colleagues resulted in deeper connections and enhanced authenticity. Consequently, they gained a better understanding of their colleagues' personality traits, strengths, and weaknesses, which enabled them to effectively allocate job assignments that align with individual suitability, ultimately enhancing departmental operational efficiency and facilitating colleagues' optimal utilization of their strengths. By gaining a deep understanding of the distinctive strengths possessed by each colleague, women academic leaders can make well-informed choices when distributing job tasks, and they can improve the operational efficiency of their department by aligning responsibilities with the individual's suitability. Consequently, this enhances the efficient use of colleagues' abilities, fostering a more productive and cohesive work atmosphere:

> I think it is easier to get things done when you know the interests/aims of others and can negotiate that. Unlike in a private company we don't have overt power over colleagues and need to get their acquiescence. Knowing that colleague X is very outgoing and chatty means I know they will likely excel at and be willing to accept roles in recruitment and open days and knowing that colleague Y is the opposite means I can allocate them other more academic tasks like taking on more student dissertations. This helps to ensure the Department is more efficient and also that all colleagues are contributing to tasks in ways

they do not resent.

Benefiting colleagues' career planning and self-reflection

Participants also frequently mentioned that fostering positive relationships with colleagues can facilitate career planning and self-reflection among colleagues. Their discourses highlight two crucial factors contributing to more effective problem-solving and time management in an academic setting: First, non-teaching time (Madigan & Curran, 2021). Second, awareness of colleagues' career stages and personal circumstances (Boamah et al., 2022; Hollywood et al., 2020; Salmela-Aro & Upadyaya, 2018), which greatly influence the academic achievement of academics.

First, having non-teaching time allows individuals to allocate concentrated periods for tackling challenges or tasks that require more time and concentration, which can be utilised productively to address complex issues, free from the distractions and pressures of teaching responsibilities (Madigan & Curran, 2021; Urbina-Garcia, 2020). By setting aside specific blocks of time for problem-solving, colleagues can approach these tasks with greater concentration and focus, resulting in a more seamless resolution.

Second, effective time management and workload distribution must be aware of colleagues' career stages and personal circumstances. Understanding a colleague's career stage, return from a career break or other personal circumstances provides valuable insight into their availability, capacity, and potential obstacles (Hollywood et al., 2020). This awareness enables colleagues to proactively

manage and allocate resources, such as time and support, to accommodate the needs of colleagues and ensure equitable workload distribution. Thus, colleagues can better prepare for increased time commitments and adjust their schedules by anticipating these factors, which directly increase their working efficiency then positively increase leadership effectiveness (Gabriel & Aguinis, 2022; Arnold et al., 2015).

Furthermore, Recognition colleagues' career stages and personal circumstances can help reduce stress. Individuals can develop strategies to reduce stress during the academic year's natural peaks if they are aware of potential challenges or busy periods that their colleagues may encounter. Therefore, anticipation and readiness can reduce the likelihood of experiencing overwhelming stress or burnout by fostering a more balanced and manageable workload:

> ... For example, during non-teaching times with more time space, challenges can be addressed more seamlessly. Or if one has complete awareness of the career stage of another colleague in the relation - e.g. early career, back from career break, other personal circumstances, then one can be prepared to manage an elevated time commitment to certain processes and the knowledge and anticipation of this is in itself a stress reducer during natural exceptionally busy periods of the academic year cycle.

Enhancing the career planning and self-reflective practices of women academic leaders

Participants highlighted the numerous benefits of cultivating positive relationships with colleagues. Individuals can anticipate receiving sincere and constructive feedback on significant matters within such relationships. In addition, colleagues have no qualms about highlighting openly any management or decision-making flaws they observe:

> I am glad to have people with whom I can have an open and honest discussion and who will make suggestions for positive change. For example, in putting our exam diet online, my initial proposal was changed extensively for the better in these discussions. I am in constant and open dialogue and this allows me to gauge well how decisions will land.

> I think you get a huge amount working with a diverse group as they inform your views and help you reach an equitable provision.

The Marginal Discourse - Resistance to Deep Interaction

On contrary to the dominant discourse of participants' Recognition the Importance of Deep Interaction, the marginal discourse of Resistance to Deep Interaction has three themes about the negative impact of close leader-follower relationship: (a) adverse impact on leader's individual well-being and burnout. (b) insufficient delegation leads to excessive workload. (c) negative impact on professionalism.

Adverse impact on leader's individual well-being and burnout

Participants expressed that their job burnout can be attributed, at times, to the close relationships they have with their colleagues. One participant elaborated by stating:

> I try to be aware of how people are feeling, whether they are overloaded or suffering from stress, etc. and adjust their workload accordingly. I have an online drop-in and an on-campus drop in every week as well as a monthly team meeting so people feel they can come to me. This does mean that I spend a lot of time sorting out their problems which means I can't do my own work until after the emails stop in the evening (and sometimes they don't stop in the evenings).

Due to a variety of factors, a close leader-follower relationship can occasionally be detrimental to a leader's personal well-being (Einola & Alvesson, 2021; Howell & Hall-Merenda, 1999). First, the close relationship may result in the participant shouldering not only professional responsibilities, but also her colleagues' personal concerns and issues. This can become overwhelming, depleting her energy, increasing her stress levels. Second, the close relationship can blur the line between her personal and professional life, resulting in a constant demand for her attention and participation from her colleagues.

There are numerous instances in which a close leader-follower relationship can contribute to insufficient delegation and excessive workload. One of the participants further explained:

I haven't really considered this as things seem to go smoothly - but if I'm honest, I probably do too much myself and should delegate/reallocate tasks more. So in taking my approach of being seen to contribute (e.g., contributing to teaching as much as I do, going to all meetings that are expected, getting involved in sorting some problems which probably someone else could do), I probably do hold myself back from spending more time on strategic parts of the role. Similarly in research groups, I am not a good delegator - this is more from not liking to ask people to do things (I worry they are stressed!) than lack of trust. I could probably do both of these better without compromising the relationship now it has been built up - but it would have been challenging to come in as someone they know, at not a particularly high career stage, and start saying no to these sorts of things.

From the example, I can know a close relationship between participants and their colleagues can create difficulties in delegation and an excessive workload. First, participants may hesitate to delegate tasks and projects to others due to a strong sense of ownership and responsibility. They might be concerned that the work will not be completed efficiently or the quality will be compromised. This reluctance to delegate can lead to leaders taking on excessive tasks themselves, resulting in an overwhelming workload. A second consequence of a close leader-follower

relationship is that their colleagues may develop a sense of dependence. Colleagues may depend heavily on the participants for direction, decision-making, and problem-solving. As a result, participants may feel obligated to handle all tasks and make all decisions independently, resulting in an imbalanced workload. Moreover, participants with close relationships with their followers may need help establishing clear boundaries and expectations. The personal connection can blur the distinction between professional and personal interactions. As a result, leaders may constantly demand their time and participation, making it difficult to allocate and delegate tasks effectively.

Negative impact on professionalism

Participants reflected that close relationship with their colleagues can do harm to their professionalism. Someone explained:

> I think positive relationships where staff perform their job role well are fine. It is more challenging when there are issues but it's about separating the professional from the personal and ensuring that staff have the opportunity and support to step up and improve. For example, I had an horrific time with one member of staff and it went up to the union and I cried in the meeting. Eventually I went to him personally and had a conversation with him about the professional versus the personal and this person is now one of my course leaders as he did step up. It was a good learning experience for me.
>
> My department has a high number of Teaching Intensive staff and these have been more difficult to manage especially when I discussed the need to create 'scholarship' related

to language teaching as a way to increase reputation. This has been the most difficult part of my mission, to ensure that also teaching intensive staff could see pedagogical research as part of their professional identity. This was not the case before. It will take years to change the culture, but I have started.

Thus, I can know that the close relationship may blur the line between personal and professional spheres, resulting in a less formal work environment where professional standards and expectations may be compromised, leading to a lack of professionalism and a decline in work quality. Besides, the close relationship can also foster favouritism or the perception of favouritism among colleagues. For example, when a leader has a strong personal connection with a colleague, it can result in favouritism or biased decision-making, undermining the perception of fairness and impartiality within the team or organisation and eroding professionalism. Additionally, a close leader-follower relationship can compromise the objectivity and impartiality of a leader. It is difficult to make difficult decisions objectively when personal relationships are involved.

Discursive Interplay

Three contractive processes have been identified after I analysed the data corpus: (a) naturalization (b) neutralization (c) topic avoidance.

Naturalization

Naturalization emerges when participants implicitly assume the dominant discourse (Recognition

of the importance of deep interaction), which is undoubtedly an essential aspect of relationship dynamics (Baxter, 2011). A participant shared a recollection highlighting this phenomenon:

> I can't do anything without them. We develop my college strategy and plans in collaboration, and it's mainly them that drive forward execution in their respective areas. My performance depends on their performance, so I need to select them carefully, move on those who underperform, and create a constructive working environment in which everyone feels appreciated and heard.

Evidently, she prominently underscored the utmost significance of the interpersonal relationship between herself and her colleagues, leaving no room for doubt. Similarly, another participant also articulated the paramount importance of establishing and nurturing a positive rapport with her colleagues:

> Having good relationships enables my performance to improve. People are on board with what we are doing, they will volunteer for tasks which makes my job easier. I rarely have to tell someone they need to do a job because more often someone will volunteer for it.

Through her statement, she conveyed that a <u>favourable</u> relationship significantly contributes to her enhancement in performance. When she establishes a positive rapport with her colleagues, they display a greater willingness to proactively assist her with excessive tasks when the need arises, thereby bolstering her work efficiency.

Neutralization

In my study, neutralization encompasses the process of seeking a middle ground or reaching a compromise between the dominant discourse (Recognition of the Importance of Deep Interaction and marginal discourse (Resistance to Deep Interaction) to alleviate the tension at hand (Baxter, 2011):

> Some challenging situations and personalities add to stress, and hence there can be a hesitancy to engage or a lack of freedom to be able to move forward how I would like to. However, I also have the privilege of working with a highly diverse and gifted group of people and examples of good engagement are highly encouraging - I aim to share these to encourage a good positive engagement with work and colleagues.
>
> It tends to be mixed. I work really well with most colleagues (academic, admin and technical) who are willing to work together for the benefit of the "community" (i.e., the department). With these people, I am happy to be contradicted or to listen to their suggestions as I know they come from a good place and I value constructive feedback. Unfortunately, not all staff are the same and some clearly work entirely for their own interests and I find these more difficult to work with as it requires being more guarded and measured.

Based on her articulated perspective, she partially indicated the challenges associated with cultivating positive relationships with her colleagues, attributing them to unpredictable

circumstances and the complex personalities of her peers that pose difficulties in management. Nevertheless, she still maintained a rational understanding of the significance of fostering an engaging and supportive work environment, expressing appreciation for the opportunity to collaborate with a group of talented individuals.

Topic avoidance

In certain instances, participants may encounter obstacles that hinder their ability to effectively confront relationship tensions directly. In such cases, individuals may opt to internalize the conflict, assuming personal responsibility and exerting effort to address the issue (Baxter, 2011), even if they were not the root cause. This approach of self-imposed burden is chosen as an alternative to addressing the underlying problem at its source. One of my participants recalled:

> When things are difficult, I really have to be strong in myself to face that difficulty rather than just fill in myself and 'cover' for the staff meme et. I don't always get this right. I find conflict with team very challenging and recognise I will do things myself- i.e., take on outstanding work- to cover rather than challenge.

Based on her response, she opted to address the issue independently by relying on her exceptional work performance, rather than engaging in team collaboration, which could potentially prolong the resolution process and involve a greater number of colleagues.

Diachronic Separation

Within my data corpus, diachronic separation was observed as participants' perceptions regarding the influence of leader-follower relationships on their leadership effectiveness underwent a transition over time. This transition encompassed a shift between the dominant discourse of Recognition of the Importance of Deep Interaction and the marginal discourse of Resistance to Deep Interaction (Baxter, 2011):

> I used to get upset when subordinates were rude and unpleasant, but less so these days. I think experience has prevailed and I have the ability always to be polite and respectful. Also, because the team has adapted to the new research strategy (8th year), there is no-one really to listen to them or join the gang off resistors. I am fine and my dean is very happy with my performance. She tells me this often. I add, she is a great Dean and possibly the best I have ever worked with. She has only been with us for 1.5 years.

She provided a comprehensive and detailed narrative regarding the dynamic evolution of her interpersonal connections with colleagues. During the initial phase of her leadership tenure, she expressed feelings of discontentment when faced with rudeness from her colleagues. However, as her experience accumulated over time, she demonstrated a diminished concern for such inconsequential matters and exhibited an enhanced ability to regulate her emotional responses, thereby reducing the impact of negative occurrences. This transition empowered her to remain resolute in her pursuit of task completion and exhibiting unwavering commitment.

Entertaining

In my contextual framework, the occurrence of entertaining arises when participants acknowledge the significance of the dominant discourse pertaining to the Recognition of the Importance of Deep Interaction. However, they concurrently hold reservations about its necessity which driven by specific reasons that shape their perspective (Baxter et al., 2021):

> … I tend to want to solve problems, I find it difficult when people behave irrationally or unreasonably, in this situation my default to conflict resolution mode is not necessarily the best course of action.

> … If someone is very difficult it can definitely change my mood and make me upset. I try to build up a thick skin, but it is not always possible to let things slide.

> … You will always find the individual that will challenge the system, and this could easily absorb all positive energy, so I am aware of this and try to mitigate such instances.

Based on the aforementioned three responses, it is evident that all three participants have contemplated the endeavour of establishing and sustaining positive relationships with their colleagues. Nevertheless, they possessed a clear understanding of the challenges inherent in this

pursuit and asserted that prioritizing relationship management may not be conducive to their individual circumstances.

Countering

Countering occurs within my context when participants acknowledge the rationality of the dominant discourse (Recognition of the Importance of Deep Interaction). However, they exhibit a greater inclination towards supporting the marginal discourse of Resistance to Deep Interaction (Baxter et al., 2021):

> Whilst I recognise that it is important to keep everyone in the loop and listened to, ultimately, some difficult decisions are for me alone to take. I have been fortunate to enjoy good relationships with my followers, which have only affected my performance positively so far. However, if I am confident about my decision-making processes, I am not necessarily worried about the relationships.

Initially, the participant acknowledged the advantages associated with nurturing positive relationships with colleagues. However, she subsequently drew upon her individual experiences to illustrate instances where she independently made significant decisions. Consequently, she held the belief that if she possessed confidence in her decision-making process, she did not perceive it as necessary to maintain strong relationships with colleagues for the purpose of seeking their input or advice on decision-making matters.

Negating

In my data corpus, negating occurs when participants deny the dominant discourse (Recognition of the Importance of Deep Interaction) (Baxter et al., 2021):

> Generally, my working relationships don't affect my performance (unless I am in a "subordinate" position to someone who does view power as the ultimate goal).

> … They don't really affect my performance as my relationships are good.

> My *performance* is, I think, unaffected by my relationships with others (my mood can be affected, but not what I do, i.e., my performance).

Drawing from the previously mentioned three responses, it becomes apparent that all three participants have refuted their performance is impacted by their relationships with colleagues. Leaders fail to acknowledge the possible impact of their performance on their colleagues' relationships for a variety of reasons, an explanation for this is a deficiency in awareness or comprehension of the influence that interpersonal dynamics and relationships can exert on the effectiveness of leadership (Ames, 2009), or leaders give higher importance to task-oriented parts of their roles and underestimate the importance of relational factors (Henkel et al., 2019). In addition, leaders that embrace an individualistic or authoritarian leadership approach have the belief that their performance is predominantly influenced by their personal abilities, choices, and behaviours, rather than by collaborative partnerships (Northouse, 2021).

Dialogic Transformation

Discursive hybridization

Within my data corpus, discursive hybridization emerged as participants ascribed a novel significance to the fusion of the dominant discourse (Recognition of the Importance of Deep Interaction) and the marginal discourse (Resistance to Deep Interaction), which reflects their interpretation of a fresh and distinct meaning that arises from the combination of two competing discourses. (Baxter et al., 2021). Someone recalled:

I think having good relationships with my followers, and in that I mean I guess feeling that there is mutual respect and that we treat each other with dignity, rather than the idea that we might be friends, is important in supporting how I work. My drivers are transparency, being supportive and inclusive and I think that where I feel that is received positively then it has a positive impact on my performance. However, even where it might be received 'negatively' for example, where I propose a plan and actually the staff team point out why it might not work or better alternatives (this happened just yesterday), then I am able to move forward with these ideas rather than feel defeated or bound to a plan that I had developed and therefore take it personally. Unlike in previous experiences of leadership, I find that it is not necessary for me to feel liked in my role to be able to do it. I think this is a step forward as it enables me to manage my relationships with my followers in a way that is less emotionally driven, and therefore less likely to lack transparency or inclusivity.

She prioritised the development of strong connections with her co-workers, focusing on mutual

respect and dignity. She considered transparency, supportiveness, and inclusivity to be important factors that significantly influence her performance, as she believed that these qualities are well-received and have a favourable effect. Significantly, she exhibited adaptability by willingly embracing and integrating input, even when it is critical or proposes other viewpoints. An evident change in leadership viewpoint was emphasised, as she ceased to prioritise being well-liked, enabling a more rational and open approach to managing relationships with followers. This transition was regarded as a progressive move, facilitating a leadership approach that is transparent, flexible, and centred on the collective objectives of the team.

DISCUSSION

The data corpus analysis revealed two competing discourses that cast light on the impact of the leader-follower relationship on the leadership effectiveness of women academic leaders. The dominant discourse, "Recognise the Importance of Deep Interaction," emphasised the significance of developing strong relationships with colleagues, which align with the findings of many scholars (e.g., Vriend et al., 2020). This discussion highlighted the negative impact of colleague disengagement, the advantages of delegation and empowerment, the significance of recognition and appreciation, the support for strategic planning, and the advantages of career planning and self-reflection for both colleagues and leaders. On the other hand, the marginal discourse, "Resistance to Deep Interaction" highlighted the potential negative consequences of close leader-follower relationships, such as negative effects on the leader's well-being and burnout (Gómez-Leal et al., 2022), insufficient delegation leading to excessive workload, and a negative impact on professionalism.

Interestingly, the findings also demonstrate the intricate nature of the leader-follower relationship

and the multitude of factors that can influence leadership effectiveness. While the dominant discourse highlights the benefits of deep interaction and positive relationships, the marginal discourse, titled "Resistance to Deep Interaction" underscores the potential adverse outcomes associated with close leader-follower relationships. It acknowledges the challenges and possible drawbacks of heavily relying on interpersonal relationships for acquiring resources, indicating that leaders should be cautious of the potential compromises between close relationships and individual well-being, workload, and professionalism.

Furthermore, the discursive interaction between these two competing discourses highlights the topic's complexity even further. Participants demonstrated processes of naturalisation, in which they implicitly embraced the dominant discourse and acknowledged the significance of in-depth interaction. This indicates that the dominant discourse is profoundly embedded within their conception of effective leadership. However, participants also exhibited neutralisation and topic avoidance, indicating that they were aware of the potential difficulties and negative consequences of intimate relationships.

Theoretical implications Drawing from the entity perspective within Relational Leadership Theory (RLT), my study investigates the influence of women academic leaders' relationships with colleagues on their leadership effectiveness through the lens of Relational Dialectics Theory (RDT) (Baxter, 2011). This study offers valuable contributions to relational leadership scholarship, relational dialectics scholarship, and gender study scholarship.

First, my study introduces a fresh perspective, and challenges established assumptions concerning the "presumed" advantageous consequences of nurturing profound connections with followers (e.g., Hollander, 2012) within the academic context. Besides, my study contributes to RLT (Uhl-

Bien, 2006) by highlighting the tensions between excessive reliance on interpersonal relationships and the importance of establishing strong relationships as a valuable resource for women academic leaders. The dominant discourse, "Recognition of the Importance of Deep Interaction" reveals that establishing strong relationships with colleagues provides leaders with essential resources, such as support, information, and cooperation, which are vital for leaders to overcome resource constraints and effectively fulfil their leadership roles. Additionally, the study highlights the marginal discourse of "Resistance to Deep Interaction" recognizing the challenges and possible disadvantages associated with excessive reliance on interpersonal relationships for resource acquisition, which underscores the importance for leaders to be mindful of the potential compromises between close relationships and factors such as individual well-being, workload, and professionalism.

Third, as Einola and Alvesson (2021) argue that there were misunderstandings caused by friction, a lack of responsiveness, and a tendency for immaturity in the followers who excessively depended on the elected leader. Therefore, perceived 'good' leadership might potentially have adverse effects by causing content and trusting followers to become complacent and narrow their concentration to their assigned tasks. I extend Einola and Alvesson (2021)'s study about the exploration of the relational dynamics between leader and follower (Einola & Alvesson, 2021) from two new routes. First, to go deeper into the dynamics of the leader and follower relationship, we will introduce the RDT (Baxter, 2011). Second, since they contend that an inclination towards immaturity exists among followers who unduly rely on the elected leader, therefore, it is imperative to undertake comprehensive empirical research that encompasses the perspectives of all parties involved in a relationship (Einola & Alvesson, 2021). Thus, I examine the perspectives of leaders to delve into

how their interactions with their followers (colleagues) impact their leadership results.

Fourth, my study adds new content on the RLT (Uhl-Bien, 2006) scholarship by introducing RDT (Baxter, 2011) to illuminate the impact of the leader-follower relationship on the effectiveness of women academic leaders. Leaders derive advantages from the practice of relationship management, as it enables them to develop trust and enhance their leadership effectiveness (Eagly, 2005; Smit, 2013; Crevani, 2019; Einola & Alvesson, 2021; Barnard et al., 2022). My study introduces the use of RDT to study the dynamic nature of leader-follower relationships since discourses possess a malleable nature, and they will adapt their underlying connotations in response to varying circumstances (Baxter & Braithwaite, 2008). In my study, the dominant discourse, "Recognition of the Importance of Deep Interaction" underscores the significance of establishing robust relationships with colleagues in higher education context. It sheds light on various themes, including the detrimental effects of colleague disengagement, the advantages of delegation and empowerment, the significance of recognition and appreciation, the support for strategic planning, and the benefits for colleagues' and leaders' career planning and self-reflection. These findings enrich my understanding of effective leadership by emphasizing the role of positive relationships and deep interaction in fostering leadership effectiveness, as leaders who cultivate strong connections with colleagues are more likely to experience positive outcomes in engagement, productivity, and career development in the higher education context (Bryman &Lilley, 2009; Smit, 2013; Cleveland, M., & Cleveland, S., 2020; Barnard et al., 2022).

Further, the discursive interplay between the dominant and marginal discourses further contributes to gender studies scholarship. For example, participants' naturalization of the dominant discourse

reflects the internalization of societal expectations and norms regarding women's leadership styles and relationships (e.g., Madden, 2011). Besides, the study also reveals elements of neutralization and topic avoidance, indicating a recognition of the potential challenges and negative consequences associated with close relationships. These findings contribute to understanding gender dynamics in leadership by highlighting the tensions and complexities that women leaders may face (Epitropaki et al., 2017) in balancing relational leadership with potential drawbacks.

Managerial implications Women academic leaders can implement strategies such as open communication, active listening, and fostering a supportive and inclusive work environment. They can prioritize recognition and appreciation for their colleagues' contributions and provide opportunities for delegation and empowerment. Simultaneously, they should be mindful of their own well-being, ensuring a healthy work-life balance and setting boundaries when necessary.

By taking these practical steps, women academic leaders can optimize their leadership effectiveness while managing the potential challenges associated with close relationships in the workplace. Initially, cultivating favourable relationships promotes a synergistic and unified work atmosphere (Gómez-Leal et al., 2023). Therefore, effective management of interpersonal relationships by women academic leaders enhances teamwork, communication, and the alignment of goals among team members.

Second, heightened leadership effectiveness directly leads to improved productivity in academic environments. When leaders skilfully handle difficulties connected to close connections, it reduces disruptions and promotes a more concentrated and productive work environment (Siddique et al., 2011; Hale, 2023). Thus, women academic leaders who successfully navigate workplace relationship issues foster a conducive environment for professional development, which can result

in a more actively involved and driven academic workforce.

Third, the maintenance of skilled individuals within an organisation can be enhanced by the implementation of a supportive and efficient leadership style, particularly in the management of interpersonal connections (Katzenbach & Smith, 2015). This can result in increased employee contentment and a greater rate of staff retention, which is of utmost importance in academic environments where the preservation of highly qualified faculty and staff is of the highest priority. Lastly, conflict resolution is a crucial talent for an academic leader, as it enables them to successfully handle and resolve problems that may emerge from interpersonal connections in the workplace (Katzenbach & Smith, 2015). The capacity to handle difficulties guarantees a cohesive work environment and mitigates the risk of disruptions to academic pursuits.

Limitations and Future Research Agenda

A significant limitation of my study is its cultural focus, as it is based on a British sample and therefore offers limited generalizability within the Anglo-Saxon cultural context. This restricts the findings' applicability to broader cultural settings, particularly in regions like Asia, where cultural dimensions such as power distance tend to be higher. The difference in power dynamics and hierarchical structures in these cultures may significantly influence leadership and leader-follower relationships, leading to different outcomes than those observed in my study. Future studies could include non-Western cultures, such as those in Asia, Africa, or the Middle East, would allow for a

deeper understanding of how cultural values and norms influence leadership styles and effectiveness. By exploring cultures with different attitudes toward hierarchy, researchers can examine whether the findings from Anglo-Saxon contexts apply or need adaptation in these settings. Second, future research could focus specifically on how varying levels of power distance in different cultures affect the leader-follower dynamic. Investigating leadership effectiveness in contexts with more pronounced hierarchical relationships could yield new insights into the adaptability of leadership models across cultures. Third, future studies could also explore how leadership theories and practices should be adapted to different cultural environments, which would help develop culturally sensitive leadership models that accommodate varying power structures and relational expectations, enhancing the relevance of leadership frameworks in diverse settings. Additionally, while my study is limited to a single cultural context, a cross-country comparative analysis could offer valuable insights into how different cultural, institutional, and societal contexts influence leadership practices. Moreover, inter-sectional experiences, such as those related to race, ethnicity, or socio-economic status, were not deeply explored, which could provide a more nuanced understanding of leadership in higher education.

Another limitation of my study is the exclusive focus on women academic leaders, which limits the findings to this specific group and overlooks the perspectives of followers and male leaders. A more comprehensive understanding of the leader-follower relationship requires considering the viewpoints of followers, as their experiences and perceptions play a critical role in shaping leadership dynamics. To gain a fuller understanding of the leader-follower dynamic, future research should consider conducting interviews or focus groups with colleagues of women academic leaders. This approach would help capture the followers' viewpoints, offering additional

insights into how leadership is perceived and enacted in academic environments. Second,

Further, future research should consider adopting mixed methods by integrating interviews, focus groups, and qualitative observational techniques alongside quantitative approaches. This would provide a more in-depth exploration of leadership dynamics and enhance the richness of observational insights.

By examining the discourse of women academics in UK HEIs, this study establishes a comparative framework for evaluating the influence of leader-follower relationships on leadership effectiveness. To gain a more comprehensive understanding of this topic, future research could incorporate interviews in addition to open-ended survey questions, given the constraints of limited time for survey responses.

Besides, considering followers' perspectives is crucial for a more comprehensive understanding of the leader-follower relationship. Thus, conducting interviews with colleagues of women academic leaders would be a judicious decision. Moreover, additional study may prioritise a cross-country comparative approach or delve deeper into the intersectional experiences of leaders. Furthermore, it is advisable to explore additional methods such as conducting interviews and focus groups to enhance the breadth of observational insights. Lastly, given the particularity of the sample (being solely of women leaders) and the potential disparity in leadership styles between females and males, it is advisable for future studies to further investigate if my findings may be generalised to male academic leaders.

Conclusion

Drawing from the entity perspective within Relational Leadership Theory (RLT), this study explores how the relationship between women academic leaders and their colleagues influences leadership effectiveness using the lens of relational dialectics theory (RDT). Through the application of contrapuntal analysis, I examine the impact of the leader-follower relationship on leadership effectiveness. A survey was conducted with 255 women academic leaders from UK HEIs, featuring open-ended questions that captured their experiences of leading colleagues. The analysis revealed two competing discourses on the leader-follower relationship for women academic leaders. The dominant discourse emphasizes the importance of strong relationships, highlighting benefits such as engagement, delegation, recognition, and career planning. In contrast, the marginal discourse highlights potential drawbacks like well-being, workload, and professionalism. These findings demonstrate the complexity of the topic and the need for careful navigation by women academic leaders. The interplay between these discourses shows participants' recognition of the benefits but also awareness of challenges, reflecting a nuanced understanding of effective leadership.

In practical terms, women academic leaders can employ four strategies to enhance their leadership effectiveness and manage workplace relationships effectively. First, building strong, positive relationships within the team c an promote a collaborative and unified work environment. Effective management of interpersonal relationships enhances teamwork, communication, and alignment of goals, leading to a more cohesive and productive team. Second, effective leadership that manages workplace relationships well contributes to improved productivity. By addressing and resolving issues related to close connections, leaders can minimize disruptions and create a more focused

and efficient work environment. Third, implementing a supportive and efficient leadership style can also improve the retention of skilled individuals. Managing interpersonal connections effectively increases employee satisfaction and retention rates, which is crucial in academic settings where retaining highly qualified faculty and staff is essential. At last, strong conflict resolution skills are vital for academic leaders. The ability to address and resolve issues arising from interpersonal relationships helps maintain a harmonious work environment and prevents disruptions to academic activities. Besides, effective conflict management ensures a cohesive team and supports the overall success of academic pursuits.

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Chapter 5: Discussion and Conclusions

This dissertation consists of three research papers: "A global leadership competency model for academic women leaders: attaining leadership effectiveness," "The impact of personality on women academics' perceived leadership effectiveness: The mediating role of motivation to lead," and "The impact of the leader-follower relationship on leadership effectiveness from the perspective of women academics: A relational dialectics lens". Information was gathered from a total of 255 women academic executives in the United Kingdom. These papers collectively provide a thorough and unified analysis that investigates: a) the influence of global leadership competencies on leadership performance; b) the particular global leadership competencies that influence the leadership effectiveness of women academic leaders; c) the combined influence of personality traits, attitudes towards cultural diversity, and perceptions of gender bias on the perceived leadership effectiveness of women academics; d) an exploration of the relationship between women academic leaders' interactions with their colleagues and their overall leadership effectiveness.

My findings are differentiated from others based on below distinct aspects:

In paper 1, my research adds to the existing body of knowledge on global leadership by examining how global leaders perceive and develop their identities (Cotter, 2022). I investigate the self-identity of women academic leaders and its impact on their effectiveness in a global setting. Second, I explore the extent to which specific categories of global leadership skills might forecast and influence the effectiveness of leadership at the individual level (Reiche et al., 2022). Third, my global leadership competency (GLC) model provides an analysis of the combined effectiveness of three GLCs: social, emotional, and intercultural aspects of leadership behaviours. Fourth,

previous research primarily examined the 'relationship' between global leaders and their followers. This was done by analysing data obtained either directly from the leaders themselves (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2009), or from multiple sources including both leaders and their followers or supervisors (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2012; Gong, 2006). At last, my study utilises primary data from leaders and subsequently re-validates the hypothesised model using external secondary data that provides a more objective assessment of leadership performance.

For paper 2, prior studies have investigated structural obstacles, such as patriarchal hierarchies in relation to women's career advancement (Mavin & Yusupova, 2020). Yet, there is a research gap when it comes to thoroughly examining the combined influence of women academics' personality traits, their attitudes towards cultural diversity, their perceptions of gender bias, and their motivations to lead on their effectiveness as leaders. These factors, which are internal aspects that influence women academics' career advancement, have not been thoroughly studied. In contrast to previous studies such as Sadeghi & Pihie (2012) and Saputra (2021), which typically attribute differences in leadership effectiveness to motivation to lead, my research takes a fresh approach grounded in personality theory. The 'motivation to lead' is influenced by an individual's personality qualities, beliefs, attitudes, and perceptions of gender prejudice in their professional settings. My argument is that the connection between the desire to lead and the perception of effective leadership is affected by an individual's personality traits, attitudes towards cultural diversity, and perceptions of gender bias, which are all part of their overall personality 'framework.' I provide both theoretical and practical contributions to the literature on organisational behaviour, industrial psychology, and gender studies.

For paper 3, my study utilises the entity perspective of Relational Leadership Theory (RLT) to

introduce a new viewpoint to the commonly held belief that developing deep connections with followers has inherent benefits. This challenges the assumptions made in previous studies (e.g., Hollander, 2012), specifically within the academic context. I further investigate the relational dynamics between a leader and a follower building upon the study conducted by Einola and Alvesson (2021). My study takes two additional approaches to explore this topic. To further explore the dynamics of the leader and follower relationship, I present the Relational Dialectics Theory (RDT) (Baxter, 2011). Second, as it has been argued that there is a tendency for immaturity among followers who excessively depend on the elected leader, it is crucial to conduct thorough empirical research that includes the viewpoints of all parties engaged in a relationship (Einola & Alvesson, 2021). Therefore, I analyse the viewpoints of leaders to explore how their relationships with their followers (colleagues) influence their leadership outcomes. Third, my study contributes to the existing RLT (Uhl-Bien, 2006) scholarship by incorporating RDT (Baxter, 2011) to examine the ever-changing nature of leader-follower relationships.

Limitations of the Research

First, one common limitation across the studies is the response rate. While the response rate of 25% is considered acceptable in academic research and aligns with the field's standards, it still represents a relatively low percentage of participants. This might introduce a potential response bias, and future research could aim for higher response rates.

Second, interaction effects, which are central to the research, are non-linear and challenging to adequately assess using traditional statistical methods. These studies recommend incorporating qualitative research approaches to gain a deeper and more nuanced understanding of the effects of leadership effectiveness. A mixed-methods approach could provide a comprehensive view.

Third, although the studies offer valuable insights, they rely primarily on cross-sectional data. Given that leadership development, particularly in global contexts, is a complex and time-dependent process, future research could benefit from longitudinal studies to explore how these relationships and dynamics evolve over time.

Fourth, the research predominantly focuses on the Anglo-Saxon culture, using a British sample, which may not fully represent the dynamics of leadership in different cultural contexts, such as Asian cultures with higher power distance. Expanding the research to include diverse cultural contexts can offer a broader perspective on leader-follower relationships.

Fifth, since the GLOBE project categorized societies into ten cultural clusters, emphasizing that leadership practices, organizational policies, and management procedures that prove effective in one cultural setting may fail or even lead to counterproductive outcomes in another (Gupta & Hanges, 2004). Thus, further research is needed to explore how, or to what extent, the leadership models from the wider Anglo cultural cluster can be applied to other distinct cultural clusters, such as African, Confucian Asian, Latin American, Middle Eastern, and South Asian (House, 2004; Cherfan & Allen, 2022). Examining the compatibility of leadership models across these diverse cultural contexts would provide valuable insights into whether elements of the Anglo-Saxon cultural leadership model in my study can be effectively integrated into or adapted to fit their unique leadership practices.

Additionally, considering the follower' perspectives is crucial for a more comprehensive understanding of the leader-follower relationship. Conducting interviews and gathering data from followers can provide a more holistic view of leadership dynamics.

When all samples in my study are women academic leaders, and the findings are being considered for their applicability to men, the concept of homogeneity can provide a basis for determining the extent to which the results may hold true for the male population. Homogeneity (Marsen, 1988), in this context, refers to the degree to which the characteristics, behaviours, and outcomes of the study sample (women leaders) are similar or consistent with those of a different population group (men leaders). From the perspective of data analysis, sample group homogeneity refers to how similar or consistent the data points within a group are (Johnson & Wichern, 2002). The homogeneity of a sample group affects various aspects of statistical analysis and outcomes in several key ways.

First, homogeneous sample groups have less variability (low variance and standard deviation), which means that individual data points are more closely clustered around the mean, which can simplify the analysis and help draw clearer conclusions. In contrast, heterogeneous groups with higher variability require more sophisticated statistical techniques to account for the differences within the sample. Second, many statistical tests, such as ANOVA and t-tests, assume homogeneity of variance (also called homoscedasticity), which means the variance among groups being compared should be roughly equal. Thus, if the sample groups are not homogeneous, this assumption is violated, which could lead to inaccurate results or biased estimates of effect size (Mardia et al., 2024; Gelman, 2007). Third, homogeneous sample groups are often more limited in terms of external validity or generalizability. A study on a very specific and uniform group (e.g., all subjects are women of the same age range) may produce results that apply well to that group but not to other populations (e.g., men group). In heterogeneous groups, although the data may be more complex, the results may be more generalizable to a broader population (Hair, 2009). Fourth,

in regression models, homogeneity in sample groups (i.e., similar predictor values) reduces the complexity of the model and can improve its predictive performance. Homogeneity can lead to lower multicollinearity among variables, ensuring more stable coefficient estimates. However, with heterogeneous groups, model complexity increases, and the presence of outliers or high variability can reduce the model's performance (Chatfield, 2018). Fifth, homogeneous groups often yield larger effect sizes since there is less noise (variability) in the data, making the effects of an independent variable more apparent. In heterogeneous groups, the variability may obscure the relationships between variables, resulting in smaller or less significant effect sizes (Mardia et al., 2024). At last, homogeneous groups can increase the statistical power of a study, as reducing within-group variance makes it easier to detect a true effect. In heterogeneous groups, the increased variance can reduce power, meaning larger sample sizes are required to achieve the same level of significance (Mardia et al., 2024).

To what extent the results hold for men depends on several factors. First, for behavioural or psychological variables, the applicability depends on whether research supports that men and women react similarly under similar circumstances. Research shows that gender influences leadership style, communication patterns, and psychological traits, which can lead to variations in how men and women lead. For example, studies suggest that women are more likely to focus on inspiring and motivating followers, nurturing followers, encouraging team input and collaboration and building relationships. Men leaders, on the other hand, emphasizing structure, control, and task-oriented behaviours (Eagly & Carli, 2003; Bass, 1997). Also, research also indicates that women leaders often focus on interpersonal communication and building rapport, which can create an inclusive and supportive work environment. They are more likely to engage in active listening

and express empathy (Eagly & Carli, 2007). Men leaders, however, prioritize direct communication and assertiveness, which can be effective in decision-making but sometimes are considered as less relational (Mardia et al., 2024). Besides, the homogeneity of social roles, experiences, and cultural expectations between men and women is also a consideration. If the study's context (e.g., workplace dynamics, educational settings) impacts men and women differently due to gender-specific socialization or expectations, the results may not be directly transferrable.

Also, differences in leadership behaviours between men and women can significantly influence leadership models that are sampled exclusively from one gender. Research has found that women and men tend to exhibit different leadership behaviours, though these differences are influenced by social, cultural, and organizational contexts rather than inherent gender traits (Shen & Joseph, 2021; Koenig et al., 2011). For example, women are often more likely to adopt a transformational leadership style (Novitasari et al., 2020; Eagly et al., 2003), which emphasizes inspiring and motivating team members, fostering collaboration, and encouraging personal development. Men, on the other hand, are more frequently associated with transactional leadership (Eagly et al., 2003), which focuses on goal setting, monitoring performance, and rewarding or penalizing based on outcomes. Besides, women leaders are often perceived as more communal (Eagly & Karau, 1991, 2002; Heilman, 2001)—demonstrating empathy, nurturing, and relationship-building. Men, in contrast, are more likely to exhibit agentic traits (Eagly & Karau, 2002), such as assertiveness, control, and independence (Eagly, 1987). These differences can lead to perceptions of role incongruity when women display agentic behaviours, as leadership roles are historically associated with masculine traits. Moreover, some studies suggest that men are more prone to taking risks in leadership roles, while women tend to adopt a more cautious, calculated approach, possibly due to

societal expectations and greater scrutiny of women in leadership (Eagly et al., 2003). In terms of conflict resolution and collaboration, women leaders often place a stronger emphasis on collaboration and consensus-building when managing teams, while men might adopt more directive or competitive approaches (Eagly et al., 2003).

Therefore, a leadership model developed exclusively from a female sample may reflect specific leadership strategies and behaviors that women uniquely adopt to overcome gender-related barriers or to succeed in specific organizational contexts. For example, women have faced numerous forms of inequality in the workplace, often illustrated through various metaphors that highlight the challenges they encounter. These metaphors serve as a popular means of depicting the obstacles that contribute to the under-representation of women in professional settings. Eight key themes have emerged to describe these barriers: the "concrete wall" and "concrete ceiling" (Catalyst, 1999), the "glass ceiling" (Carli & Eagly, 2016), the "glass escalator" (Goudreau, 2012), the "glass cliff" (Ryan & Haslam, 2005), the "maternal wall" (Williams, 2004), the "leaky pipeline" (Dasgupta & Stout, 2014), and the "leadership labyrinth" (Eagly et al., 2007). These metaphors collectively capture the complex dynamics limiting women's advancement in the workplace.

As such, this model may not fully capture or apply to men leaders, who, based on existing research, may employ different approaches to leadership. Given that leadership behaviors are contextually driven, a model derived from women's experiences should be recognized as addressing the particularities of female leadership and may not necessarily translate to male leadership, thus justifying its focus on women leaders.

Therefore, based on the above analysis, previous literature suggests that men and women exhibit different leadership behaviours to some extent, indicating that men and women leaders represent

heterogeneous groups in terms of behavioural variables. As a result, our study findings may not be applicable to men leader groups, necessitating further research that includes men participants.

Future Research Recommendations

Future research should further investigate the cultural diversity implications in leadership development programmes within HEIs. Studying the influence of cultural subtleties on the effectiveness of leadership interventions, specifically for women leaders, can yield valuable knowledge for customising leadership development programmes to various cultural environments. Furthermore, it would be advantageous to carry out longitudinal studies in order to evaluate the enduring effects of leadership development interventions on the career paths of women academic leaders. By monitoring individuals over a prolonged duration, it is possible to uncover how acquired skills and abilities contribute to long-term success in leadership roles and professional growth. This valuable information can be used to inform and shape strategies for developing effective leaders within organisations.

Additionally, it is necessary to conduct further investigation in order to analyse the specific obstacles encountered by women academic leaders in various cultural and organisational settings. Comprehending the connection between these challenges and leadership skills and effectiveness can provide valuable insights for implementing specific measures to overcome obstacles to achieving gender diversity in academic leadership positions.

Furthermore, conducting comparative studies across various national contexts can provide insights

into the contextual elements that impact the effectiveness of leadership development programmes for women academic leaders. Through the analysis of leadership practices, organisational cultures, and societal norms, researchers can discern optimal strategies and customise leadership development programmes to suit specific cultural and institutional environments.

Next, it is recommended that future studies evaluate the effectiveness of psychometric assessments that are specifically designed for women academics in predicting their leadership capabilities. Examining the accuracy and consistency of these evaluations in various cultural contexts can improve their usefulness in identifying leadership aptitude and guiding talent management strategies within higher education institutions (HEIs).

What is more, it is crucial to examine the impact of organisational support, such as mentorship programmes, networking opportunities, and institutional policies, on the advancement of women academic leaders. An analysis of the relationship between organisational support mechanisms and individual competencies can offer practical insights for promoting gender diversity and inclusion in academic leadership.

Furthermore, it is crucial to prioritise the exploration of cutting-edge methods, such as virtual reality simulations and online learning platforms, for the purpose of providing leadership development programmes to women academic leaders. Evaluating the effectiveness of technology-based interventions in improving leadership skills and advancing gender diversity can provide valuable insights for future leadership development strategies in higher education institutions.

In addition, it is recommended that future research employs an intersectional framework to investigate the ways in which various intersecting identities, such as race, ethnicity, and socio-economic status, interact with gender to influence leadership experiences and effectiveness. Gaining insight into the distinct obstacles encountered by women from various backgrounds can enhance the design of leadership development strategies that promote inclusivity and fairness.

At last, it is crucial to assess the influence of organisational policies and practices, such as flexible work arrangements, family-friendly policies, and gender-equitable recruitment and promotion processes, on the development of women's leadership skills and their progress in their careers. Evaluating the effectiveness of these measures in reducing gender prejudices and encouraging women's involvement in leadership roles can help institutions in their pursuit of gender diversity and equality in academic leadership.

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Appendix

Appendix A. Examples of Thematic Analysis Findings

How do relationships with your followers affect your performance？ Please give some examples.		
Quotations	**1st order concept**	**2nd order concept**
On the slightly less pleasant note, I have an administrative colleague who is not at all proactive. It's someone who peaked in their salary, their skillset is quite basic and they are not interested in growth, coasting until retirement. Although I do entice this person with new ideas and interesting work, they rely on me to have to 'tell' them each time, about every task they need to undertake. If I don't say, it won't happen	negative relationships lead to low leadership effectiveness or performance	(a) colleague 's disengagement lowers leader performance

spontaneously. Example: we organise events often. I ask the colleague if they found out prices for hospitality and menu choices. No, not yet – event is next week (!). The person appears to be surprised every time we need a venue, agenda, speaker bios etc. We do them at least 4 times a year, in the last 6 years. It is exhausting... I do address it, but it only improves for a while. I strongly dislike working with disengaged or not work-proud staff, it zaps my energy.		
I have confidence and trust in my followers. I delegate more easily and with confidence in the outcome. This makes me more effective and more efficient, and my followers likewise benefit from the trust I place in them. They have ownership in autonomy and work well	empowerment led to higher leadership effectiveness	(b) delegation and empowerment increase leadership effectiveness
their relationship with me is very	perform best when feel	

important to my performance. For example, some colleagues find it easier to ask for solutions and answers, but I do prefer where appropriate to get colleagues to seek out and think about solutions themselves so that they can feel ownership. A number of colleagues have come back to me in a strong positive frame of mind ad feeling valued by seeking solutions themselves and solutions that are correct for them.	valued	(c) attain ownership through recognition and appreciation
For example, during non-teaching times with more time space, challenges can be addressed more seamlessly. Or if one has complete awareness of the career stage of another colleague in the relation - e.g., early career, back from career break, other personal circumstances, then one can be prepared to manage an elevated time commitment to certain processes and the knowledge and	it is good to know in advance how to strategically plan at different career stages or situations	(d) support strategic planning

anticipation of this is in itself a stress reducer during natural exceptionally busy periods of the academic year cycle.		
For example, during non-teaching times with more time space, challenges can be addressed more seamlessly. Or if one has complete awareness of the career stage of another colleague in the relation - e.g., early career, back from career break, other personal circumstances, then one can be prepared to manage an elevated time commitment to certain processes and the knowledge and anticipation of this is in itself a stress reducer during natural exceptionally busy periods of the academic year cycle.	it is good to know in advance how to strategically plan at different career stages or situations	(e) benefiting colleagues' career planning and self-reflection
I think you get a huge amount working with a diverse group as they inform your views and help you reach an equitable provision	help leader reflecting their decisions or views	(f) benefiting women academic leaders' career planning and self-

		reflection

Appendix B. Codes of Thematic Analysis

Q1. Did you face any barriers during your career advancement process to get to your current position?		
1ˢᵗ order concept	**2ⁿᵈ order theme**	**Aggregate dimension**
need to work much harder than men colleagues to achieve commitment	Sexism, discrimination, and bullying	
much more administrative duties than men colleagues		
It is hard for women leaders to 'truly' exercise final-decision		

rights		
dismiss women' knowledge and experiences		
Misogyny		Barriers during career advancement process
sexual harassment		
Unequal pay		

less opportunities than men colleagues		
Queen Bee syndrome		
Men colleague's denial of 'glass ceiling'		
Women leaders in STEM field only be perceived as good technical expert		
need to have strong political skills to get promotion		
Immature maternity leave policy		

Dilemma in balancing children caring and work	family and child	
Patriarchal hierarchy	Structural issues	
Single promotion criteria		
Rigid and static leadership structure (Inflexible promotion		

structures in recognising different managerial experiences)		
Fast-paced organisational change resulted in the disintegration of valuable relationships between women academics		
Using Titular approach to get a position		
Poor grants management system		
Institution prefers to hire leaders externally		

Complex and lengthy promotion processes		
Degree transferability		
social class		
labour intensity		
Only permanent post can be offered leadership opportunities		
lack of support from same minority group		

Hostility towards cultural differences		
early career challenge		
Discipline attributes -related issues		
Lacking in mentoring/women leadership role model and invalid mentoring		
self-confidence		
Imposter syndrome	Individual aspects	

1st order concept	2nd order theme	Aggregate dimension
weak academic profile		
no PhD degree		

Q3. Please tell me more about why you wanted to do your current leadership role.

1st order concept	2nd order theme	Aggregate dimension
Initially do not apply		
opportunity appeared		
suggested by others or being nominated		
temporary role or rotating role in nature		
have opportunities to be elected to council		
policy-related	External	

	factors	
individual values fulfilment		
supporting EDI		
management skills are better than research or teaching		Motivator to be leaders
sense of duty		
good at admin		
be closer to family- location		
interested in collaboration		
to prove themselves		
try different career path or role		
want to change working environment		
enjoy combined tasks - research, teaching etc.		
foster good environment		
believe in their capability	Individual factors	

(confidence)		
Benefit from prior good leadership and learn a lot		
curious about leadership-related issues		
discipline-related love		
domestic violence - to earn more money		
enjoy challenge, decision-making, strategic planning, and overall management		
Intend to make a difference to the unit and& or the institution		
interested in achieving common goals		
interested in supporting team members career advancement		
unaware of individual		

1st order concept	2nd order theme	Aggregate dimension
potential until taking leadership role		

Q23. How do you get along with your colleagues? Please give some examples of these relationships.

1st order concept	2nd order theme	Aggregate dimension
(Leaders themselves are) a good listener	Positive tune	Women leaders' attitudes towards relationship with their colleagues
Friends		
Functional leadership		
productive relationship		
Using intercultural management approach		
be strict to middle-level colleagues (deans' words)		
not friends but good	Neutral tune	
partially good		
focus more on building professional environment		
feeling lack of support		
hard to perform management		

if being friends	Negative tune	
be bullied by senior manager		
be approachable		
be fair and equal		
be open (to advice)		
be proactive		
be responsive		
being firm		
be inclusive		
be authentic		
be efficient		

be role model		
Clarifying		
de-micro-manage give autonomy (laisse faire management approach)		
Developing		
emotional intelligence		
Empowering		
encourage cooperation		
encourage engagement		
Envisioning		Behaviours support formation of good relationships
equal communication (leader)		
facilitate collective learning		
Integrity		
lead by example		
making consensus or mutual goal		
Monitoring		
mutual respect		
Networking		
privilege relationship		

management		
problem-solving		
Recognising		
request feedback		
Transparency		
Trust		
Reflection		
follower-oriented rather than manager-oriented		
relationships influenced by pandemic -getting worse		
can create good atmosphere		
have solution-focused model		
be collegiate		

Q24. How do relationships with your followers affect your performance?

Please give some examples.

1st order concept	2nd order theme	Aggregate dimension
bring work pleasure		

makes leaders focus more on strategic planning rather than dealing with trifles		
gives leaders confidence		
motivate leaders and provide inspiration		
feel rewarding through successful collaboration		
perform best when feel valued		
empowerment lead to higher leadership efficiency		
colleagues can help leaders deal with workload		
open and clear communications make leaders' decision making more easily		
support from colleagues is important to		
trust makes things more efficiently		
know colleagues better helps leaders assign suitable tasks to them		

still work in academia despite of working pressure	Positive impact	
leaders will recognise followers more because they are recognised by followers		
people are more willing to take the tough if they find themselves being treated fairly		
performance will be better if you cooperate rather than lead		
positive relationship is positively related to personal well-being		
help leader reflecting their decisions or views		
it is good to know in advance how to strategically plan at different career stages or situations		
caused by pandemic		
negative relationships lead to low leadership efficiency or performance		

personal well-being (rather than performance) will be influenced by negative relationships		The impact of relationships between leaders and their colleagues on leader's performance
staff with different values and visions will lead to lower leadership performance		
some colleagues question their leadership styles		
tense relationships may bring more stress and lower leaders' confidence		
choose cover conflicts rather than challenge when conflicts are severe		
delegate less so increase the workload of leaders themselves		
find a scapegoat or shift workload to others		

	Negative impact	
Partial good relationships		
create 'scholarship' within teaching-intensive staff		
people sabotage others efforts can influence resilience and energy level	Challenging situations	

Q25. What does leadership effectiveness mean to you?		
1ˢᵗ order concept	**2ⁿᵈ order theme**	**Aggregate dimension**

achieve sustainable outcome		
be able to empower others		
be approachable and openness		
be assertive and responsible in decision-making		
be ethical		
be fair		
be operational		
be ready to compromise		
be reflective		
being authentic		
bring best to staff		
build meaningful networks		
business success (profitability)		
build a cohesive team		
clarifying		
confidence and courage		
developing individuals or groups		
get all information when enter a new role		
give autonomy		

timely responses		
to be a 'mediator'		
to be an influencer		Conceptualisation of 'leadership effectiveness'
transparency and equality and fair		
try to reach consensus	Interpersonal related conceptualisation	
uncover people's potential and fully use them		
use suitable leadership styles to achieve goal		
recognising		
have strategic goal and direction		
lead with example		
leadership effectiveness is related to relationship		
staff can hit their goal and keep themselves be authentic		
staff have a sense of agency		
Enhance staff productivity		
staff satisfaction		
staff share the vision and goal		

strengthen staff self-efficacy		
strong internal strength to cope with uncertainty		
Staff feel supported		
protecting staff from the excesses of the organisation		
Staff can maintain work-life balance		
make changes to the unit		
value feedback from others		
envisioning		
advance the health of unit		
collaboration and be collective		
ensure EDI		
high morale		
maintain balance between needs from staff students and seniors	Structure-related conceptuali sation	
maintain good relationships with staff		
student satisfaction		
bring good reputation		

1st order concept	2nd order theme	Aggregate dimension
deliver high performance	Teaching and research-related conceptualisation	
good student numbers		
high research and teaching quality		
fulfil budget requirements		
REF score		

Q38. What are your thoughts on whether selecting leaders with "Management" qualifications, and prior cross-cultural management experience would be beneficial to the unit's performance?

1st order concept	2nd order theme	Aggregate dimension
	depends on institutional culture	
	few existing	

	leaders have management qualifications	
	have management experience or qualification is important (F:48)	
	It is not good always let academics be in leadership position	
	leadership	

	and management are different	Whether management qualification benefits unit performance
	led by non-academics is bad	
	life or management experience is more important (F:32)	
	management qualification is necessary	

	(F:42)	
	management qualifications are just one element to be a good leader	
	prefer leadership rather than management	
	subject knowledge and expertise is important than management qualificatio	

	ns	
	temperame nt is more important than qualificatio ns	
	whether manageme nt qualificatio ns is important depends on individual	
	whether manageme nt qualificatio ns is important depends on the	

	discipline nature	
	people with management qualifications might do better	
	some management qualification is not good	
	something related to leadership	

	training (F:38)	
	It depends on the role	
	It may be beneficial but not essential	
	cross-cultural experience is important (Frequency :83)	
	cross-cultural management experiences would only be useful	Whether prior cross-cultural management experience benefits unit performance

	when in certain environme nt	
	Cross- cultural manageme nt is rare in UK	
	EDI is important	
	It is challengin g	
	good idea but need to ensure academic credibility	

		Discussion across CCM and management qualifications
	might be beneficial but not essential	
	values or mindset or awareness are important than qualifications	