



School of Social Sciences

Master in Business Administration

Postgraduate Dissertation

The Impact of Managerial Leadership Style on Employee
Performance: A Comparative Study between Greece and the United
Kingdom

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Patras, Greece, May 2026

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The Impact of Managerial Leadership Style on Employee Performance: A Comparative Study between Greece and the United Kingdom

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*I would like to express my sincere appreciation to everyone who supported me throughout
the completion of this dissertation.*

Abstract

This dissertation investigates how different managerial leadership styles relate to employee performance, focusing on how these relationships change across organisations. A comparative study of organisations in Greece and the United Kingdom is used to investigate how the importance of different leadership styles changes across different environments. Looking on classical leadership theories (authoritarian, transactional and transformational) and Self Determination Theory (SDT), this study examines whether autonomy supportive leadership behaviours are more strongly associated with employee performance than traditional leadership styles, and whether these relationships vary across Greece and the United Kingdom.

A quantitative, cross sectional research design was employed using a structured questionnaire distributed to employees ($N = 137$; Greece $n = 58$; United Kingdom $n = 79$). Pearson correlations, and multiple linear regression, conducted both for the overall sample and separately for each country.

The findings indicate that leadership–performance relationships are depended on the applied environment rather than something that applied universally. Across the full sample, SDT based leadership identified as the strongest and most consistent predictor of employee performance when leadership styles were examined simultaneously. From the data collected in Greece, SDT based leadership remained the only statistically significant predictor, suggesting that leadership behaviours supporting autonomy, competence, and relational quality can make a difference within more hierarchical environments. In contrast, the United Kingdom data showed transactional leadership as the statistically significant predictor, highlighting the importance of role clarity, structured rewards, and accountability mechanisms in the United Kingdom’s environment.

Exploratory open-ended responses were analysed descriptively and shown that trust, clear communication, autonomy, and managerial support are key related items for performance, while micromanagement and lack of clarity were mainly referred as having a negative impact on performance. Overall, the study suggests that leadership effectiveness is the most strongly linked to performance via context-dependent frameworks rather than one size fits all leadership models.

Keywords

leadership styles; employee performance; autonomy supportive leadership; Greece; United Kingdom; cross national comparison

Η Επίδραση του Στυλ Ηγεσίας στην Απόδοση των Εργαζομένων: Μια Συγκριτική Μελέτη μεταξύ Ελλάδας και Ηνωμένου Βασιλείου

Αναστάσιος Τουλίτσης

Περίληψη

Στην παρούσα διατριβή εξετάζεται η σχέση μεταξύ διαφόρων στυλ ηγεσίας και απόδοσης εργαζομένων, μέσα από μια συγκριτική μελέτη οργανισμών στην Ελλάδα και το Ηνωμένο Βασίλειο. Αξιοποιώντας τις κλασικές θεωρίες της ηγεσίας (αυταρχική, συναλλακτική και μετασχηματιστική) και τη Θεωρία Αυτοπροσδιορισμού (Self Determination Theory – SDT), η μελέτη διερευνά κατά πόσο οι συμπεριφορές ηγεσίας επηρεάζουν την απόδοση των εργαζομένων, καθώς και αν οι σχέσεις αυτές διαφοροποιούνται ανάμεσα στην Ελλάδα και την Αγγλία.

Η έρευνα έγινε με τη χρήση δομημένου ερωτηματολογίου σε εργαζόμενους ($n = 137$, Ελλάδα $n = 58$ και Ηνωμένο Βασίλειο $n = 79$). Τα στυλ ηγεσίας (αυταρχικό, συναλλακτικό, μετασχηματιστικό και SDT based) και η απόδοση εργαζομένων μετρήθηκαν με κλίμακες Likert. Η ανάλυση περιλάμβανε στατιστικά στοιχεία, έλεγχο αξιοπιστίας (Cronbach's alpha), συσχετίσεις Pearson και πολλαπλή γραμμική παλινδρόμηση τόσο για το συνολικό δείγμα όσο και ανά χώρα.

Τα αποτελέσματα δείχνουν στο συνολικό δείγμα, την SDT ηγεσία ως τον ισχυρότερο στατιστικά προβλεπτικό παράγοντα της απόδοσης. Στο ελληνικό υποδείγμα, η SDT ηγεσία ήταν ο μόνος στατιστικά σημαντικός παράγοντας, γεγονός που υποδηλώνει ιδιαίτερη σημασία των συμπεριφορών διοικητικής υποστήριξης σε πιο ιεραρχικά περιβάλλοντα. Αντίθετα, στο βρετανικό υποδείγμα, η συναλλακτική ηγεσία συνδέθηκε ισχυρότερα με την απόδοση, αναδεικνύοντας τον ρόλο της σαφήνειας, των ανταμοιβών και της λογοδοσίας.

Οι ανοικτές ερωτήσεις ανέδειξαν την εμπιστοσύνη, τη σαφή επικοινωνία, την αυτονομία και τη διοικητική υποστήριξη ως βασικούς ενισχυτικούς παράγοντες της απόδοσης, ενώ η μικροδιαχείριση και η έλλειψη σαφήνειας καταγράφηκαν ως ανασταλτικοί παράγοντες. Συνολικά, τα ευρήματα υποστηρίζουν ότι η αποτελεσματική ηγεσία εξαρτάται πληρέστερα μέσα από πολιτισμικά και οργανωσιακά πλαίσια που αυτή ασκείται, παρά από καθολικά μοντέλα ηγεσίας.

Λέξεις – Κλειδιά

στυλ ηγεσίας; απόδοση εργαζομένων; ηγεσία υποστηρικτική της αυτονομίας; Ελλάδα; Ηνωμένο Βασίλειο; διακρατική σύγκριση

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List of Abbreviations & Acronyms

SDT - Self Determination Theory

1 Introduction

1.1 Background and Research Problem

Leadership and employee performance are two topics that have been in the focus for long in organisational and management research. Early studies tried to identify what (traits) and how (behaviours) that separate effective leaders from less effective ones (Stogdill, 1948 [1]). Over time, this evolved into style-based frameworks that influence employees—most notably transactional and transformational leadership (Burns, 1978 [2], Bass, 1985 [3], Bass & Riggio, 2005 [4]). These foundations helped establish leadership as a practical driver of effort, coordination, and performance in organisations.

In recent years, the context in which leadership is practiced has changed in recent years. Most of organisations now operate in environments defined by digitalisation, remote and hybrid working, intense competition, and increasing expectations around autonomy, wellbeing, and meaningful work. Under this view, leadership is less often viewed as a fixed and strongly defined behaviours and more as a dynamic, relational process that shapes how employees experience autonomy, engagement, and performance in their day-to-day work (Yukl 2013, [5], Fischer et al, 2026 [6]).

Traditional leadership research also tended to assume that broad leadership styles—especially transformational and transactional leadership styles—would work in broadly similar ways across organisations (Burns 1978 [2]). Later evidence indicated positive associations between transformational leadership and employee performance (Judge & Piccolo 2004 [7], Wang et al. 2011 [8]). However, more recent research has questioned whether assumptions applied universally are enough for explaining performance in contemporary settings. Leadership effectiveness increasingly appears to vary with situational demands and dynamics, cultural or institutional conditions, prompting a shift toward more nuanced, targeted, mechanism based, and contextually embedded leadership frameworks (Antonakis et al., 2026 [6], Eva et al., 2018 [9]).

In recent years, Self Determination Theory (SDT) has emerged as a dominant framework for understanding how autonomy, competence, and relatedness shape the quality of proactive behaviour and performance outcomes (Deci & Ryan, 2009 [10], Gagné & Deci, 2005 [11]). Recent empirical studies further suggest that autonomy supportive leadership behaviours can be especially predictive of performance in complex and knowledge intensive environments (Van den Broeck et al., 2021 [12], Howard et al., 2017 [13], Olafsen et al., 2024 [14]).

1.2 Research Problem and Gap

Although there is extensive research around the world on leadership and employee performance, important gaps remain. Much of the existing literature in leadership effectiveness primarily through broad stylistic categories—such as transformational, transactional, or authoritarian leadership—without clearly specifying the psychological pathways through which these styles influence employee performance. As a result, leadership styles are often used to explain behaviours rather than the opposite; as behavioural inputs that shape employee's performance (Van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013 [15]).

There are reviews that argue this style of research has limited explanatory precision and contributed to overlapping constructs and mixed empirical findings (Hoch et al., 2021 [16]; Antonakis et al., 2026 [6]). At the same time, cross national differences in leadership effectiveness are often described at the level of culture, with less attention paid to how leadership behaviours may operate through motivationally relevant experiences within specific institutional contexts (Eva et al., 2018 [9]).

As a result, there is a clear need for research that moves beyond style-based leadership comparisons and investigates the effect of leadership style to the employee performance, while also accounting for national and cultural context. This gap is especially important in European organisations, where differences in authority, performance expectations, and employee–manager relationships can vary significantly between countries such as Greece and the United Kingdom.

1.3 Research Aim and Objectives

The primary aim of this study is to examine the impact of managerial leadership styles on employee performance, with particular emphasis on authoritarian, transactional, transformation and SDT based leadership behaviours and cross-national context. Specifically, the study seeks to:

- Examine the relationships between authoritarian, transactional, transformational, and SDT based leadership and employee performance.
- Compare leadership–performance relationships between Greece and the United Kingdom in order to identify context specific patterns.
- Include the Culture parameter as motivator to understand if it impacts the findings.

By addressing these objectives, this study responds directly to current calls for leadership research that is more precise, psychologically grounded, and sensitive to environment (organisation and cultural, while still building on established leadership theory (Judge & Piccolo, 2004 [7]; Van den Broeck et al., 2021 [12]; Antonakis et al., 2023 [6]).

1.4 Research Questions

To fulfil the stated aim, the study addresses the following research questions:

1. What is the relationship between different managerial leadership styles and employee performance?
2. Do leadership–performance relationships differ between Greece and the United Kingdom?
3. How the cultural parameters effect the research outcomes.

These research questions in full alignment with the study’s theoretical framework, data analysis methodology and strategy. At the same time, ensure coherence between the research design and the conclusions drawn.

1.5 Significance of the Study

This study makes contributions to both leadership research and practice. Theoretically, this study combines Self-Determination Theory with traditional leadership approaches, helping to connect established leadership ideas with employee performance. It also addresses recent concerns that existing leadership concepts can overlap and lack clear explanations of the specific behaviours that drive performance. (Bass, 1985 [3]; Van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013; [15] Antonakis et al., 2023 [6]).

From a more practical point of view, this research findings offer evidence-based guidance for managers and organisations seeking to enhance and improve employee performance in diverse cultural contexts. By highlighting how leadership behaviours in authoritarian, transactional, transformational and SDT based styles relate to performance across national environments, the study provides a more context sensitive leadership development and management practices.

Finally, the comparative focus on Greece and the United Kingdom adds clear empirical value by showing how leadership–performance relationships can differ across European organisational contexts, contributing to an area that remains underexplored in both classic and contemporary leadership research. (Eva et al., 2021 [9]).

1.6 Structure of the Dissertation

The remaining parts of the dissertation is organised as below:

- **Chapter 2:** presents a critical review of the literature on leadership styles, focusing on authoritarian, transactional, transformation and STD based. Also, describes the employee performance and cultural context, which assisted in the development of research hypotheses used in the research survey.
- **Chapter 3:** explains the research approach, including how the survey was designed, how participants were selected, how key variables were measured, and how the data were analysed.
- **Chapter 4:** presents the results of the study, including descriptive statistics, reliability checks, correlation and regression analyses, as well as insights from the open-ended responses.
- **Chapter 5:** discusses these findings in relation to existing leadership theories, highlighting the study’s theoretical contributions and what the results mean in a cross-national context.
- **Chapter 6:** concludes the dissertation by summarising key findings, outlining managerial implications, acknowledging limitations, and proposing directions for future research.

In summary, this structure moves clearly from theory to data and then to interpretation, allowing for a thorough and coherent examination of how leadership relates to employee performance in organisations in Greece and the United Kingdom.

2 Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

Leadership and employee performance have long been in the focus within organisational and management research. Early leadership studies initially focused on understanding in a relatively stable way the actions and behaviours that might differentiate effective leaders from less effective ones (Stogdill, 1948 [1]). Although this approach was the beginning, quickly evolved into a style-based frameworks that influence the employee performance—most notably transactional and transformational leadership (Burns, 1978; [2] Bass, 1985; [3] Bass & Riggio, 2006 [4]). These classic frameworks used by leadership to provide an important and useful tool through which organisations can shape and monitor employee effort and performance. In parallel, these frameworks continue to provide large data sets for both research and managerial practice (Bass & Riggio, 2006 [4], Yukl, 2013 [5], Antonakis et al., 2023 [6]).

Throughout the years many assumptions built into early leadership theory have become harder to apply in modern workplaces. Nowadays, organisations increasingly adapt digital way of work, more and new knowledge, cross cultural interaction, remote and hybrid work, and continuous change. In this way, leadership effectiveness appears to be related not only on what leaders do and how, but also on how leadership behaviours are translated by the employees and embedded within organisational systems and day to day work processes (Yukl, 2013 [5]; Antonakis et al., 2023 [6]). As a result, leadership research has gradually moved beyond purely descriptive approaches and now focuses more on clearly defined behaviours, the importance of context, and explaining how and why leadership affects outcomes. (Antonakis et al., 2023 [6]).

At the same time, as psychology studies are evolving the understanding and interpretation of employee performance has changed from a simple output measure to a behavioural phenomenon (Antonakis et al., 2023 [6], Eva et al., 2021 [9]). Various studies emphasise that performance often depends on discretionary, adaptive, and proactive behaviours that cannot be fully prescribed or continuously monitored (Pulakos et al., 2000 [17]). Hence, this leads to a practical and research relevant question: Which leadership behaviours are associated with this broader term of performance, and do these relationships vary across national contexts such as in Greece and the United Kingdom?

Based on the above, this chapter reviews:

- (1) how employee performance is conceptualised and measured;
- (2) leadership styles relevant to this study (authoritarian, transactional, transformational, and SDT based leadership behaviours); and
- (3) how cultural, cross-national and institutional context can shape leadership–performance relationships.

The chapter concludes by integrating these strands into a clearly articulated research gap that motivated the creation of the hypothesis and the empirical model tested in later in this dissertation study.

2.2 Conceptualising Employee Performance

Employee performance is widely recognised as a multidimensional construct rather than a single outcome measure (Pulakos et al., 2000 [17]). Campbell, 1993 [18] presented performance as behavioural items relevant to organisational goals. Also, he distinguished performance from outcomes that may be affected by external factors such as market conditions or resource limitations (Campbell, 1993 [18]). Based on this behavioural view, Koopmans et al. [19] proposed a comprehensive framework comprising task performance, contextual performance, and adaptive performance.

2.2.1 Task performance

The term Task Performance refers to the execution of the core job requirements and technical activities that are set as goals to the employee (Griffin et al, 2001 [20]). These goals are directly connected and contribute to the organisational objectives. It mainly includes meeting role requirements as per the job description, delivering expected outputs, and maintaining accuracy and efficiency in routine responsibilities (Griffin et al, 2001 [20]). Hence, because of the close connection of task performance to the formal job descriptions, it is the aspect of performance most directly linked to traditional appraisal systems and monitoring (Chernyshenko & Stark, 2005 [21]).

Past research has consistently demonstrated that increased levels of task performance are strongly related by clarity of expectations, availability of resources, and effective coordination across interdependent roles (Chernyshenko & Stark, 2005 [21]). tend to lead to lower task performance and create inefficiencies, especially in situations where work is complex and closely interconnected (Rizzo et al., 1970 [22]; Jackson & Schuler, 1985 [23]). In addition, there are evidence that further enhance that role stressors are reliably and consistently related to reduced task performance outcomes, reinforcing the importance and criticality of managerial activities that reduce ambiguity and conflicts (Eatough et al., 2011 [24]).

Moreover, the job design and role structure effect directly employee's behaviour during work execution. This is impacting as a chain effect the task performance. As per Work redesign theory (Hackman & Oldham, 1980 [25]), usable feedback and clear responsibility help and guide employees to correct performance proactively during execution rather than only after failure. More recent research of the field of job design presents that modern roles do not limit only in task characteristics but also include social and team player requirements, which can impact how reliably employee can perform and successfully complete task work under pressure (Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006 [26]).

Based on the above, task performance nowadays is not only limited in job description requirements, but either include or impacted by psychological aspects. Hence, leadership should understand and interpret this information and especially line managers, as they often shape the practical experience of job design through everyday behaviours and decisions about priorities, task interdependence, and feedback routines.

2.2.2 Contextual performance and organisational citizenship

Contextual performance refers to discretionary behaviours that go beyond formal job requirements and help support team functioning and overall organisational effectiveness (Williams & Anderson, 1991 [27]). This concept overlaps closely with organisational

citizenship behaviour (OCB), which refers to actions such as cooperation and helping others, as well as behaviours that support a positive social and psychological work environment (Williams & Anderson, 1991[27]; Organ et al., 2006 [28]). Borman and Motowidlo, 1993 [29] argued that such behaviours contribute to effectiveness and increase task performance by supporting the social and psychological environment in which task performance occurs.

Another key implication is that contextual performance is difficult and less flexible to direct control than task performance. These behaviours are discretionary and dependent to the personality, they are very sensitive to leadership behaviours that influence fairness, trust, and perceptions of the consistency of the established procedures. To emphasise this, empirical research has demonstrated that leadership and work context factors that reduce role stressors and support coordination are related with stronger OCB and other contextual performance indicators influencing positively task performance (Podsakoff et al., 2000 [30]; LePine et al., 2002 [31]).

Additional empirical research has shown that contextual performance is not a single behaviour. Research distinguished between OCB directed toward individuals (OCB I; e.g., helping, courtesy) and OCB directed toward the organisation (OCB O; e.g., civic virtue, conscientiousness), and shows that these can provide different results based to workplace conditions (Williams & Anderson, 1991[27]; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996 [32]). Leadership can use this research outcome because some leadership behaviours may be directed to influence for interpersonal cooperation (OCB I) while others may be tuned more strongly to broader organisational engagement and diligent behaviour (OCB O) (Williams & Anderson, 1991[27]; Van Scotter & Motowidlo, 1996 [32]).

2.2.3 *Adaptive and proactive performance*

Adaptive performance refers to an employee's ability to respond effectively to change and uncertainty. This includes learning new skills, dealing with unfamiliar situations, and adjusting behaviour when conditions change (Pulakos et al., 2000[17]). Griffin et al., 2007 [33] explained that adaptive performance is different from proactive behaviour. While adaptive performance focuses on responding effectively to change, proactive behaviour involves taking self-initiated actions to improve work processes and anticipate future demands (Parker et al., 2010 [34]; Parker et al., 2019 [35]).

Nowadays, organisations face constant and continuous change, adaptive and proactive performance have become critical determinants of effectiveness. Both behaviours are difficult to understand if they exist to the employee in advance and often involve uncertainty or risk. However, leadership behaviours that clarify priorities, support local problem solving, and reduce any non-essential barriers have a significant impact in enabling adaptation without continual managerial intervention (Yukl, 2013 [5]; Griffin et al., 2007 [33]).

Finally, past empirical and scientific research has shown that adaptive performance is sensitive to environments that allow experimentation and rapid correction (Edmondson, 1999 [36]; Pulakos et al., 2000 [17]), because adaptation often involves operating and taking decisions under imperfect information and adjusting quickly. In this way, leadership behaviours that encourage early issue escalation and constructive feedback to mistakes support and increase adaptive performance by making easier for problems to

be spotted and resolved early and before escalation (Edmondson, 1999 [36]; Pulakos et al., 2000 [17]).

2.2.4 Leadership, work design, and the “conditions” for performance

In order to connect leadership to performance in a way to exclude unmeasured psychological mediation, is to use the assumption that leaders are contributors to work design. Hence, managers act in a way to clear the path so employees can perform. In essence, influence how work is structured through decisions about task scope, decision rights, workflow interdependence, handovers, and feedback mechanisms. As a result, this can shape what employees can do and how reliably they can do their tasks.

In classic work redesign theory, it is evident that autonomy, feedback, and task identity are key characteristics with quality, effectiveness of work behaviour and improved performance (Hackman & Oldham, 1976 [37]; Hackman & Oldham, 1980 [25]). In operation, managers apply these characteristics through everyday activities such as allocating discretion over methods, setting stable priorities, and ensuring timely information flow. This is supported by Grant and Parker (2009) [38] who argued that performance increasingly depends on coordination quality, relational boundaries, and opportunities for initiative in roles that are characterised by increased interdependence and uncertainty. In modern job roles social and relational skills, like interdependence, feedback from others, interaction outside the organisation is required as shown by studies (Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006 [39]). This shape coordination requirements and learning opportunities as presented in (Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006 [39]). These insights are directly relevant to leadership–performance research because leadership behaviours often determine whether interdependence produces coordination and learning, or confusion and conflict.

2.2.5 Behavioural pathways from leadership to performance (without mediation)

Leadership is strongly connected to performance through observable pathways such as role clarity, coordination quality, and feedback usability. It is proven that lower role ambiguity and role conflict are consistently associated with stronger task performance and effectiveness (Rizzo et al., 1970 [22]; Jackson & Schuler, 1985 [23]; Eatough et al., 2011 [24]). At the same time, clarity and coordination also support contextual and adaptive performance (LePine et al., 2002 [31]; Griffin et al., 2007 [33]).

Feedback is the other behavioural pathway that connects leadership to performance. Scientific research has shown that performance improves most reliably when feedback is timely and specific, whereas poorly designed feedback can be ignored or even worse can disrupt performance (Ilgen et al., 1979 [40]; Kluger & DeNisi, 1996 [41]). Leadership could control both the availability and usability of feedback through everyday performance management activities (e.g., how often feedback is given, whether it is behaviourally specific, and whether it is linked to controllable actions).

2.2.6 Learning, error management, and performance behaviour

Another way that leadership and performance can be connected is on how organisations handle errors, near misses, and routine process failures. Research in psychological safety has shown that employees are more likely to report errors and speak up when

interpersonal risk is reduced (Edmondson, 1999 [36]; Edmondson & Lei, 2014 [42]). In operational environments that work is interdependent and knowledge is distributed within different departments, early problem identification is an asset because it allows applying corrective actions faster, reduces the accumulation of small failures and eventually cost.

Data in error reporting has shown that employees frequently are able to detect operational issues first but may remain silent if disclosure the information is risky or perceived as they would be blamed. Zhao and Olivera (2006) [43] presented that error reporting involves detection, assessment, and a choice of behavioural response, and that leadership can either support or not this choice. As per (van Dyck et al., 2005) [44], an error management culture that encouraging rapid detection, communication, and correction of errors is strongly associated with higher performance outcomes. As a result, it can be concluded that leadership supports performance by shaping whether information about errors and improvement opportunities flows upward and is acted upon promptly.

Detert and Burris, 2007 [45] also support the above, as they have shown that leader openness is consistently related to improvement-oriented culture. In addition, Morrison, 2011 **Error! Reference source not found.** identified that voice is a discretionary behaviour that has important implications for improvement and adaptation. To sum up, the above findings support the view that leadership influences performance partly by determining whether employees share performance relevant information that leaders cannot observe directly.

2.2.7 Work design under digitalisation and hybrid work

Nowadays that digitalisation and hybrid work arrangements are getting more and more applied within organisations, an additional layer to work design and leadership influence is added. With more and more digital systems in workplaces, the need for informal coordination is reduced and reliance on explicit routines increased. This help to better define responsibilities, and to use well-designed communication channels. Wang et al., 2021 [47] suggested that performance in hybrid work environments depends strongly on how leaders manage availability, provide feedback, monitor work, and coordinate activities.

As a result, leadership influences performance in hybrid and remote work mainly through practical decisions—such as how clearly roles are defined, how well feedback and communication processes work remotely, and whether monitoring helps coordination rather than creating friction or micro-management.

2.3 Authoritarian Leadership

The main characteristic of Authoritarian leadership is the centralised decision making, strict behavioural control, and limited participation in decision making activities from employees (Farh & Cheng, 2000 [48]). In general, authoritarian leadership has been applied to highly controlled environments and is related with compliance to the guidelines and efficiency. However, empirical research has identified that authoritarian leadership model has a substantial behavioural cost to sustain that tight control (Farh & Cheng, 2000 [48]).

It is understood that controlling leadership reduces employee willingness to speak up and constrains information flow. Studies consistently link authoritarian leadership to lower levels of voice, helping behaviour, and adaptive performance, particularly in knowledge based and uncertain environments (Schaubroeck et al., 2017[49]; Harms et al., 2021 [50]; Zhang et al., 2022 [51]). These findings are directly related to performance because they reduce the likelihood that any problems are identified early and reduce the willingness of the employees to contribute beyond minimum role requirements (Zhang et al., 2022 [51]).

2.3.1 Empirical evidence on performance and discretionary behaviours

Empirical findings have shown that authoritarian leadership is closer with compliance type outcomes while contextual or adaptive performance if appears is very low. In some cases, directive control can support short-term task execution in stable environments. However, it tends to limit learning-oriented behaviour and initiative, particularly when work requires judgement, coordination, and rapid adaptation (Kiazad et al., 2020 [52]; Zhang et al., 2022 [51]).

In addition, authoritarian leadership is connected with conditions that undermine sustained discretionary performance, including higher stress and exhaustion, which as a chain effect are linked to reduced performance and reduced willingness to help or speak up (Harms et al., 2021 [50]). This pattern is consistent with existing research showing that highly controlled environments can lead to risk-averse behaviour and reduce employees' willingness to go beyond their formal job requirements (Tepper, 2000 [53]).

Past research has shown that despite the strict structure of authoritarian leadership, this does not mean that clarity and fairness is accepted as de-facto by employees. Employees differentiate between legitimate structure and controlling micro-management, with the latter constraining discretionary performance and limiting performance relevant information flow (House et al., 2004 [54]; Farh & Cheng, 2000 [55]).

2.4 Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership is the leadership style in which includes providing reward and corrective monitoring, linking performance to specific expectations and feedback (Burns, 1978 [2]). Research in the topic have provided evidence showing that transactional leadership—particularly contingent reward—is positively associated with employee performance (Judge & Piccolo, 2004 [7]).

The strength of transactional leadership is that it can reduce ambiguity and direct effort toward clearly specified objectives and goals. In this way, setting goals is an activity requiring proper research and effort to ensure they are clear, achievable and strategic [57]. Previous research has shown that setting clear goals and providing feedback can improve task performance, particularly when tasks are stable, well defined, and easy to measure (Locke & Latham, 2002 [56]).

2.4.1 Empirical evidence across performance dimensions

Evidence from past research indicated that transactional leadership is strongly associated with task performance, particularly where performance criteria are explicit, achievable and observable (Judge & Piccolo, 2004 [7]). Clarifying role expectations and linking

rewards—such as pay, bonuses, or recognition—to the achievement of specific objectives has been consistently shown to improve task performance (Judge & Piccolo, 2004 [7]). On the other hand, corrective monitoring actions, can become counterproductive when seen as excessive or inconsistent (Judge & Piccolo, 2004 [7]). In practical terms, corrective monitoring can be experienced as surveillance if applied rigidly. This distinction supports careful interpretation of transactional leadership effects in empirical models.

However, for contextual and adaptive performance evidence is weaker since as explained previously those depend on discretion and learning. Several studies suggest that transactional leadership can support reliability and compliance, but it does not consistently predict adaptive or proactive behaviours. This limitation becomes more apparent in uncertain environments or when work is difficult to monitor (Miao et al., 2018 [58]; Breevaart & Zacher, 2022 [59]). This distinction is particularly important for the present dissertation, as employee performance is treated as multidimensional and includes behaviours that go beyond structured, target-based control.

Studies conducted in regulated and safety-critical environments show that transactional leadership can support reliability and procedural compliance. However, maintaining or improving performance over time often depends on complementary leadership behaviours that encourage communication, reporting, and problem solving (Breevaart & Zacher, 2022 [59]). This highlights that performance improvement relies not only on structure and control, but also on effective information flow—especially in contexts where small errors can escalate into larger operational problems (Zhang et al., 2022 [51]).

2.5 Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership focuses on the vision, intellectual stimulation, and provide support to develop new skills (Bass, 1985 [3]; Bass & Riggio, 2006 [4]). Previous research has consistently linked transformational leadership to improved performance outcomes across a wide range of sectors (Judge & Piccolo, 2004 [7]; Wang et al., 2011 [60]).

However, critiques have been made for transformation leadership highlighting that often operates as a theoretical concept that include multiple positive behaviours without clearly outlining how those combined behaviours effect on performance (Van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013 [61]). The basis for this critique is important and cannot be ignored as by combining positive behaviours from different leadership models there is overlap between the different models, hence difficult to extract clear and safe results (Van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013 [61]).

2.5.1 Empirical evidence on performance outcomes and incremental validity

There is strong evidence from empirical research that show high relationship between transformational leadership and performance (Judge & Piccolo, 2004 [7]; Wang et al., 2011 [60]). However, once the research is more narrowed down to the actual parts that describe transformational leadership, the overlapping criticism kicks in (Van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013 [61]). Hence, this suggest that transformational leadership may capture a broad package of generally effective behaviours rather than breaking down

to a distinct behavioural mechanism (as done in other leadership styles) (Banks et al., 2016 [62]).

For the present study, this provides a clear rationale for examining transformational leadership alongside other leadership approaches, including transactional and SDT based behavioural leadership, within the same analytical framework.

2.6 Self Determination Theory Based Leadership as Behavioural Practice

Self Determination Theory (SDT) suggests that employees can perform better when their basic psychological needs of autonomy, competence, and relatedness are satisfied (Deci & Ryan, 2000 [63]). In this dissertation, SDT based leadership is treated strictly as a behavioural practice, focusing on observable managerial actions rather than motivational mediation.

Previous research has shown that leadership behaviours supporting discretion, clear structure, and respectful interaction are accompanied with increased task performance (Slemp et al., 2018 [64]; Van den Broeck et al., 2021 [12]). This behavioural framing supports comparison with transactional and transformational leadership within the same empirical model, supported in this dissertation thesis.

2.6.1 SDT Based versus Transformational Leadership: A Behavioural Comparison

Although, transformational and SDT based leadership is easy to confuse, however there is distinguished difference. This is in how those styles operate. While transformational leadership focuses mainly on how employees interpret leadership meanings and perceptions (Bass, 1985 [3]; Van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013 [15]), SDT focuses in what employees can actually do (Deci & Ryan, 2000 [63]). Transformational leadership is focused on creating inspiration and vision as the way to improve employee's performance (Bass, 1985 [3]; Van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013 [15]). On the other hand, SDT based leadership is focused on the design of work conditions that enable employees to perform effectively (Deci & Ryan, 2000 [63]).

Another key distinction is related on how the effect of each style is explained in performance. As described already, transformational leadership functions as a broad umbrella construct that bundles multiple positive behaviours, which impact performance, however measuring each behaviour's impact in performance is difficult to explain due to the overlap with other leadership styles (Banks et al., 2016 [62]). SDT-based leadership focuses on a more specific set of observable behaviours—such as providing meaningful autonomy, offering constructive and informational feedback, and avoiding controlling practices—which allows for a more precise understanding of how leadership influences performance (Deci & Ryan, 2000 [63]).

This distinction is important from a data analysis perspective. Transformational leadership assumes that changes in internal states (e.g. inspiration, vision) influence performance, whereas SDT based leadership explains performance through changes in work design and behaviours. Hence, SDT based leadership is well suited to empirical research models, such as in this work, that prioritise observable managerial practices and performance outcomes over unmeasured psychological states.

2.7 How Leadership Styles Handle Feedback

Differences between leadership styles are especially visible in how feedback is delivered and used.

Authoritarian leadership tends to use feedback as a mechanism to control employees (Farh & Cheng, 2000 [48]). Feedback is often evaluative on the performance, present required corrective actions that the employee should take, and comes from the management to the employee (Farh & Cheng, 2000 [48]). In addition, it is mainly focused on identifying deviations from expected behaviour. While such leadership ways may work effectively and efficiently (or even required) in environments that compliance is critical. Moreover, this can be useful for error correction in routine tasks. Nevertheless, it can discourage open dialogue between employees and management and reduce the likelihood that employees seek or share performance relevant information (Schaubroeck et al., 2017[49]; Harms et al., 2021 [50]).

In transactional leadership, feedback is mainly used as part of an exchange process. Feedback clarifies performance standards and reinforces desired behaviour through contingent reward or corrective action (Judge & Piccolo, 2004 [7]). In this approach, task performance is monitored where criteria are explicit, but feedback is typically focused for actions happened in the past and is limited in its capacity to support adaptation (Judge & Piccolo, 2004 [7]).

In transformational leadership, feedback is presented as developmental and encouraging and often given by inspirational communication (Judge & Piccolo, 2004 [7]; Wang et al., 2011 [60]). Feedback is used to reinforce employee's confidence and commitment to goals, but specific guidance can be inconsistent. As a result, feedback may motivate effort while providing limited concrete direction for improvement, especially when tasks are complex or evolving (Judge & Piccolo, 2004 [7]; Wang et al., 2011 [60]).

In SDT based leadership, feedback is used as informational rather than controlling. Feedback is specific, timely, and oriented toward helping employees adjust behaviour and improve competence (Deci & Ryan, 2000 [63]). Feedback is clear, usable and non-threatening, hence SDT based leadership reduces the interpersonal cost of reporting errors and mistakes, while at the same time supports learning-oriented behaviour. Finally, from a performance perspective, this approach links feedback to continuous learning and improvement, rather than using it simply as a tool for evaluation (Slemp et al., 2018 [64]; Van den Broeck et al., 2021 [12]).

2.8 Cultural Context and Leadership Effectiveness

Culture influences how leadership behaviours are interpreted and experienced by employees, rather than directly affecting performance outcomes (House et al., 2004 [54]). Differences across countries can be explained by variations in expectations of authority, organisational structures, and everyday work practices.

For example, in contexts where hierarchical authority is more accepted, such as Greece (Hofstede 2001 [90]), leadership behaviours that emphasise structure, direction, and control may be more aligned with employee expectations. In such environments, autonomy-supportive and participative behaviours may still be beneficial, but their impact on performance is expected to be less pronounced.

In contrast, in contexts such as the United Kingdom (Hofstede 2001 [90]), where autonomy and participation are often embedded in standard organisational practices, these behaviours align with expectations of independence and involvement in decision-making and are therefore more likely to increase motivation and contribute positively to performance.

Based on this, it can be expected that leadership styles that emphasise autonomy, participation, and inspiration—such as transformational and SDT leadership—will show stronger relationships with employee performance in contexts like the United Kingdom, compared to more hierarchical environments like in Greece.

More broadly, this means that the same leadership behaviour can be experienced and interpreted differently depending on the environment. Employees do not respond only to what leaders do, but also to how those behaviours fit with their expectations, work systems, and organisational norms. As a result, cross-national differences in leadership outcomes reflect not only the behaviours themselves, but the context in which they are enacted (Eva et al., 2021 [9]; Antonakis et al., 2023 [6]). In simple terms, culture shapes how leadership is “received” because it influences what employees expect from their leaders and how they interpret their actions. Leadership does not operate in isolation; it is filtered through these expectations and experiences, which explains why the same behaviours can lead to different outcomes across countries.

2.8.1 Empirical evidence on voice, learning, and performance across different cultures

Voice and learning behaviours are key to performance improvement in complex work environments because they spot and escalate operational risks and improvement opportunities that are otherwise invisible to leadership. Past research has shown that leader openness is consistently associated with error reporting, and learning behaviours that support adaptation (Detert & Burris, 2007 [45]; Edmondson & Lei, 2014 [42]; Newman et al., 2017 [65]). These behaviours are performance relevant not only to the employee but to the organisation, as they improve error detection, and process reliability.

Moreover, Van Dyck et al., 2005 [44] further demonstrated that organisational behaviours that support rapid communication and correction of errors are related to higher performance. This evidence suggests that leadership and organisational context jointly shape whether performance relevant information is shared or suppressed.

However, reviews of employee voice emphasise that this is not evenly distributed across contexts: employees are highly concerned with the perceived risk of speaking up and the likelihood of leader respond in a non-expected way when the provided information requires taking actions (Morrison, 2011 [46]; Detert & Burris, 2007 [45]).

Importantly, research shows culture affects how comfortable people feel about speaking up. In places where authority is stronger, employees may hesitate to question decisions. In places with less hierarchy, speaking up is more normal and accepted (House et al., 2004 [54]).

As a result, this means that the impact of voice and learning behaviours on performance depends not only on leadership, but also on the cultural and organisational context. This helps us understand why leadership–performance relationships differ between countries.

2.8.2 *Work design salience and the Greece–UK comparison*

Work design is a practical way to connect culture and performance. Studies between different countries has shown that differences in authority norms (as understood by each country) can influence the importance of discretion, clarity, and consistency in leadership behaviours without suggesting that culture as a parameter is a key factor (House et al., 2004 [54], Mayrhofer et al., 2019 [91]). In addition, comparative research in several Human Resources departments and Institute of Human Resource Management showed that context is important. Organisations are influenced by national systems, local culture, and management practices. This means leadership does not work on its own, but within a work environment that influences what employees expect and how they respond (Mayrhofer et al., 2019 [91]; Brewster et al., 2020 [93]; Sanders & Cieri, 2021 [94]).

This is relevant in a comparison between Greece and the United Kingdom. Based on Hofstede, 2001 [90], Greece is characterized by higher Power Distance and higher Avoidance, while United Kingdom is characterized by lower Power Distance and higher Individualism. Hence, it is expected that in Greece hierarchy, role separation and formal authority are more tolerated than in the United Kingdom that emphasise autonomy and individual responsibility.

In work environments that autonomy is by default limited, hierarchy is more accepted and uncertainty is less tolerated, leadership behaviours that expand discretion within clear boundaries may have a stronger behavioural impact because they remove burden and help employees to resolve problems locally. By providing employees with some flexibility but at the same time maintaining structure, can help to reduce uncertainty, support local problem-solving, and encourage taking initiative to changing demands. This does not mean that authoritarian leadership is automatically effective, but it does suggest that some of its structured elements—such as clear direction and role definition—may be interpreted as functional under certain conditions. This is in alignment with previous research on voice and learning, which showed that behaviours such as feedback, participation, and clear communication are more likely to be acknowledged when employees experience both clarity and support. (Detert & Burris, 2007 [45]; House et al., 2004 [54] ; Edmondson & Lei, 2014 [42]).

On the other hand, in environments with lower power-distance and more individualistic environments such as the UK, employees are in general more used to participation, delegation and self-direction. Hence, in these environments authoritarian leadership may be more likely to clash with employee expectations, as directive control is more likely to be seen as unnecessary restriction rather than helpful action. This is why comparative IHRM research stresses that effective leadership depends not only on cultural values, but also on how organisational systems distribute autonomy, accountability, and managerial support in practice (Mayrhofer et al., 2019 [91]; Brewster et al., 2020 [93]).

Previous empirical cross-cultural research supports that national context influences what employees expect from leadership without showing a direct connection between culture and performance. In addition, cross-national research has provided evidence that it is more beneficial to look on the actions of leadership to help with day-to-day work rather than treating culture as an explanatory label (Taras et al., 2010 [66]; House et al., 2004 [54]).

From this point of view, the Greece and the United Kingdom comparison, is not about stating that one country prefers a strict and the other prefers a “flexible” leadership. Instead, it means that the same leadership style can impact differently due to different inherent workspace environments. In places where clear structure and guidance are more important, more direct leadership involvement might be useful, while lack of leadership can cause problems. In contrast, in environments where autonomy is already applied, controlling leadership may be resisted, and performance may depend more on how well leaders support coordination, fairness, and performance management.

In summary, these perspectives highlight that leadership effectiveness is closely related to the interaction between work design and the applied environment. Hence, rather than treating culture as a direct explanatory mechanism, it is more useful to understand how cultural and organisational conditions affect the work environment and, in turn, influence which leadership behaviours are most relevant for performance.

2.9 Hypotheses

Based on the theoretical framework developed above, the following hypotheses were specified:

H1: Managerial leadership style has a significant impact on employee performance in both Greece and the United Kingdom.

This hypothesis is based on past research that showed that the way managers lead is related to employee performance outcomes (Burns, 1978 [2], Bass, 1985 [3], Bass & Riggio, 2005 [4]). Leaders shape the goals and targets for employees, access to resources and day-to-day work environment, hence it is reasonable to expect that leadership will impact performance in both Greece and the United Kingdom.

H2: The relationship between leadership style and employee performance differs significantly between Greece and the United Kingdom.

This hypothesis is based on the theory that leadership effectiveness is related to how behaviours are interpreted by the employees (House et al., 2004 [54]; Taras et al., 2010 [66]). Hence, cultural factors and organisational environments can impact work-related relationships. Therefore, it is reasonable to expect that the leadership-performance relationship will not be the same in Greece and the United Kingdom.

H3: Transformational leadership is positively associated with employee performance in both Greece and the United Kingdom.

This hypothesis is based on transformational leadership that is focused on providing vision, inspiration and individualised support to employees (Bass, 1985 [3]; Bass & Riggio, 2006 [4]). This can increase engagement and relate to positive performance. Also, past research has shown that transformational leadership has shown evidence of positive impact in performance (Bass & Riggio, 2005 [4]). Therefore, it is reasonable to expect that transformational leadership will have a positive impact in performance in both Greece and the United Kingdom.

H4: Transactional leadership is positively associated with employee performance, but its effect is weaker than transformational leadership in both countries.

This hypothesis is based on transactional leadership that is focused in providing clarity in expectations and linking outcomes to reward (Judge & Piccolo, 2004 [7]). These behaviours are expected to have a positive relationship with performance because they provide structure and reinforce goal achievement. However, transformational leadership theory provides a vision and employee development (Bass & Riggio, 2005 [4]). Transformational behaviours are more closely linked to discretionary effort, engagement, and higher-order performance outcomes, which extend beyond formal role requirements. As a result, it is expected that employees will have discretionary contribution, hence increasing further performance. Therefore, it is reasonable to expect that transformational leadership model will have a higher impact on employee performance compared to transactional.

H5: Authoritarian leadership is negatively associated with employee performance in both Greece and the United Kingdom.

This hypothesis is based on authoritarian leadership theory that is focused on control and obedience (Farh & Cheng, 2000 [48]). In modern workplace environments, this can reduce psychological safety and not allow to employees to speak up or even learn and grow. These factors are important for performance, particularly in roles that involve problem-solving, collaboration, and continuous improvement. Past research has shown evidence that authoritarian leadership can have a negative impact in factors effecting performance (Ling, 2025 [92]).

This Hypothesis is assumed to apply in both Greece and the United Kingdom, although the effect or mechanisms may differ. In higher power-distance environments such as in Greece, directive leadership might be more accepted, but can restrict employee participation and learning, which are required for sustained performance. In lower power-distance environments such as in the United Kingdom, authoritarian leadership can conflict with expectations of autonomy, leading to frustration and reduced performance and engagement. Therefore, it is reasonable to expect that authoritarian leadership will have a negative impact on employee performance in both Greece and the United Kingdom, despite cultural context.

H6: Self-Determination Theory (SDT) need-supportive leadership is positively associated with employee performance and well-being in both countries.

This hypothesis is based on SDT-based leadership that is focused on leaders supporting employees' autonomy and competence (Deci & Ryan, 2000 [63]). Then, employees can function better and provide better and increased outcomes, hence increasing performance (Slomp et al., 2018 [64]; Van den Broeck et al., 2021 [12]). Therefore, it is reasonable to expect that SDT-based leadership will have a positive impact on employee performance in both Greece and the United Kingdom.

H7: The positive effect of transformational leadership on employee performance is stronger in the United Kingdom than in Greece.

This hypothesis is based on past research in cross-national environments. It has been found that in environments that are characterised by lower acceptance of hierarchy and emphasis in autonomy, leadership styles with focus in vision and inspiration tend to fit better (Hofstede, 2001 [90]). Therefore, it is reasonable to expect that transformational leadership may show a stronger relationship to performance than in Greece.

H8: The negative effect of authoritarian leadership on employee performance is stronger in the United Kingdom than in Greece.

. As discussed above in previous sections in this study, in environments with low acceptance of hierarchy, leadership styles that support the employees more tend to fit better (Hofstede, 2001 [90]). Hence, when in such environments an authoritarian leadership model is applied it is expected that the drop in performance will be more noticeable. Therefore, since the workplace environment in the United Kingdom is assumed to be more open, the impact of an authoritarian leadership style model is expected to be more negative than in Greece.

H9: SDT need-supportive leadership has a stronger positive impact on employee performance in the United Kingdom compared to Greece.

This hypothesis is based on SDT leadership theory that proposes that autonomy, and competence is related to improved employee performance (Deci & Ryan, 2000 [63]). In environments associated with higher individualism and lower hierarchy acceptance, this can lead to stronger performance. Therefore, it is reasonable to expect that SDT-based leadership will have a higher impact on performance in the United Kingdom compared to Greece.

H10: Transactional leadership is more effective in Greece than in the United Kingdom due to cultural preferences for structure and hierarchy.

This hypothesis is based on transactional leadership theory provides a more structured and monitoring framework (Judge & Piccolo, 2004 [7]); hence it is expected to be more effective in work environments that have higher hierarchy acceptance. From a cross-national perspective, research Human Resources Management suggested that organisational practices are influenced by institutional and cultural contexts, which influence how leadership behaviours are interpreted and valued (Mayrhofer et al., 2019 [91]; Brewster et al., 2020 [93]). In Greece, which is typically associated with higher levels of hierarchy acceptance and stronger need for structure, employees may rely more on leadership behaviours that provide clear guidance, reduce ambiguity, and ensure consistency in performance expectations. Therefore, it is reasonable to expect that transactional leadership will be more effective in Greece compared to the United Kingdom.

2.10 Research Gap and Chapter Summary

Despite extensive research in the field of leadership, gaps remain as this is an evolving topic. Gaps are mainly identified in overlap between different leadership theories, making difficult in many cases to explain the incremental added value of each model. This dissertation examines authoritarian, transactional, transformational, and SDT based leadership behaviours as predictors of employee performance within a comparative design between Greece and the United Kingdom.

By focusing on observable leadership practices rather than motivational mediation and treating culture as contextual influence, the purpose of this study is to provide a clearer and more robust data of how leadership affects performance in practice.

3 Methodology

3.1 *Research Philosophy and Methodology Orientation*

In this study, a post-positivist research philosophy is followed, as this is common among leadership and organisational psychology research (Habib, 2021 [67]). In simple terms, post positivism assumes that social phenomena can be examined using data, while also recognising that findings are never perfectly objective or universally true. As a result, research findings are treated as inherently probabilistic, context dependent, and subject to real world complexity and measurement error and limitations (Creswell & Creswell, 2018 [68]; Phillips & Burbules, 2000 [69]; Saunders et al., 2019 [70]). Knowledge is seen as something that can change and improve over time, rather than something fixed and final.

This approach is very suitable for leadership research because human behaviour in organisations is complex and takes place in real working environments, not in controlled laboratory settings. Leadership behaviours are shaped by hierarchy, organisational structures, formal roles, and the national context. These factors create meaningful differences in how leadership works, rather than simply being random variation (Bryman, 2016 [71]). A post positivist philosophy therefore provides a balanced foundation that acknowledge these variations but also enables hypothesis testing. Hence, analysis can be performed on the data without assuming that leadership effects are fixed or universally applicable.

Moreover, it is important to mention that post positivism aligns with contemporary leadership research, which is increasingly understand the importance of context. Leadership behaviours are now widely understood to difference in relevance and effectiveness depending on organisational environment, institutional arrangements, and national context (House et al., 2004 [54]; Antonakis et al., 2023 [6]). This view is critical to this study, which explicitly examines leadership–performance relationships within Greece and the United Kingdom, rather than assuming that leadership follow the same operational model across countries.

Following this approach, a deductive research approach [72] is applied in this study. This involves establishing hypothesis from the leadership theories (authoritarian, transactional, transformational and SDT) (Saunders et al., 2019 [70]; Van den Broeck et al., 2021 [12]) and testing them using quantitative data that have been collected via survey. This study mechanism is dominant in leadership and organisational behaviour research. The hypotheses presented later in this chapter are extracted directly from the literature reviewed in Chapter 2, ensuring a coherent connection between literature review and empirical analysis.

3.2 *Research Design*

In this study, a quantitative, cross sectional survey design is used. All data have been collected from participants at a single point in time. This type of design is widely used in leadership research because it allows researchers to examine relationships between leadership behaviours and employee perspective within real organisational environments (Bryman, 2016 [71]; Creswell & Creswell, 2018 [68]).

This design is appropriate for several reasons. Firstly, leadership is experienced and understood by employees through everyday interactions, which makes employee self-reports a valid and widely used source of data. Employees are well positioned to evaluate the behaviours of their line managers and to reflect on their own task, contextual, and adaptive performance. Secondly, the cross-sectional survey allows for a direct comparison between national samples using the same measurement tools, which is critical for the Greece–United Kingdom comparison. Thirdly, the current design supports theory-based hypothesis testing using established statistical techniques such as correlation and regression analysis. Finally, fully controlled experimental designs are rarely feasible in leadership research because leader-follower relationships are embedded in the organisations and is difficult to test without practical or ethical constraints

Nevertheless, there are limitations in cross-sectional research and are acknowledged in this study. Data are collected at a single point of time, a firm conclusion about the leadership and performance is difficult. In addition, only relying on data collected from the same reporters may increase the common method variance (CMV) (Podsakoff et al., 2003 [73]). In line with best methodological practice, these limitations are addressed through careful survey design choices, clear separation construct, and cautious interpretation of findings.

3.3 Sampling Strategy and Participants

3.3.1 Target Population and Unit of Analysis

The target population for this study was focused on full time employees working under direct managerial supervision in organisations based in Greece and the United Kingdom. This population was selected because the research questions focus on how employees receive and interpret leadership behaviours and how their side is related with self-reported performance. This criterion is consistent with established leadership research practice (Harms et al., 2018 [74]).

The unit of analysis in this study is the individual employee. In this way, leadership is recorded from the point of view of followers rather than as a fixed term reported by leaders. Treating leadership in this way help to understand the effects as those are received by the followers. Prior research has shown that follower (employee) rated leadership behaviours are strongly linked to attitudinal and behavioural outcomes and is often a more robust predictor of performance than leader self-ratings (Judge & Piccolo, 2004 [7]). As a result, employee perceptions often provide a theoretically and empirically robust ground for examining relationship between leadership and employee performance.

3.3.2 Sampling Method

A non-probability convenience sampling approach (Golzar et al., 2022 [75]) was used due to practical constraints related to limited access to different organisations, time availability, and proximity of the participants to the researcher. Although is known that probability-based sampling would enhance statistical generalisability, convenience sampling is a widely used and accepted alternative in organisational and leadership research. This is approach mainly appropriate for studies that focus on theory testing rather than making conclusions on whole population, provided that its limitations are clearly stated (Bryman, 2016 [71]; Saunders et al., 2019 [70]).

To mitigate risk of sampling bias, efforts were made to include responses from employees from a range of industries, organisational sizes, and job roles. Although the final sample is not statistically representative of national workforces in Greece or the United Kingdom, it has enough diversity to test relationship between leadership behaviours and employee performance across various organisational environments. This level of heterogeneity is suitable for testing theory-driven research. Especially when the main goal is to assess whether theoretical relationships hold under different conditions rather than making claims about the entire workforce population.

3.3.3 *Sample Size Considerations*

The final sample consisted of 137 respondents, with 58 participants based in Greece and 79 participants based in the United Kingdom. In leadership research, samples exceeding 100 observations are considered sufficient for correlational analysis, while multiple regression models are commonly justified using 10–15 cases per predictor (Cohen, 1992 [76]; Hair et al., 2019 [77]). The primary regression model in this study included four leadership predictors, a requirement that is comfortably met by the overall sample. Subgroup sample per country (Greece and UK) is smaller. However, analysis in these subgroups focuses on the direction, magnitude and consistency of effects, rather than on marginal levels of statistical significance. This approach is described as best practice for those types of research (Bryman, 2016 [71]; Saunders et al., 2019 [70]).

Although a larger sample would increase statistical power and estimate precision, the achieved sample size is comparable to prior cross national leadership studies and is sufficient for the analytical techniques employed in this study and. The results are interpreted carefully, ensuring that conclusions are appropriate to the available evidence, especially when comparing different subgroups.

3.3.4 *Sampling Limitations and Generalisability*

Several limitations related to the sampling strategy should be acknowledged. First, the use of convenience sampling limits the extent to which the findings can be generalised to the wider working population in Greece and the United Kingdom. Participation to this study was voluntary, hence respondents self-selected into the study. Hence, there is a risk to introduce selection bias if individuals with particularly strong leadership experiences were more motivated to participate in this study (Bryman, 2016 [71]).

Second, the heterogeneous nature of the sample limits the ability to isolate sector specific leadership dynamics. While participants from a wide range of industry sectors reduces the risk that results are driven by a single industry, it also means that industry specific effects cannot be examined in detail. Third, the cross-national comparison is based on independent national subsamples rather than matched organisational pairs operating across both countries. Hence, this means that observed differences between Greece and the United Kingdom reflect aggregate tendencies rather than tightly controlled institutional contrasts (House et al., 2004 [54]).

These limitations by no means undermine the validity of the study but define clear boundaries. Findings are therefore interpreted as theoretically informative and contextually indicative, contributing to understand leadership-performance relationships rather than offering population level generalisations. In the same way, any Greece–

United Kingdom differences are treated as contextual patterns rather than as deterministic cultural effects.

3.4 Research Instrument and Measurement

3.4.1 Questionnaire Design and Structure

Data were collected using a structured, self-administered online questionnaire having four sections: (1) demographic characteristics, (2) employee perceptions of leadership behaviour, (3) self-reported employee performance, (4) employee perception on culture and (5) small number of open-ended qualitative questions. The questionnaire was designed to support theory-driven hypothesis testing by converting established leadership and performance theories into measurable survey questions (Bass, 1985 [3]; Gagné & Deci, 2005 [78]; Koopmans et al., 2014 [19]).

Survey questions were written in clear, behaviourally specific language and framed neutrally as possible to minimise ambiguity and to mitigate the risk of socially desirable responding. Related questions were grouped by theme, and the same response scale was used throughout the questionnaire to make survey completion as easy as possible. These design choices are consistent with best practice in organisational survey research (Saunders et al., 2019 [70]).

3.4.2 Demographic Characteristics

Participants were required to provide:

- Country of work
- Age
- Gender
- Education
- Job level
- Time with the organisation
- Time under the current manager
- Employment type
- Sector
- Organisation size
- Work arrangements
- Average weekly hours

These variables are commonly used in leadership and performance research. The primary purpose of collecting these variables was to characterise the sample and to enable subgroup comparisons between the United Kingdom and Greece. Hence, country of work has been used as a control variable in supplementary analysis. Summary statistics of demographic variables are shown in Chapter 4.

The decision to focus only on subgroup comparisons between the United Kingdom and Greece is aligned with the main research objective, which specifically focuses on

examining cross-national differences in leadership–performance relationships. Other demographic variables (such as age, job level, or sector) were not analysed as separate comparison groups. This was due to two main reasons:

- The available sample size would result in relatively small group sizes if split across multiple categories, reducing statistical reliability.
- Analysing multiple subgroups would go beyond the focus of the study and risk to reduce the clarity of the comparison between Greece and the United Kingdom.

3.4.3 *Leadership and Performance Constructs*

This research is focused on four well-established but different leadership styles: Authoritarian, Transactional, Transformational and SDT. These styles cover a wide range of ways that leaders influence employees, ranging from control to inspirational influence, autonomy and support. They have been chosen as there is extensive literature and their usefulness for extracting meaningful variation in managerial behaviour. All study constructs have been measured via a multi-item Likert-type scales (Koo & Yang, 2025 [79]) that have been drawn from well-established leadership and performance research. In order to ensure clarity and relevance, items were lightly adapted to follow a consistent “line manager” reference, while maintaining the original construct meaning. The average score of the questions for each leadership type has been calculated that is in line with leadership research. Reverse coding was not required, as all items were directionally consistent, with higher scores indicating greater enactment of the respective leadership behaviour.

Authoritarian leadership items were captured as controlling and directive managerial behaviours, as per past research (Farh & Cheng, 2000 [48]). Transactional leadership items were focused on contingent reward and corrective monitoring that follows the past research and exchange-based processes according to Bass, 1985 [3] and Judge & Piccolo 2004 [7]. Transformational leadership items were focused on inspirational motivation and intellectual stimulation, as per the transformational leadership theory according to [4].

SDT leadership items were focused on autonomy and competence support, which is aligned with past research that describes leadership as a package of observable behaviours as per Slemp et al., 2018 [64] and Gagné & Deci, 2005 [78]. As described in Chapter 2, for this study SDT-based leadership is treated as behaviourally rather than motivationally.

Employee performance was captured as a multidimensional construct, including task performance, contextual performance and adaptive performance, as proposed by Koopmans et al. [19]. In this way, performance is a construct that extends above and beyond core task execution to accommodate discretionary behaviours and adaptability, which describe current organisations. Performance was captured via self-report due to practical reasons and because it is assumed that employees are well positioned to evaluate their own work.

The full item wording, response scales, and any changes made are shown in Table 1 below:

Table 1: Leadership and Performance constructs

Construct	Indicative source / theoretical basis	Items used	Question	Scoring
Authoritarian leadership	Authority-centred/directive control conceptualisation (Lewin et al., 1939 [80]; Farh & Cheng, 2000 [48])	5 items	My manager makes decisions without consulting employees.	Mean of items (higher = more authoritarian)
			My manager expects strict compliance with rules.	
			My manager discourages questioning authority.	
			My manager rarely explains the reasons behind decisions.	
			My manager discourages employee input in decision-making.	
Transactional leadership	Contingent reward and corrective monitoring (Bass, 1985 [3]; Judge & Piccolo, 2004 [7])	5 items	My manager rewards employees for meeting goals.	Mean of items (higher = more transactional)
			My manager monitors performance closely.	
			My manager intervenes only when	

			problems occur.	
			My manager provides clear expectations and performance standards.	
			My manager uses rewards as the main way to motivate employees.	
Transformational leadership	Vision/inspiration/intellectual stimulation (Bass & Riggio, 2006 [4])	5 items	My manager communicates a clear vision for the future. My manager encourages creative thinking. My manager treats employees as individuals with unique needs. My manager inspires me to see the bigger picture of my work. My manager encourages me to challenge old ways of doing things.	Mean of items (higher = more transformational)
SDT-based leadership	Need-supportive/autonomy-supportive leadership	5 items	My manager gives me autonomy in	Mean of items (higher = more

	(Gagné & Deci, 2005 [78]; Slemp et al., 2018 [64])		how I do my work. My manager provides constructive feedback to improve my skills. My manager shows genuine care for my well-being. My manager allows flexibility in how I complete tasks. My manager supports my professional development goals.	need-supportive)
Employee performance	Individual work performance framework (Koopmans et al., 2014 [19])	7 items	I complete tasks efficiently and on time. I produce high-quality work. I actively seek ways to improve my work performance. I feel motivated to go beyond my job requirements .	Mean of items (higher = higher self-reported performance)

			I contribute to team success.	
			I adapt well to changes in my work environment.	
			I feel confident in my ability to meet job challenges.	

3.4.4 Cultural Orientation Constructs (Moderators)

In addition to leadership and performance measures, individual level cultural orientations were assessed to capture contextual variation in how leadership behaviours are interpreted and evaluated by employees. Culture was conceptualised as a contextual moderator, rather than as a fixed national attribute, reflecting contemporary perspectives that emphasise within country cultural heterogeneity and individual differences (House et al., 2004 [54]).

Three cultural dimensions were used at the individual level that are accordance to House et al., 2004 [54]:

- Power Distance (PD): reflecting acceptance of hierarchy and authority
- Individualism (IND): reflecting preference for individual versus teams' participation; and
- Autonomy Orientation (AUTO), capturing the extent to which individuals value autonomy and freedom in their work.

These dimensions were chosen because they:

- align with established cross-cultural frameworks (House et al., 2004 [54])
- are conceptually linked to the leadership behaviours tested in this study
- are observable at the individual level, allowing them to be used in moderation analysis

The full item wording, response scales, and any changes made are shown in Table 2 below:

Table 2: Culture constructs (Moderators)

Construct	Indicative source / theoretical basis	Items used	Question	Scoring	Dimension
Culture	Moderator: A variable that		I prefer clear hierarchical	Higher = higher	PD

	changes the strength or direction of the effect of leadership on performance. (House et al., 2004 [54])	6 items	structures at work.	acceptance of hierarchy)	
			I believe managers should have the final say in decisions.	Higher = higher acceptance of hierarchy)	PD
			I am comfortable challenging my manager's decisions.	Higher = lower acceptance of hierarchy	PD
			I value individual achievement over group harmony.	Higher = higher acceptance of autonomy	IND
			I prefer working in teams rather than individually.	Higher = lower acceptance of autonomy	IND
			I value personal freedom in my work tasks.	Higher = higher acceptance of autonomy	AUTO

Reverse coding was required for questions 3 and 5, as those items were directionally inconsistent; higher scores indicated lower acceptance of the respective culture.

Composite scores for Power Distance, Individualism, and Autonomy Orientation were computed as the mean of the relevant items for each respondent.

3.4.4.1 Moderation Analysis Strategy

In order to understand the culture as moderator, interaction terms and multiple regression models were applied as shown in Aiken & West, 1991 [87] and Cohen et al., 2003 [88].

Prior to creating the interaction terms, all predictor and moderator values were mean centered to minimize the effect of multicollinearity as per Aiken & West, 1991 [87] and Cohen et al., 2003 [88]. Based on the theoretical framework and the developed hypotheses in Chapter 2, three interaction terms were investigated in this study in the overall sample:

- Power Distance x Authoritarian Leadership
- Power Distance x Transformational Leadership

- Autonomy Orientation x SDT-Based leadership

In each of the above moderation models, employee performance was a dependent variable with the leadership, culture and the interaction variables tested simultaneously. Moderation then was investigated by assessing statistical significance, that is a typical approach to test directly if the culture effect the relationship between leadership and employee performance.

Finally, although individualism is an important cultural factor, it was not included as a moderator in this analysis for mainly two reasons. First, this study is mainly focused on factors such as autonomy that is better captured by Power Distance and Autonomy Orientation (Mayrhofer et al., 2019 [91]; Brewster et al., 2020 [93]). Second, the addition of more interaction variables would increase model complexity, without guaranteeing reliable results.

3.4.5 *Scale Format and Response Properties*

All constructs were measured using a five-point scale, Likert type scale, where 1 means “strongly disagree” and 5 means “strongly agree”. Responses were coded numerically so that 1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree, and this coding was applied consistently across all leadership models, the employee performance and culture scale. Likert type scales are widely used in organisational research because they are easy and prompt for respondents, support reliable measurement, and are suitable for parametric analysis when assumptions are reasonably met (Field, 2018 [81]).

All questionnaire items were carefully checked against their original validated sources to ensure consistency and validity (DeVellis, 2017 [82]). Also, an informal pre-review process was performed to ensure the questions were clear, easy to read and understand and overall flow of the questionnaire was smooth. This step was particularly important given the participants were from different backgrounds and ethnicity, hence helping to minimise ambiguity and ensure that items were interpreted in the same way across cultural settings. These steps align with recommended practice for postgraduate survey research and reduce the likelihood of errors in collected data (Saunders et al., 2019 [70]).

3.4.6 *Cross-national administration and measurement equivalence*

In order to perform this study, participants from the United Kingdom and Greece provided responses. Hence, careful consideration was given to how the questionnaire would be interpreted in a comparable way in both countries. The questionnaire was in English for all participants, as this is the professional language. There was no translation to avoid any potential loss of the meaning, but there were wording adjustments to ensure clarity. Also, the theory behind each leadership style was applied independently of the country.

Given the above, cross-national comparisons are interpreted cautiously and taking under consideration of contextual influences. Hence, rather than treating culture as a source of measurement error, the study adopts the view that national context is used to understand which leadership behaviours are perceived and evaluated.

3.5 Open-Ended Questions and Exploratory Qualitative Insight

In addition to the constructs that were described in above sections about leadership, performance and culture, the questionnaire included seven open-ended questions. Responders could describe freely leadership behaviours and workplace experiences in their own words. These questions were included to provide context and insight, rather than to support a separate and standalone qualitative analysis or theory development.

Responses were analysed using a descriptive content-mapping approach, which recurring themes and patterns appeared in a size related to the frequency of the response. The purpose of this was to support and help the interpretation of quantitative findings, offering texture and explanatory context (Saunders et al., 2019 [19]).

3.6 Data Collection Procedure and Ethical Considerations

Data were collected online using a secure survey platform via MS Forms. The participation link was shared with participants, as well as an information sheet outlining the purpose of the study, the voluntary nature of participation, and assurances that the survey is anonymous. During this study, no data collected that could identify any of the participants that is common with this type of studies (Podsakoff et al., 2003 [73]).

Also, participants provided their consent in advance, and they were informed they could withdraw at any stage without any issues or penalty, as all the data collection process was conducted in accordance with ethical guidelines for social science research (Creswell & Creswell, 2018 [68]).

3.7 Reliability, Validity, and Analytical Rigour

The contents of this research and the questionnaire are based in well-established theory and previous research to ensure validity and reliability [83]. Construct validity was supported through clear separation between leadership styles, performance and culture.

Cronbach's alpha was assessed for data reliability. In general, values of 0.7 and above are deemed as acceptable in social science research, however Cronbach's alpha is sensitive and might be lower when a subgroup of data is shorter (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011[84]). Hence, in this study all reliability coefficients are reported, however for cases with lower than 0.7 alpha, findings are treated with caution and further explanation is provided.

Potential threats to validity, as an example Common Method Variance (CMV) has already been addressed in section 3.2 through procedure explanation rather than statistically. In more detail, there were the right assurance to the participants for their anonymity and confidentiality. In addition, questions were phrased describing the tested behaviours per leadership style, targeted to measure specific and observable managerial. Based on the above and the fact that research findings were interpreted conservatively, this study does not post statistical corrections for CMV (Podsakoff et al., 2003 [73]).

Finally, the findings in this study have been interpreted as analytically, hence was targeted to provide knowledge about the leadership theory and understanding of performance, rather than drawing generalised conclusions about the wider workforce

population in Greece and the United Kingdom (Bryman, 2016 [71]; Saunders et al., 2019 [70]).

3.8 Data Analysis Strategy

Data analysis was performed using Microsoft Excel, selected for its accessibility, user familiarity, and suitability for datasets of this study's size. Before conducting any analysis, the raw survey data were carefully reviewed, cleaned, and coded to ensure consistency and accuracy. Responses on the five-point scale (Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree) were converted into numeric values to be ready for statistical analysis. Reverse coding was required only for cultural constructs as described in section 3.4.4., while the rest constructs for leadership and performance were already aligned in the same direction. This pre-process stage helped to ensure the analysis would be clear and with reduced the risk of coding error.

The analytical process followed a structured workflow. First as described already, data screening was undertaken to identify missing values or errors. Descriptive statistics were used to summarise the key variables for leadership and performance. Internal consistency was tested using Cronbach's alpha, followed by Pearson correlation analysis to examine the relationships between leadership behaviours, cultural dimensions, and employee performance. Finally, multiple linear regression analysis was applied to understand the combined and relative contribution of leadership behaviours to performance, in line with the study's theory-testing hypotheses (McDonald, 2014 [85]; Saunders et al., 2019 [70]).

Culture was incorporated into the analysis as a moderating variable, in order to enhance this study's interest in understanding the effectiveness of leadership behaviours in different cultural backgrounds. Both national and individual cultural constructs were tested as contextual moderators. Prior to the moderation analysis, predictor variables were mean-centred to reduce multicollinearity and to support clearer interpretation of interaction terms as per Shieh, 2011 [86]. Interaction variables were then created by multiplying centred leadership behaviour scores with centred cultural variables. Three scenarios were tested. Results are presented in Chapter 4.

Moderation effects were tested using multiple linear regression models that included main effects (leadership behaviour and culture) followed by interaction terms (leadership $\times$ culture). A statistically meaningful interaction term was interpreted as evidence that the relationship between leadership behaviour and employee performance differs depending on cultural context. These analyses were interpretative and aimed to identify patterns of differences rather than to establish cause-and-effect relationships.

In addition to the moderation analysis, separate analyses were performed for the Greek and the United Kingdom subsamples. This allowed to examine relationships between leadership behaviours and performance within each national context, providing further insight into cross-national similarities and differences. These subgroup analyses were exploratory and were used to support contextual interpretation, rather than to formally test hypotheses, in line with common practice in comparative leadership research (House et al., 2004).

Where Excel's built-in analytical tools were used, including the Analysis ToolPak for correlation and regression analysis, the outputs were saved to ensure transparency and

allow the analysis to be reviewed later if needed. Overall, the data analysis approach followed a practical and theory-driven process that focus on clear interpretation and consistency while recognising the limitations of using cross-national, self-reported survey research.

3.8.1 Assumptions of Regression Analysis

Regression assumptions were assessed in a pragmatic way. Linearity and homoscedasticity were evaluated via scatterplots. Normality was assessed using inspection of residual histograms and normal probability plots. Independence of errors was considered acceptable given the survey-based design and the use of individual participants as the analysis unit.

Multicollinearity was assessed using variance inflation factors (VIFs). VIF was calculated using the formula: $VIF = \frac{1}{1-R^2}$. This is according to Field, 2018 [81] and Hair et al., 2019 [77] and values above 5 indicated potential warning. There were no missing data that identified in the data collection. Outliers were screened using standardised residuals and leverage diagnostics available from regression output, without showing any extreme cases that influenced the analysis results and conclusions.

3.9 Chapter Summary

This chapter presented the research methodology, including the questionnaire design, sampling approach, measurement methods, ethical considerations, and data analysis processes used in this study. A post positivist, deductive, cross sectional survey design was used for examining leadership–performance relationships across Greece and the United Kingdom. Findings are analysed within clearly defined methodological boundaries (e.g., self-report measurement, convenience sampling). Chapter 4 presents the results following the statistical analysis.

4 Results

In this chapter the findings and results from statistical analysis are presented. Also, the developed hypotheses in Chapter 3 are evaluated using descriptive statistics, Pearson analysis, and linear regression analysis. These methods help to assess the relationships between the variables and the contribution of different leadership styles to employee performance when examined simultaneously.

This chapter is focused on clear and accurate reporting of statistical analysis results and indicating if each hypothesis is supported, partially supported, or not supported based on the available statistical evidence. Interpretation of results and integration with leadership theory are intentionally presented in Chapter 5.

4.1 Sample Characteristics

The final sample comprised 137 respondents, with 58 participants based in Greece (42%) and 79 in the United Kingdom (58%) as shown in Figure 1. This distribution provided a sound basis for cross national comparison while maintaining sufficient statistical power for correlational and regression analyses.

1. Country of employment



Figure 1: Country of employment results

4.1.1 Demographic and work-context profile

Table 3 shows the demographic and work-context data of the participants to the questionnaire, providing context about both the responders but also the organisational environments that this study on leadership–performance relationships were observed. Although this information is not directly used in further statistical analysis, reporting this information assist to provide transparency and helps define the interpretation boundaries of the research outcome.

Table 3: Demographic and Work-Context Profile of Respondents (N = 137)

Characteristic	Category	n	%
Country of employment	Greece	58	42
	United Kingdom	79	58
Age	Under 25	0	0
	25–34	23	17
	35–44	87	64
	45–54	18	13
	55+	9	7
Gender	Man	85	62
	Woman	52	38
Highest education level	High school diploma	8	6
	Bachelor's degree	41	30

	Master's degree	66	48
	Doctorate (PhD)	22	16
Employment type	Full-time	122	89
	Part-time	9	7
	Contract	6	4
Average weekly working hours	< 20 hours	1	1
	20–29 hours	4	3
	30–39 hours	46	34
	40–49 hours	73	53
	≥ 50 hours	13	9
Job level	Junior	6	4
	Mid-level professional	71	52
	Manager	41	30
	Senior management	19	14
Organisation size	Small (1–50 employees)	22	16
	Medium (51–250 employees)	14	10
	Large (251–1,000 employees)	36	26
	Very large (1,001+ employees)	65	47
Work arrangement	On-site	56	41
	Hybrid	64	47
	Fully remote	17	12

Tenure with current organisation	< 1 year	12	9
	1–3 years	51	37
	4–6 years	29	21
	7–10 years	19	14
	> 10 years	26	19
Tenure with current manager	< 6 months	17	12
	6 months – 1 year	26	19
	1–3 years	64	47
	4–6 years	22	16
	> 6 years	8	6

As mentioned above in Figure 1, the final sample had 137 respondents, with 58 participants located in Greece (42%) and 79 in the United Kingdom (58%). Most of the were in the age between 35 and 44 years (64%), followed by those aged 25–34 (17%), 45–54 (13%), and 55 years or above (7%). No respondents were found to participate in this research under the age of 25 as shown in Figure 2.

2. Age



Figure 2: Age of the participants in this study

In terms of gender, 62% of respondents identified as men ($n = 85$) and 38% as women ($n = 52$) as shown in Figure 3. There were not respondents opting for the non-binary or “prefer not to say” options. The sample had been found highly educated as nearly half of participants held a Master’s degree (48%), while a further 30% held a Bachelor’s degree and 16% held a doctorate. Only a small proportion of 6% was found to have high school as their highest qualification as shown in Figure 4.

3. Gender

Woman	52
Man	85
Non-binary	0
Prefer not to say	0

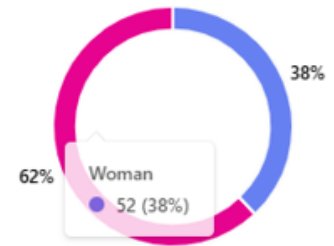


Figure 3: Gender of the participants in this study

4. Highest education level

High School Diploma	8
Bachelor's Degree	41
Master's Degree	66
Doctorate (Ph.D.)	22

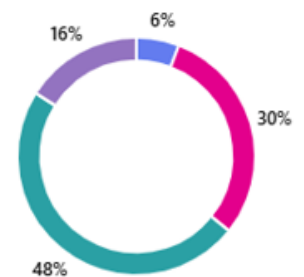


Figure 4: Education level of the participants in this study

The sample was mainly mid-career, as more than half of the participants reported this option (52%) as shown in Figure 5. Managers were found to be the next major subgroup, with an amount of 30% of this sample. Then, 14% of the participants in this research were found in the Senior Management level, followed by the smallest group of 4% for Junior level positions.

5. Job level

Junior	6
Mid-Level Professional	71
Manager	41
Senior Management	19

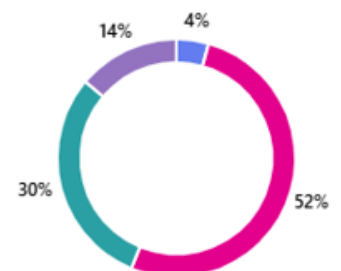


Figure 5: Job level of the participants in this study

With respect to length of time under the organisation, the vast majority of the participants shown that spend at least 1 year, as only 9% selected the less than 1 year option as shown in Figure 6. Over one-third had worked in their current organisation for one to three years (37%), while 21% reported four to six years, 14% seven to ten years and 19% more than ten years. More importantly for leadership assessment, nearly half of respondents (47%) had worked with their current line manager for between one and three years, with a further 16% reporting four to six years as shown in Figure 7. This

suggests that the majority of the participants had sufficient exposure to their managers to have an informed and stable understanding and opinion of leadership behaviours.

6. Length of time with your current organization



Figure 6: Length of time under the current organisation of the participants in this study

7. Length of time under your current manager



Figure 7: Length of time under the current manager of the participants in this study

Most respondents were found to be employed full-time (89%), with considerably smaller proportions working part-time (7%) or on a contract basis (4%) as shown in Figure 8. In addition, most participants were mainly coming from larger organisations as shown in Figure 9. Very large organisations employing more than 1,001 employees accounted for nearly the half (47%) of the sample, followed by large organisations at 26%, small organisations at 16%, and medium-sized organisations at 10%.

8. Employment type



Figure 8: Employment type of the participants in this study

9. Organization size



Figure 9: Organisation size of the participants in this study

Nearly half of the participants worked in a hybrid work arrangement (47%), followed by on-site roles (41%) and fully remote roles (12%) as shown in Figure 10. In terms of weekly working hours as shown in Figure 11, participants reported a relative demanding work pattern, with the majority reporting 40–49 hours per week (53%) followed by 30–39 hours (34%). Also, a further 9% reported working 50 hours or more per week, indicating substantial work intensity for a minority of the sample, but overall, most of the research sample was found to spend more than 40 hours working weekly.

10. Work arrangement



Figure 10: Work arrangement of the participants in this study

11. Average weekly working hours



Figure 11: Average weekly working hours of the participants in this study

Overall, the sample reflected a well-educated, experienced, and predominantly full-time workforce that is working largely within medium-to-large organisational environments. These characteristics provide a credible basis for examining perceived leadership behaviours and self-reported performance across the two countries.

4.2 Reliability Analysis (Measurement Validation)

As described in Chapter 3, the internal consistency of all constructs was examined using Cronbach's alpha (α) before proceeding to hypothesis testing and show in Table 4 and Figure 12. As a general guide, alpha values above 0.70 are often considered acceptable in applied organisational research. The constructs were authoritarian, transactional, transformational, SDT and performance. Assessing reliability at this stage is important, as weaker internal consistency increases random measurement error and can limit the strength and clarity of observed relationships in correlation and regression analyses [84].

Table 4: Cronbach's α for overall sample

Construct	Cronbach's α
Authoritarian leadership	0.687
Transactional leadership	0.582
Transformational leadership	0.858
SDT-based (need-supportive) leadership	0.827
Employee performance	0.746

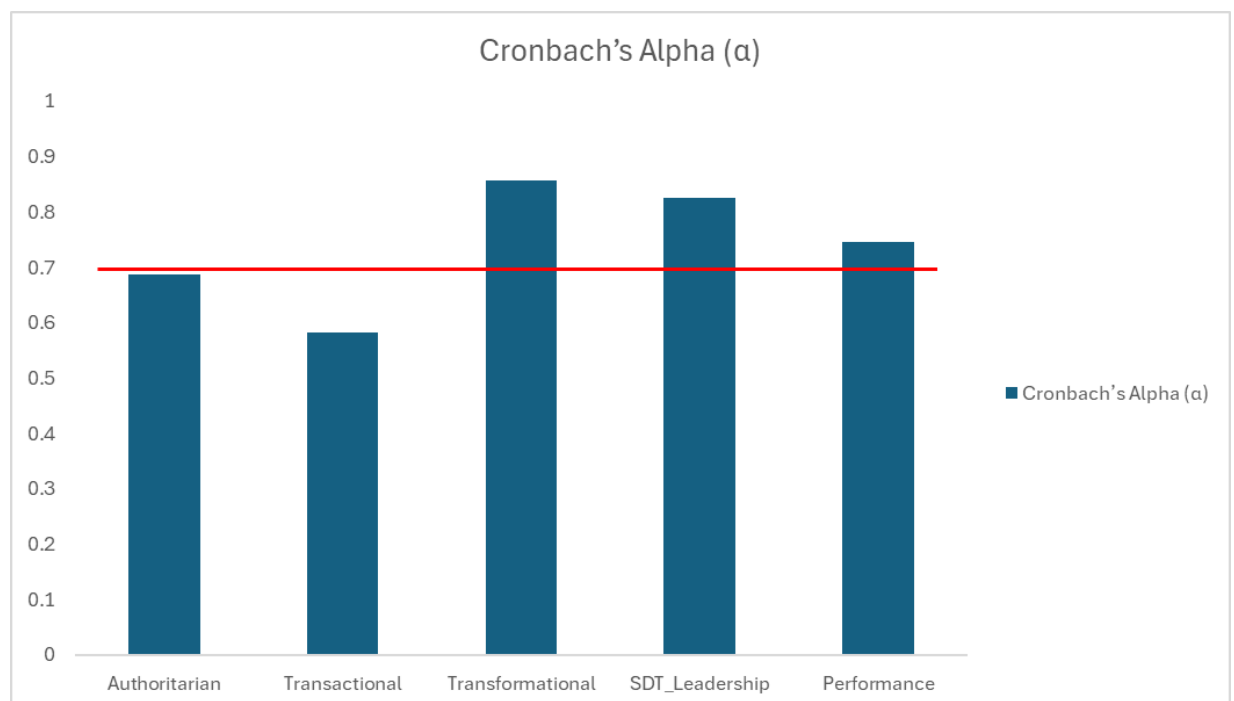


Figure 12: Cronbach's α for overall sample

At the level of the overall sample, the transformational leadership scale showed the highest degree of internal consistency ($\alpha \approx 0.85$), followed by the SDT-based leadership measure ($\alpha \approx 0.82$) and performance ($\alpha \approx 0.74$). All demonstrated satisfactory coherence

between items, indicating that respondents understood the items within these scales in a broadly consistent way [84], supporting their use in the subsequent analysis.

Authoritarian leadership was borderline the minimum threshold for acceptability ($\alpha \approx 0.69$). This is in line with previous research indicating that more controlling or strict leadership constructs often show lower internal consistency, as controlling behaviours are difficult to measure and are not interpreted the same way in every situation (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994 [83]; DeVellis, 2017; Yukl, 2013 [5]). In contrast, the transactional leadership scale exhibited weaker internal consistency ($\alpha \approx 0.58$) and lower than the lower limit of 0.70. This is indicative of a higher degree of measurement error; however, this value is acceptable for applied organisational research with the warning that treated more cautiously and are interpreted with explicit recognition of this limitation. In addition, this weaker consistency, might be coming from the fact that the transactional leadership behaviours are not interpreted uniformly by the employees, hence strongly endorsing some, while rejecting other.

When the country subgroups of Greece and the United Kingdom were investigated, the similar pattern was identified as shown in Figure 13. This provided some additional reassurance that the measures functioned in a reasonably consistent manner across countries. Table 5 shows the alpha values per each country

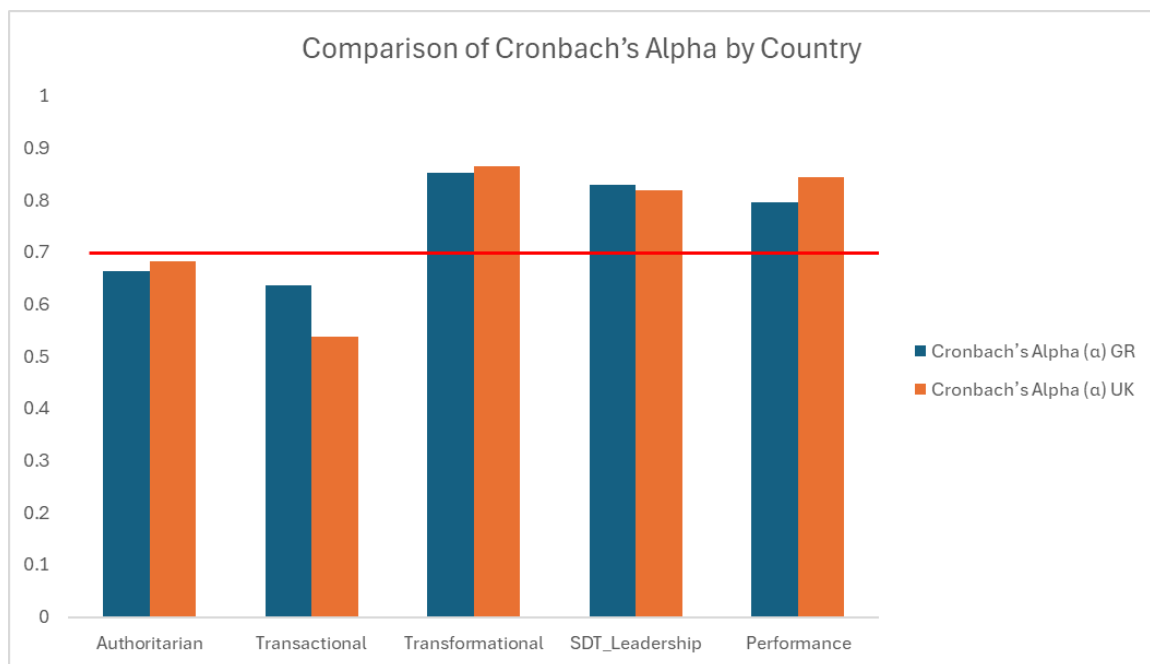


Figure 13: Comparison of Cronbach's alpha per country

Table 5: Cronbach's α per country

Construct	Greece α	UK α
Authoritarian leadership	0.664	0.683
Transactional leadership	0.637	0.538
Transformational leadership	0.853	0.865
SDT-based (need-supportive) leadership	0.829	0.820
Employee performance	0.796	0.845

Overall, transformational leadership, SDT-based leadership, and employee performance demonstrated sufficient internal consistency for the analyses undertaken. Authoritarian leadership was borderline. Transactional leadership was kept in the analysis due to its theoretical relevance and because used in past research, but its weaker reliability is clearly acknowledged when discussing results. Same trend was followed when data from Greece and the United Kingdom subgroups were investigated.

4.3 Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics were used as an initial overview of the leadership styles and employee performance, prior moving to further statistical analysis.

Across the overall sample, SDT based leadership recorded the highest mean score of $M \approx 3.78$, followed by transformational leadership of $M \approx 3.56$ and transactional leadership of $M \approx 3.16$. Authoritarian leadership exhibited the lowest mean of $M \approx 2.84$, indicating that controlling behaviours are less experienced in this sample group. Employee performance scores were consistently high across the sample ($M \approx 4.04$), with relatively low variation among responses. Results are shown in Table 6 and in Figure 14.

Table 6: Mean scores for overall sample

	Authoritarian	Transactional	Transformational	SDT-Leadership	Performance
Averages	2.84	3.16	3.56	3.78	4.04
Standard deviation	0.67	0.58	0.79	0.71	0.47
CoV	23%	18%	22%	19%	12%



Figure 14: Mean scores for overall sample

This pattern suggests that participants generally experienced a supportive than controlling behaviour from their managers, with authoritarian style rated below the

midpoint of the measured data. At the same time, the comparatively high mean for employee performance indicates that potentially participants rated themselves relatively highly. This is a common feature of self-report performance measures and can reduce observed variability and potentially can affect the observed correlations and regression coefficients (Podsakoff et al., 2003[73]). For this reason, the interpretation of the measured is focused on comparative patterns between leadership styles and countries rather than the absolute values.

Considering the Coefficient of variance alongside the means was found higher for leadership styles compared to employee's performance; leadership CoV values ranged from approximately 18% to 23%, compared to around 12% for performance. This is indicative that employees interpret managerial behaviours more differently compared to their own performance.

4.3.1 *Expanded descriptive detail (overall vs. Greece vs. UK)*

Country level data were investigated as well and demonstrated a similar trend to the overall sample. Values for Greece and United Kingdom are shown in Table 7 and Figure 15.

Table 7: Mean scores for each subgroup of Greece and the United Kingdom

Variable	Greece Mean (M)	Greece SD	Greece CoV	UK Mean (M)	UK SD	UK CoV
Authoritarian leadership	3.03	0.68	23%	2.70	0.62	23%
Transactional leadership	3.18	0.64	20%	3.15	0.54	17%
Transformational leadership	3.50	0.83	24%	3.61	0.76	21%
SDT-based leadership	3.64	0.76	21%	3.87	0.66	17%
Employee performance	4.01	0.52	13%	4.06	0.43	11%

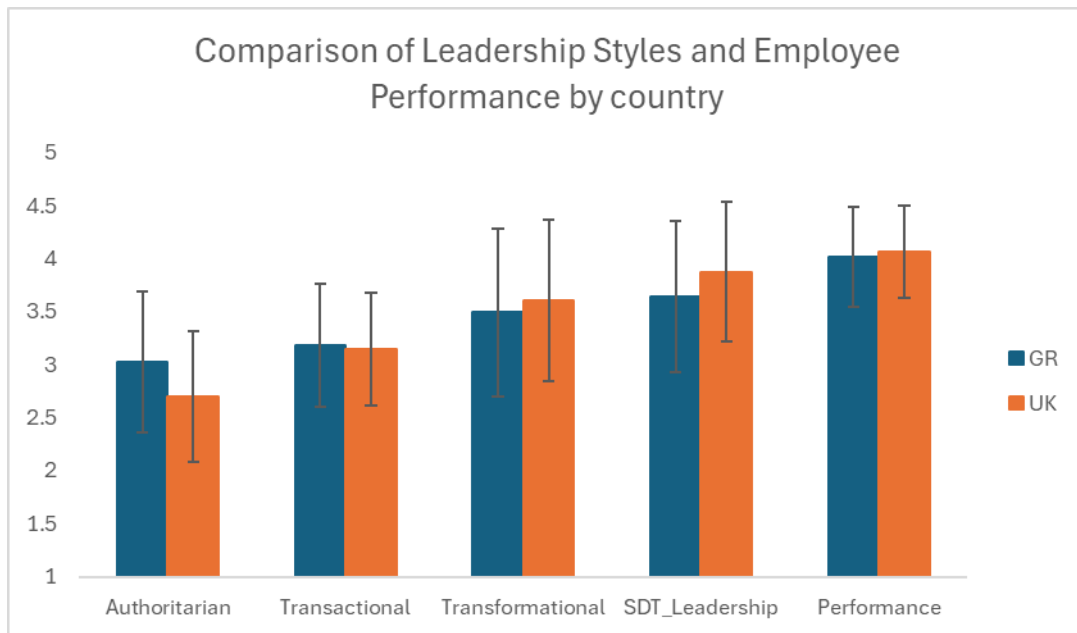


Figure 15: Comparison of mean scores for each subgroup of Greece and the United Kingdom

The country comparison presented that authoritarian leadership is more evident in Greece with an average $M=3.03$ compared to the United Kingdom, with $M=2.70$, showing that employees in Greece face more controlling behaviours than in the United Kingdom. Transactional leadership was also higher in Greece with $M=3.18$ compared to the United Kingdom with $M=3.15$. However, SDT based leadership was more evident in the United Kingdom with a $M=3.87$ compared to Greece with $M=3.64$ that is consistent with a stronger emphasis on autonomy-supportive and need-supportive leadership behaviours. Transformational leadership followed the same trend, showing higher average in the United Kingdom $M=3.61$ compared to Greece with $M=3.64$.

In both sample subgroups employee performance presented the higher mean values compared to leadership constructs. Employees in the United Kingdom got a marginally higher mean value of $M=4.06$ relative to Greece with $M=4.01$.

In Greece, leadership constructs showed a moderate variation ($CoV \approx 20\text{--}24\%$), while self-reported performance showed less variation ($CoV \approx 13\%$). In the United Kingdom, leadership variability was slightly smaller ($CoV \approx 17\text{--}23\%$), and employee performance exhibited the lowest relative variability of all three samples ($CoV \approx 11\%$). This pattern is consistent with wider evidence that self-reported performance measures tend to cluster toward the upper end of Likert scales, as respondents generally rate their own performance positively (Podsakoff et al., 2003[73]). As explained in the overall sample descriptive statistics, because the employee performance ratings were higher and with less variation compared to leadership constructs, this might underestimate the true influence of the leadership, without this meaning that leadership data is weak.

In total, the presentation of the descriptive statistics showed three key items:

- The purpose of presenting these differences is to get a first impression of the collected data and help conceptualise subsequent correlation and regression analysis.
- Importance to focus on relative patterns compared to get an absolute effect value.

- Highlights the importance of requirement for further statistical analysis, such as regression, which is going to give more detail about the unique contribution of specific leadership behaviours.

4.4 Correlation Analysis (Bivariate Hypothesis Testing)

Pearson correlation analysis was used to understand for any relationships between leadership styles and employee performance in the overall sample. Correlation coefficients indicate if leadership styles are related to performance, but do not control for overlap among leadership styles (Field, 2018 [81]).

At the overall sample level, leadership behaviours have been found to be associated with employee performance, supporting Hypothesis 1 (Managerial leadership style has a significant impact on employee performance in both Greece and the United Kingdom). SDT-based leadership had the strongest positive correlation with performance ($r = 0.366$), supporting Hypothesis 6 (Self-Determination Theory (SDT) need-supportive leadership is positively associated with employee performance and well-being in both countries). Transactional leadership ($r = 0.334$) showed the second strongest positive correlation with performance, providing partial support to Hypothesis 4 (Transactional leadership is positively associated with employee performance, but its effect is weaker than transformational leadership in both countries). Transformational leadership presented a marginally lower correlation ($r = 0.312$) that is consistent with Hypothesis 3 (Transformational leadership is positively associated with employee performance in both Greece and the United Kingdom). In contrast, authoritarian leadership had a weak negative relationship with employee performance ($r = -0.093$), supporting Hypothesis 5 (Authoritarian leadership is negatively associated with employee performance in both Greece and the United Kingdom).

Table 8: Correlation of leadership styles to employee performance for overall sample

Leadership style	Correlation with employee performance (r)
Authoritarian leadership	-0.093
Transactional leadership	0.334
Transformational leadership	0.312
SDT-based leadership	0.366

Based on the correlation analysis presented above, there are indications that supportive leadership styles are positively associated with higher self-reported performance, whereas authoritarian indicated the opposite. However, correlations show only information about the general relationships between leadership styles and performance but cannot isolate the effect of each individual leadership style (Field, 2018 [81]; Hair et al., 2019 [77]). Hence, the above results are presented as an initial test of the hypothesis that can be used as contextual groundwork for the regression analysis reported in the next sections of this thesis.



Figure 16: Correlation of leadership styles to employee performance for overall sample

4.4.1 *Cross-National Comparison of Bivariate Relationships (Greece vs United Kingdom)*

In order to support the study's comparative focus between Greece and the United Kingdom, correlation analyses were also conducted separately for each subgroup of the research sample. Results in Table 9 indicated that Hypothesis 2 (The relationship between leadership style and employee performance differs significantly between Greece and the United Kingdom) is supported, as values are different between Greece and the United Kingdom.

In the Greek sample ($n = 58$), SDT-based leadership showed a strong positive correlation with employee performance ($r = 0.497$) following the same trend as the overall sample and supporting Hypothesis 6 (Self-Determination Theory (SDT) need-supportive leadership is positively associated with employee performance and well-being in both countries). Transformational leadership ($r = 0.454$) showed the second strongest value, supporting Hypothesis 3 (Transformational leadership is positively associated with employee performance in both Greece and the United Kingdom). Transactional leadership showed a moderate correlation with performance ($r = 0.329$), supporting Hypothesis 4 (Transactional leadership is positively associated with employee performance, but its effect is weaker than transformational leadership in both countries). However, authoritarian leadership exhibited a weak negative association ($r = -0.165$), supporting Hypothesis 5 (Authoritarian leadership is negatively associated with employee performance in both Greece and the United Kingdom).

In the UK sample ($n = 79$), transactional leadership showed the strongest correlation with employee performance ($r = 0.343$), partially supporting Hypothesis 4 (Transactional leadership is positively associated with employee performance, but its effect is weaker than transformational leadership in both countries). SDT-based leadership followed with $r = 0.226$, supporting Hypothesis 6 (Self-Determination Theory (SDT) need-supportive leadership is positively associated with employee performance and well-being in both

countries). Transformational leadership also showed a positive, but weaker, relationship with performance ($r = 0.171$), supporting Hypothesis 3 (Transformational leadership is positively associated with employee performance in both Greece and the United Kingdom). Authoritarian leadership correlation was borderline negative and effectively unrelated to performance ($r = -0.003$), providing a weak support to Hypothesis 5 (Authoritarian leadership is negatively associated with employee performance in both Greece and the United Kingdom).

Table 9: Comparison of Correlation analysis for each subgroup

Leadership style	Greece (r)	United Kingdom (r)	Δ (Greece – UK)
Authoritarian leadership	-0.165	-0.003	-0.162
Transactional leadership	0.329	0.343	-0.014
Transformational leadership	0.454	0.171	0.282
SDT-based leadership	0.497	0.226	0.271

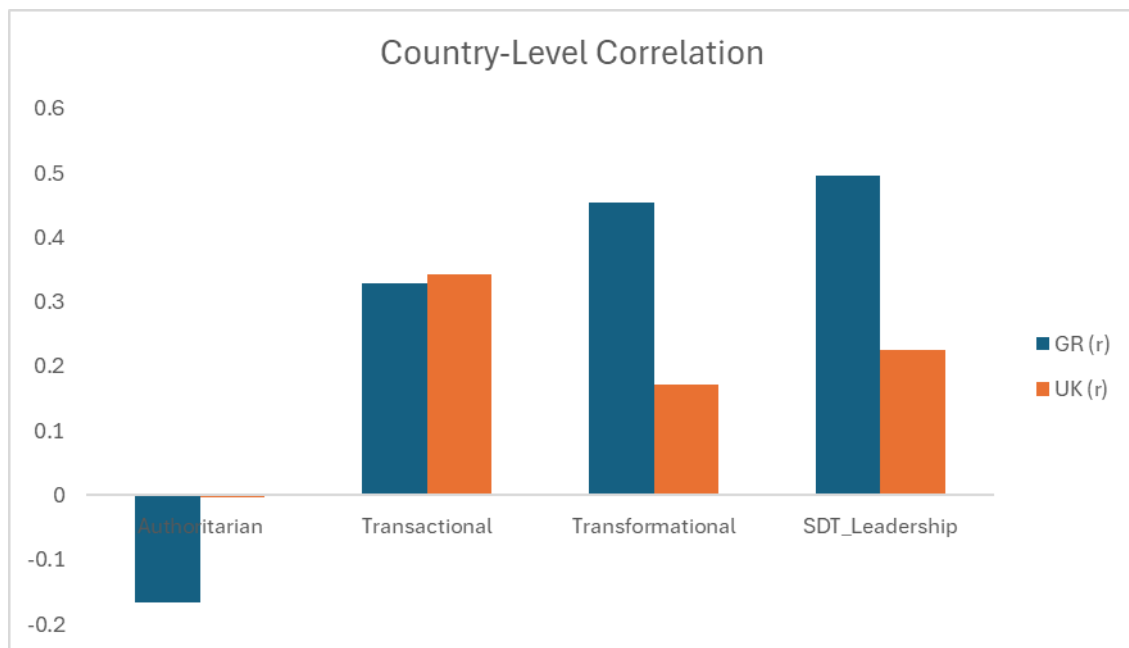


Figure 17: Country level correlation

The largest differences between Greece and the United Kingdom were found for transformational leadership ($\Delta r = 0.282$) and SDT-based leadership ($\Delta r = 0.271$), both of which showed stronger relationships with employee performance in Greece. Transactional leadership displayed very similar correlation magnitudes across the two countries, while authoritarian leadership was weakly negative or negligible in both contexts.

This pattern provide support to Hypothesis 2 (The relationship between leadership style and employee performance differs significantly between Greece and the United Kingdom), as presented earlier. Additionally, these differences provide an initial indication to Hypothesis 7-10 (H7: The positive effect of transformational leadership on employee performance is stronger in the United Kingdom than in Greece; H8: The negative effect of authoritarian leadership on employee performance is stronger in the United Kingdom than in Greece; H9: SDT need-supportive leadership has a stronger positive impact on employee performance in the United Kingdom compared to Greece; H10: Transactional leadership is more effective in Greece than in the United Kingdom due to cultural preferences for structure and hierarchy). However, no further comments can be extracted from Correlation analysis, and a more rigorous regression analysis is going to be presented in the following sections for this thesis.

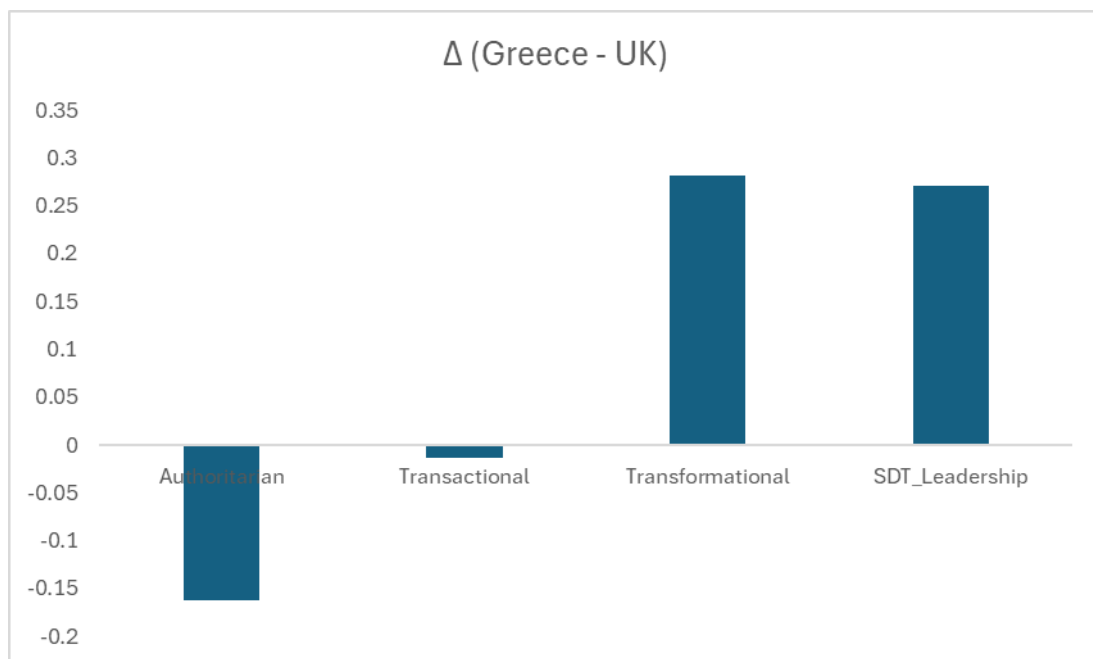


Figure 18: Country level Correlation differences

4.5 Regression Analysis (Multivariate Hypothesis Testing)

Multiple linear regression analysis was performed to test hypotheses and understand if the different leadership styles provide information and explain the employee performance. Correlation analysis only compares simply relationships in pairs. However, regression analysis benefit of the relative contribution of each leadership style to be examined while accounting for overlap of the various leadership styles. Hence, regression analysis results are considered the primary basis for evaluating hypothesis for acceptance or rejection.

Employee performance was specified as the dependent variable. Authoritarian, transactional, transformational, and SDT leadership were entered simultaneously as independent variables. Regression models were estimated for the overall sample and for the Greek and United Kingdom subsamples, supporting evaluation of hypotheses concerning differences in leadership–performance relationships for each subgroup.

4.5.1 *Model fit and diagnostic notes for overall sample*

Model fit was assessed using R^2 and overall model significance tests. Multicollinearity was also tested, as might be overlap between the different leadership styles. This was tested using variance inflation factors (VIFs) for each leadership style to test the size of the overlap, which could make the regression results unstable (Field, 2018 [81]; Hair et al., 2019 [77]). Higher VIF values indicate greater overlap, with $VIF \geq 5$ usually seen as a point of concern. For the overall sample, VIFs are presented in Table 10 below:

Table 10: Variance Inflation Factors (VIF) for Overall Sample Regression Predictors (N = 137)

Predictor	VIF
Authoritarian leadership	1.794
Transformational leadership	2.045
Transactional leadership	4.359
SDT need-supportive leadership	3.611

VIF values indicated low-to-moderate overlap between leadership styles, with the highest overlap observed between transactional and SDT-based leadership styles. However, the important observation was that all VIF values remained below the commonly cited threshold of concern (≈ 5). This is indication that multicollinearity was not severe enough to affect model stability or invalidate measured coefficients (Field, 2018 [81]; Hair et al., 2019 [77]).

Subgroup models (Greece and the UK) are interpreted cautiously due to smaller sample sizes. In addition, the weaker internal consistency of the transactional leadership scale ($\alpha \approx 0.58$) is acknowledged as a potential source of instability for the regression analysis. Hence, regression results involving transactional leadership are interpreted conservatively, with emphasis placed on overall patterns.

4.5.2 *Overall Sample*

The multiple regression model for the overall sample was statistically significant, as Significance $F < .005$ as shown in Table 11. Also, the R^2 was found to be 0.174, which means that leadership styles explaining approximately 17.4% of the variance in employee performance.

Table 11: Regression for overall sample

SUMMAR
Y OUTPUT

<i>Regression Statistics</i>	
	0.4168
Multiple R	72667

	0.1737
R Square	82821
Adjusted R Square	0.1487
Standard Error	45936
Observations	0.4354
	37718
	137

ANOVA

	<i>df</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Significance F</i>
Regression	4	5.264275901	1.316068975	6.941072179	4.20798E-05
Residual	132	25.02799283	0.189606006		
Total	136	30.29226873			

	<i>Coefficients</i>	<i>Standard Error</i>	<i>t Stat</i>	<i>P-value</i>	<i>Lower 95%</i>	<i>Upper 95%</i>	<i>Lower 95.0%</i>	<i>Upper 95.0%</i>
Intercept	2.343999451	0.412247141	5.685908329	7.98308E-08	1.528533859	3.159465042	1.528533859	3.159465042
Authoritarian	0.127585977	0.074842832	1.704718717	0.090599425	0.020460543	0.275632497	0.020460543	0.275632497
Transactional	0.107714196	0.085147685	1.265027893	0.208090024	0.06071634	0.276144733	0.06071634	0.276144733
Transformational	0.016626583	0.086014445	0.193299895	0.847021227	0.153518491	0.186771657	0.153518491	0.186771657
SDT_Leadership	0.247839385	0.100842307	2.457692522	0.015280081	0.048363333	0.447315436	0.048363333	0.447315436

In this regression analysis, leadership styles were tested simultaneously. However, only SDT-based leadership identified as statistically significant predictor of employee performance ($p = 0.015 < 0.05$). In addition, SDT-based leadership presented the highest positive coefficient, indicating that higher perceived need-supportive leadership was associated with higher self-reported employee performance, even when the areas overlapping with the other leadership styles were removed. This finding provides support for Hypothesis 6 (Self-Determination Theory (SDT) need-supportive leadership is positively associated with employee performance and well-being in both countries) when tested in the overall sample.

Authoritarian leadership showed the smallest positive coefficient ($B = 0.128$) that is marginally on the positive side, indicating that authoritarian behaviours improved employee performance almost negligible. The p value was greater than the standard cut-off value of 0.05 ($p = 0.091$). Therefore, the authoritarian leadership was statistical insignificant. Hence, Hypothesis 5 (Authoritarian leadership is negatively associated

with employee performance in both Greece and the United Kingdom) that predicted a negative association with performance was not supported.

Transactional leadership was also not a significant predictor ($p = 0.208 > 0.05$), as a result Hypothesis 4 (Transactional leadership is positively associated with employee performance, but its effect is weaker than transformational leadership in both countries) was not supported by the regression multivariate model in the overall sample. In the same way, transformational leadership was also not a significant predictor $p = 0.847$), indicating that its positive bivariate association that presented in correlation analysis with performance was not followed into the multivariate level analysis. As a result, Hypothesis 3 (Transformational leadership is positively associated with employee performance in both Greece and the United Kingdom) is not supported in the overall regression model.

Regression analysis was checked to assess the suitability of the model. Visual inspection of the normal probability plot of standardised residuals and the residual histogram did not indicate any substantial departures from normality. Together with earlier diagnostic checks on VIF, this indicate that the regression assumptions were met and results are valid and can be used for this thesis.

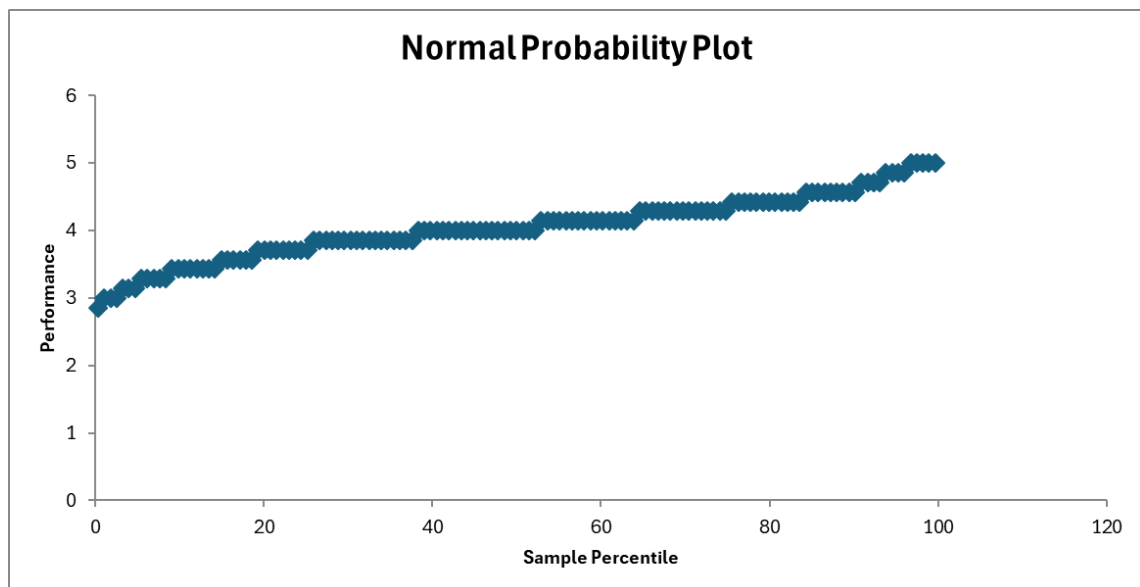


Figure 19: Normal probability plot for the overall sample

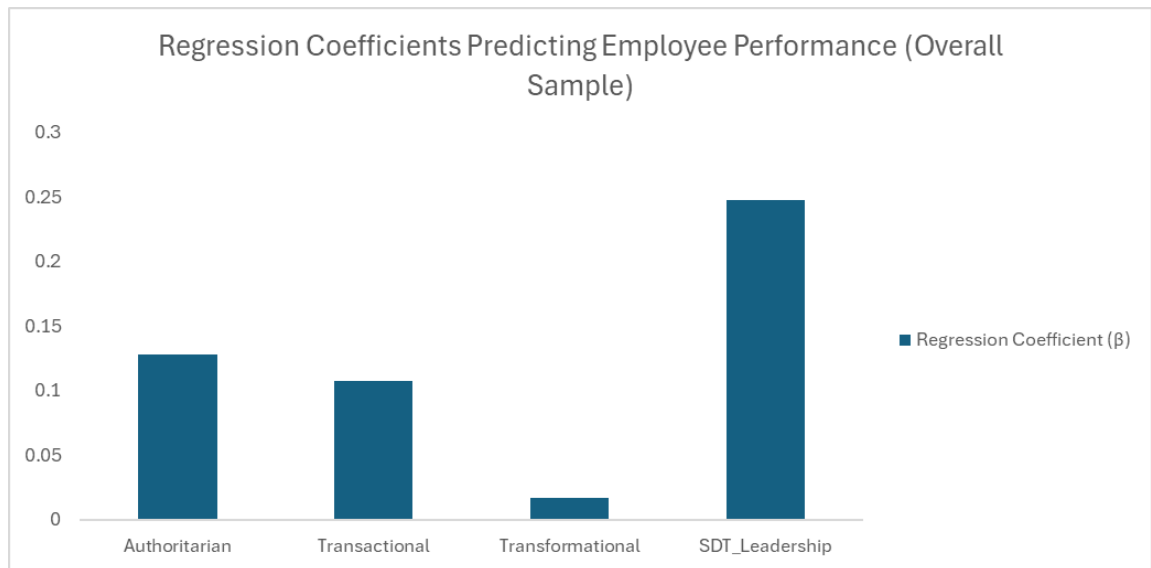


Figure 20: Regression coefficients for overall sample

Overall, although the initial findings demonstrated that leadership styles were related to employee performance at the bivariate level (when examined separately), only SDT need-supportive leadership presented statistically significant results once leadership styles overlaps were considered.

4.5.3 Greece

For the Greek subsample ($N = 58$), the multiple regression model was statistically significant as $p = 0.0016$. Given $R^2 = 0.276$, this multiple regression model explains approximately 27.6% of the variance in employee performance in Greece, which is significant proportion as almost one-third of performance differences are based in Leadership in this model.

Table 12: Regression for the Greek subsample

SUMMARY OUTPUT

<i>Regression Statistics</i>	
	0.5257
Multiple R	3
	0.2763
R Square	92
Adjusted R	0.2217
Square	8
Standard	0.4603
Error	47
Observatio	
ns	58

ANOVA

	<i>df</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Significance F</i>
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		4.29009	1.07	5.06	0.00157
Regression	4	9	2525	1009	5
		11.2317	0.21		
Residual	53	2	1919		
		15.5218			
Total	57	2			

	<i>Coeffi cients</i>	<i>Standard Error</i>	<i>t Stat</i>	<i>P- value</i>	<i>Lower 95%</i>	<i>Upper 95%</i>	<i>Lower 95.0%</i>	<i>Upper 95.0%</i>
Intercept	2.1455 41	0.59737 1	3.59 1639	0.00 0719	0.94736 6	3.3437 16	0.9473 66	3.3437 16
Authoritari an	0.1321 96	0.11791 8	1.12 1087	0.26 7305	- 0.10432	0.3687 09	0.1043 2	0.3687 09
Transactio nal	0.0350 6	0.13230 6	0.26 497	0.79 2061	- 0.30043	0.2303 15	0.3004 3	0.2303 15
Transform ational	0.1155 16	0.11744 4	0.98 3586	0.32 9788	- 0.12005	0.3510 79	0.1200 5	0.3510 79
SDT_Lead ership	0.3224 29	0.15536 4	2.07 5322	0.04 2826		0.6340 49	0.0108 1	0.6340 49

As in the overall sample regression analysis, SDT need-supportive leadership was found as the only statistically significant predictor of employee performance ($p = 0.043$). In addition, SDT-based leadership presented the highest positive coefficient, indicating that higher perceived need-supportive leadership was associated with higher self-reported employee performance, even when the areas overlapping with the other leadership styles were removed. This finding provides support for Hypothesis 6 (Self-Determination Theory (SDT) need-supportive leadership is positively associated with employee performance and well-being in both countries) when tested in the Greek subsample.

Authoritarian ($p = 0.267$), transactional ($p = 0.792$) and transformational ($p = 0.330$) leadership styles were not a significant predictor of employee performance. As a result, Hypothesis 3 (Transformational leadership is positively associated with employee performance in both Greece and the United Kingdom), 4 (Transactional leadership is positively associated with employee performance, but its effect is weaker than transformational leadership in both countries) and 5 (Authoritarian leadership is negatively associated with employee performance in both Greece and the United Kingdom) were not supported in the Greek subsample at the multivariate level.

Regression diagnostics were examined to assess model suitability. Visual inspection of the normal probability plot of standardised residuals and the residual histogram did not indicate substantial departures from normality, suggesting that the assumptions underlying ordinary least squares regression were adequately met in the Greek model.

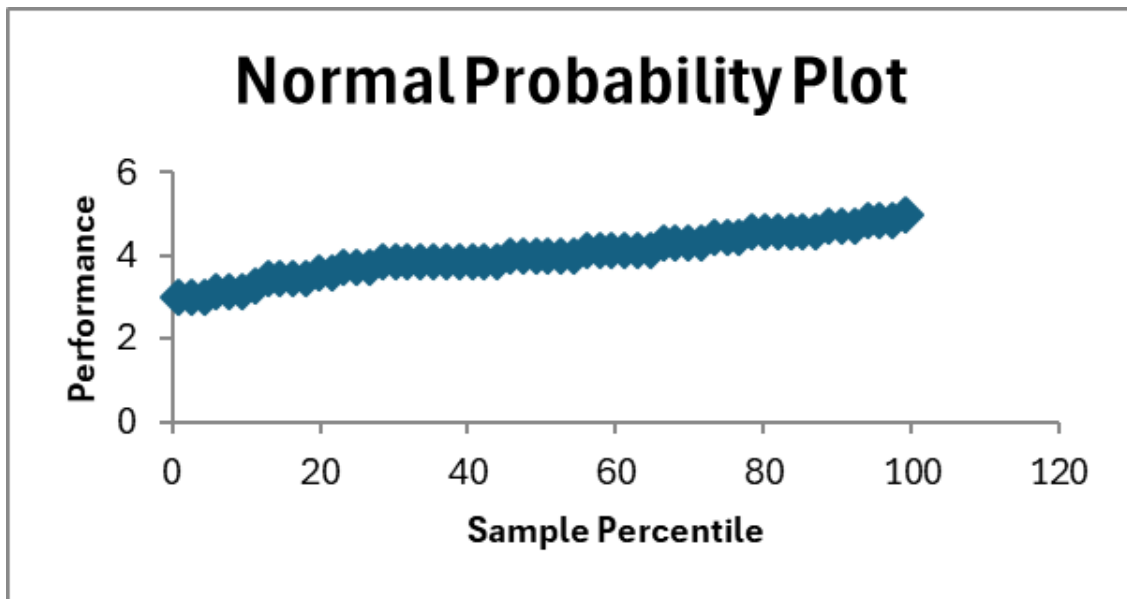


Figure 21: Normal probability plot for the subsample in Greece

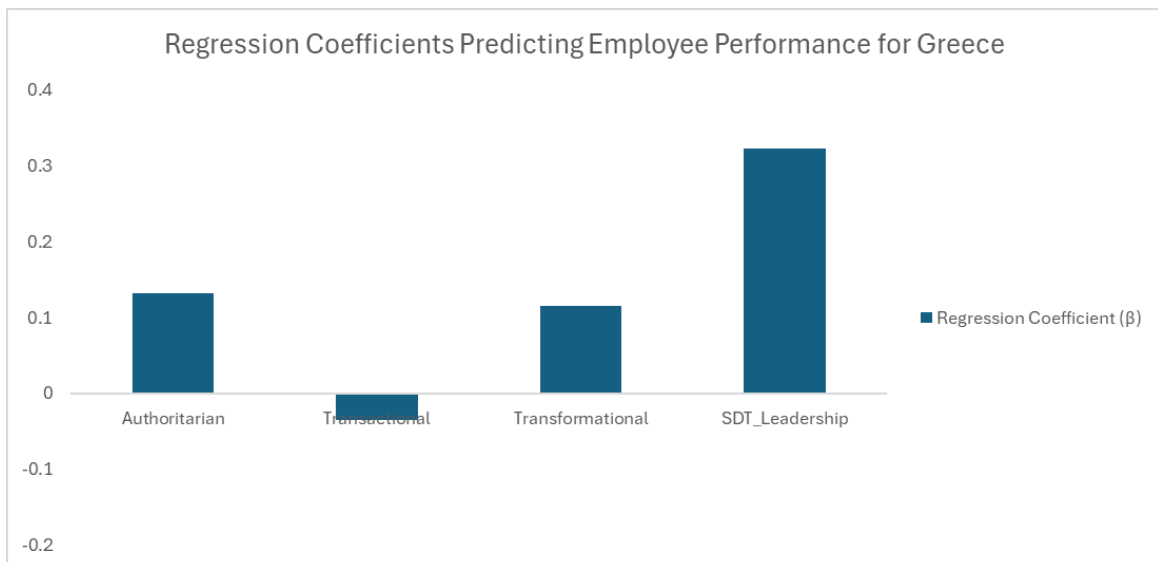


Figure 22: Regression coefficients for subsample in Greece

Overall, the Greek regression analysis results mirrored the pattern that was observed in the overall sample, as only SDT need-supportive leadership presented statistically significant results once leadership styles overlaps were considered. These findings provide a comparison basis for comparison with the United Kingdom subsample that is presented in the next section.

4.5.4 *United Kingdom*

For the United Kingdom subsample ($N = 79$), the multiple regression model was statistically significant as $p = 0.0103$. Given $R^2 = 0.162$, this multiple regression model explains approximately 16.2% of the variance in employee performance in the United Kingdom.

Table 13: Regression for the United Kingdom subsample

SUMMARY
OUTPUT

<i>Regression Statistics</i>	
	0.4019
Multiple R	18
	0.1615
R Square	38
Adjusted R Square	0.1162
	16
Standard Error	0.4078
	88
Observations	79

ANOVA

	<i>df</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Significance F</i>
Regression	4	2.37195	0.59	3.56	0.01029
		12.3115	0.16	4207	3
Residual	74	9	6373		
		14.6835			
Total	78	4			

	<i>Coefficients</i>	<i>Standard Error</i>	<i>t Stat</i>	<i>P-value</i>	<i>Lower 95%</i>	<i>Upper 95%</i>	<i>Lower 95.0%</i>	<i>Upper 95.0%</i>
Intercept	2.3528	0.58950	3.99	0.00	1.17823	3.5274	1.1782	3.5274
	45	1	125	0153	9	51	39	51
Authoritarian	0.1475		1.42	0.15	-	0.3539	0.0589	0.3539
	12	0.10361	3721	873	0.05894	6	4	6
Transactional	0.2957	0.11578	2.55	0.01	0.06507	0.5264	0.0650	0.5264
	81	3	4622	2686	9	83	79	83
Transformational	0.1079		0.81	0.41	-		0.3729	
	7	0.13298	191	9445	0.37294	0.157	4	0.157
SDT_Leadership	0.1988		1.42	0.15	-	0.4774	0.0798	0.4774
	07	0.13985	1573	9351	0.07985	64	5	64

In contrast to the overall sample and Greek subsample regression, transactional leadership was found as the only statistically significant predictor of employee performance ($p = 0.0103$). In addition, transactional leadership presented the highest positive coefficient, indicating that higher perceived transactional leadership was associated with higher self-reported employee performance, even when the areas overlapping with the other leadership styles were removed. This led to the outcome that

Hypotheses 1 (Managerial leadership style has a significant impact on employee performance in both Greece and the United Kingdom) and 2 (The relationship between leadership style and employee performance differs significantly between Greece and the United Kingdom) are supported on a pattern basis. Additionally, Hypothesis 4 (Transactional leadership is positively associated with employee performance, but its effect is weaker than transformational leadership in both countries) is partially supported, as transactional leadership is positively associated with performance, but no data to support if it's weaker or not to transformational leadership.

Authoritarian ($p = 0.159$), transformational ($p = 0.419$) and SDT ($p = 0.159$) leadership styles were not a significant predictor of employee performance. As a result, Hypothesis 3 (Transformational leadership is positively associated with employee performance in both Greece and the United Kingdom) and 5-10 (H5: Authoritarian leadership is negatively associated with employee performance in both Greece and the United Kingdom; H6: Self-Determination Theory (SDT) need-supportive leadership is positively associated with employee performance and well-being in both countries; H7: The positive effect of transformational leadership on employee performance is stronger in the United Kingdom than in Greece; H8: The negative effect of authoritarian leadership on employee performance is stronger in the United Kingdom than in Greece; H9: SDT need-supportive leadership has a stronger positive impact on employee performance in the United Kingdom compared to Greece; H10: Transactional leadership is more effective in Greece than in the United Kingdom due to cultural preferences for structure and hierarchy) were not supported in the United Kingdom subsample at the multivariate level.

Regression diagnostics were examined to assess model suitability. Visual inspection of the normal probability plot of standardised residuals and the residual histogram did not indicate substantial departures from normality, suggesting that the assumptions underlying ordinary least squares regression were adequately met in the United Kingdom model.

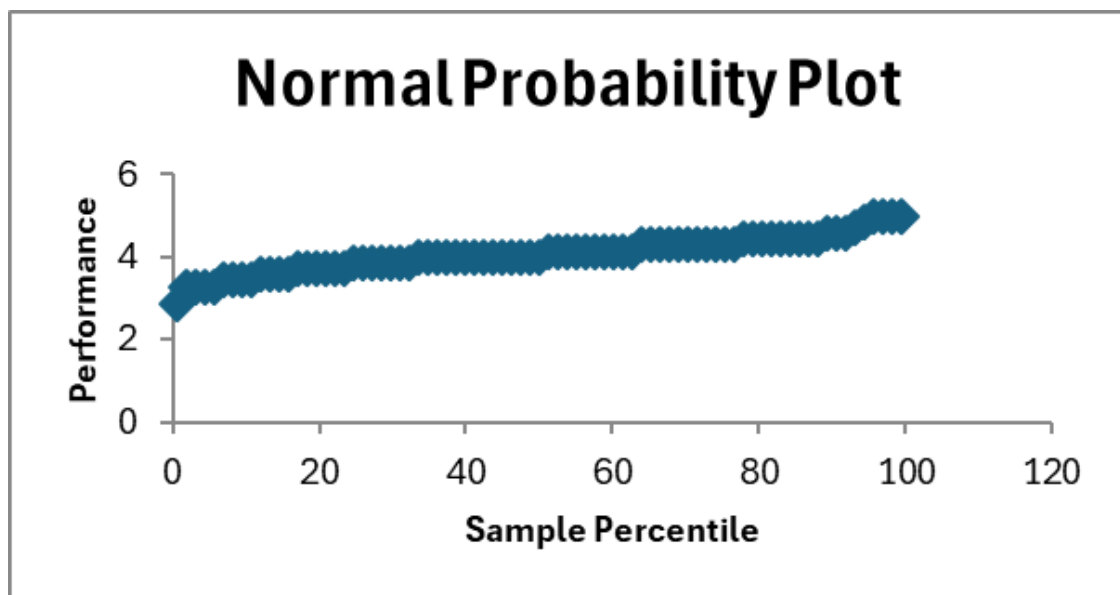


Figure 23:: Normal probability plot for the subsample in the United Kingdom

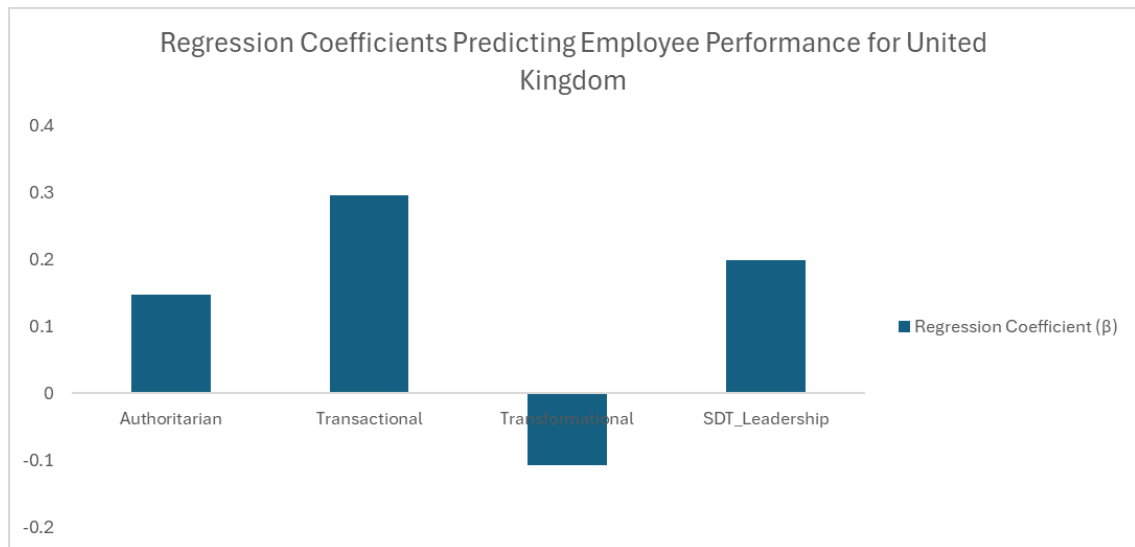


Figure 24: Regression coefficients for subsample in the United Kingdom

Overall, the United Kingdom regression analysis results did not follow the pattern that was observed in the overall sample and Greek subsample, as only Transactional leadership presented statistically significant results once leadership styles overlaps were considered. A comparative interpretation of these patterns is developed in Chapter 5.

4.6 Cultural Orientation Profiles

4.6.1 Contextual Description

Cultural orientation items were analysed descriptively to provide contextual insight for interpreting leadership–performance relationships. Table 14 shows item-level means for Greece and the United Kingdom alongside simple mean differences. Greece showed somewhat higher values of authority- and hierarchy-consistent statements compared to the United Kingdom. In the same way, Greece showed preference for teamwork compared to the United Kingdom. On the other hand, responders in the United Kingdom presented higher values for personal freedom. The item “Comfortable challenging manager” presented marginal difference between the two countries, with responders in the United Kingdom agreeing less.

Table 14: Cultural item level mean scores for Greece and the United Kingdom

Culture item	Greece mean	UK mean	Difference (GR – UK)
Hierarchy preference	3.862	3.608	0.254
Managers’ final say	3.483	3.266	0.217
Comfortable challenging manager	3.845	3.835	0.009
Individual achievement	3.845	2.557	1.288
Preference for teamwork	3.845	3.430	0.414
Personal freedom	3.845	4.329	−0.484

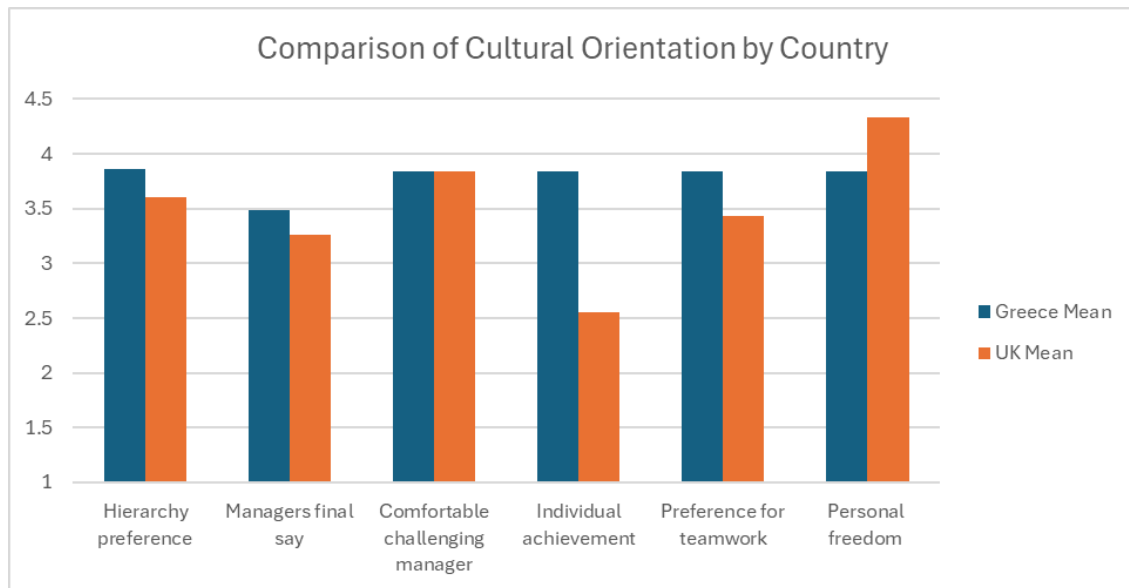


Figure 25: Comparison of Cultural Orientation by Country

Table 15 shows the compiled orientations for Power Distance, Individualism, and Autonomy. Greece presented higher score in Individualism and Power Distance – higher acceptance of hierarchical authority.

Table 15: Cultural orientation per country

Cultural orientation (composite)	Greece mean	UK mean
Power Distance	3.730	3.570
Individualism	3.845	2.994
Autonomy	3.845	4.329

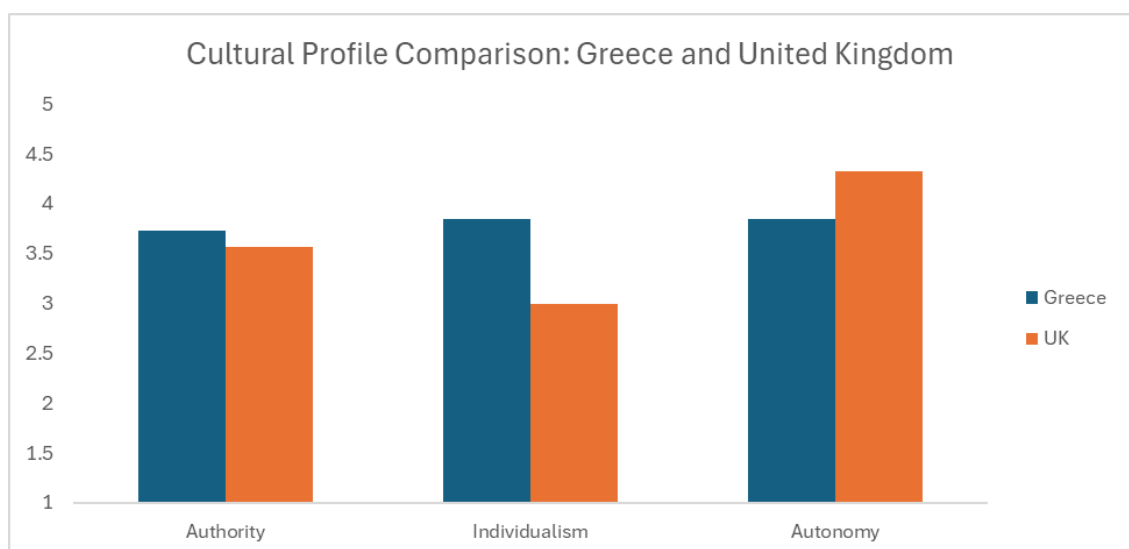


Figure 26: Cultural profile comparison

The above descriptive data demonstrated there are difference between Greece and the United Kingdom on authority and autonomy related cultural orientations, but also share similarities, as the values did not present massive differences. The purpose of presenting

this data is for contextual comparison. The role of cultural orientations as moderators are investigated further in the next section.

4.6.2 *Moderation of Leadership–Performance Relationships by Cultural Orientation*

The role of culture as moderator was examined by creating interaction terms in regression models using mean-centred values, in line with methodology in section 3.4.4.1. The below interactions were tested:

- Power Distance x Authoritarian Leadership
- Power Distance x Transformational Leadership
- Autonomy Orientation x SDT Leadership

4.6.2.1 Power Distance x Authoritarian Leadership

For each regression model, the statistical significance of the interaction term was tested.

The interaction between power distance and authoritarian leadership was not found statistically significant ($p=0.56$) as shown in Table 16. Hence it was not possible to identify relationships between power distance and authoritarian leadership.

Table 16: Regression for the interaction Power Distance x Authoritarian Leadership
SUMMARY
OUTPUT

<i>Regression Statistics</i>					
		0.1079			
Multiple R		40908			
		0.0116			
R Square		5124			
		-			
Adjusted R		0.0106			
Square		42341			
		0.4744			
Standard Error		55178			
Observations		137			

<i>ANOVA</i>					
	<i>df</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Significance F</i>
Regression	3	0.35294	0.11	0.52	0.6674
		2485	7647	2628	55
Residual	133	29.9393	0.22		
		2625	5108		
		30.2922			
Total	136	6873			

	<i>Coefficients</i>	<i>Standard Error</i>	<i>t Stat</i>	<i>P-value</i>	<i>Lower 95%</i>	<i>Upper 95%</i>	<i>Lower 95.0%</i>	<i>Upper 95.0%</i>
Intercept	4.0457 47554	0.04112 1254	98.3 858	4.2E-126	3.9644 11	4.127 084	3.9644 11	4.1270 84
Mean centered PD	0.0152 13964	0.07534 3618	0.20 193	0.84 0282	0.1642 4	0.133 813	0.1642 4	0.1338 13
Mean centered Authoritarian	0.0607 60516	0.06196 4179	0.98 057	0.32 8583	0.1833 2	0.061 802	0.1833 2	0.0618 02
PDxA	0.0650 9452	0.11150 995	0.58 376	0.56 0374	0.2856 6	0.155 468	0.2856 6	0.1554 68

To further support the analysis, Power Distance x Authoritarian Leadership interaction plot was produced in Figure 27. Interaction plot was made using predicted values of employee performance at low (-1 x Standard Deviation), mean and high (1 x Standard Deviation) of authoritarian leadership, indicating no real difference between the lines and being consistent with the non-statistically significant interaction in the regression analysis.

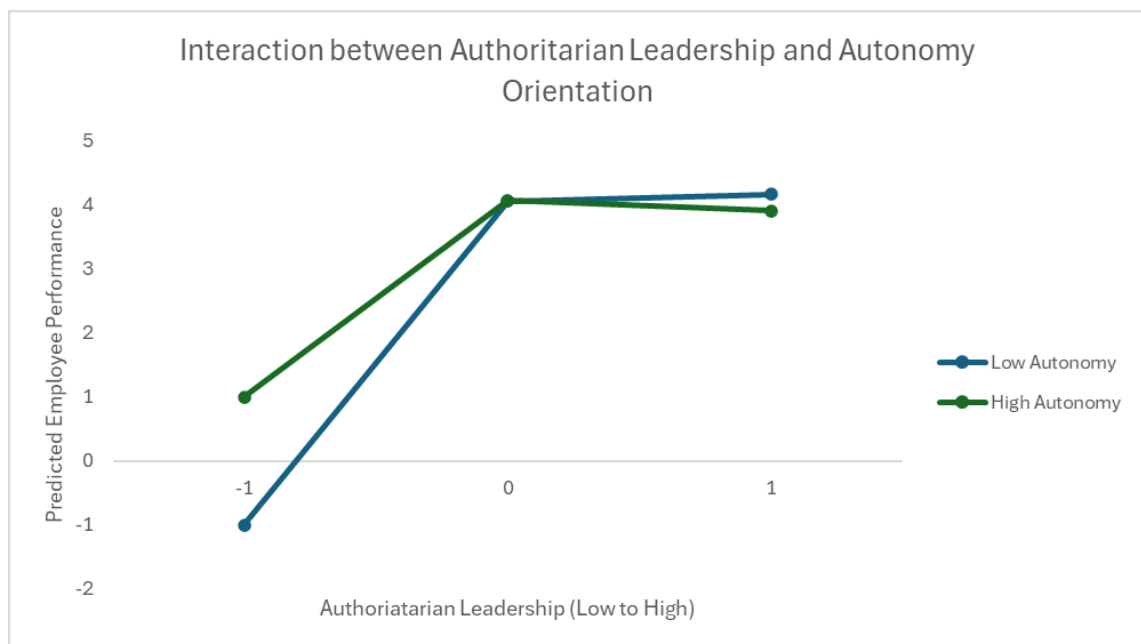


Figure 27: Interaction between Power Distance and Authoritarian Leadership

4.6.2.2 Power Distance x Transformational Leadership

The interaction between power distance and transformational leadership was not found statistically significant ($p=0.096$) as shown in Table 17. Hence it was not possible to identify relationships between power distance and transformational leadership.

Table 17: Regression for the interaction Power Distance x Transformational Leadership

SUMMARY
OUTPUT

<i>Regression Statistics</i>	
Multiple R	0.3413
R Square	0.1165
Adjusted R Square	0.0966
Standard Error	0.4485
Observations	7023

<i>ANOVA</i>					
	<i>df</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Significance F</i>
Regression	3	3.53064	1.17688	5.84886	0.000877
Residual	133	26.76163	0.2005		
Total	136	30.29227			

	<i>Coefficients</i>	<i>Standard Error</i>	<i>t Stat</i>	<i>P-value</i>	<i>Lower 95%</i>	<i>Upper 95%</i>	<i>Lower 95.0%</i>	<i>Upper 95.0%</i>
Intercept	4.03117474	0.03884	103.7866	3.8E-129	3.954293	4.107942	3.954293	4.107942
Mean centered PD	0.015277751	0.071476	0.213747	0.83107	-0.1261	0.156654	-	0.156654
Mean centred Transformational	0.19231822	0.049414	3.891974	0.000157	0.094579	0.290057	0.094579	0.290057
PDxTransformational	-0.129217001	0.077013	-1.67785	0.095724	-0.28155	0.023112	-	0.023112

To further support the analysis, Power Distance x Transformational Leadership interaction plot was produced in Figure 28. Interaction plot was made using predicted values of employee performance at low (-1 x Standard Deviation), mean and high (1 x Standard Deviation) of transformational leadership, indicating no real difference between the lines and being consistent with the non-statistically significant interaction in the regression analysis.

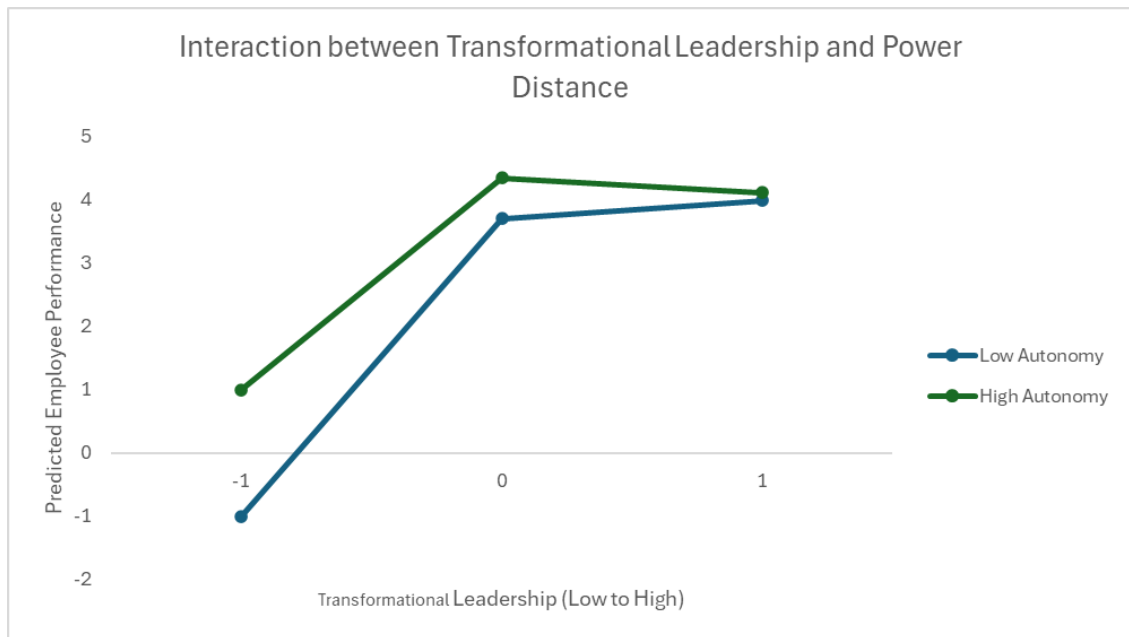


Figure 28: Interaction between Power Distance and Transformational Leadership

4.6.2.3 Autonomy x SDT Leadership

The interaction between autonomy and SDT leadership was not found statistically significant ($p=0.069$) as shown in Table 18. Hence it was not possible to identify relationships between power distance and transformational leadership.

Table 18: Regression for the interaction Autonomy x SDT Leadership

SUMMARY
OUTPUT

<i>Regression Statistics</i>	
	0.4447
Multiple R	78
	0.1978
R Square	28
Adjusted R	0.1797
Square	34
Standard	0.4274
Error	39
Observations	137

<i>ANOVA</i>					
	<i>df</i>	<i>SS</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Significance F</i>
Regression	3	5.99265	1.99	10.9	1.82E-06
Residual	133	24.2996	0.18		
Total	136	30.2922	2704		

	<i>Coefficients</i>	<i>Standard Error</i>	<i>t Stat</i>	<i>P-value</i>	<i>Lower 95%</i>	<i>Upper 95%</i>	<i>Lower 95.0%</i>	<i>Upper 95.0%</i>
Intercept	4.0242	0.03774	106.22	1.1E-130	3.94956	4.098	3.9495	4.0988
Mean centered AUTO	0.1787	0.05960	2.99	0.00	0.06088	0.296	0.0608	0.2966
Mean centred SDT	0.1916	0.05373	3.56	0.00	0.08536	0.297	0.0853	0.2979
AUTOxSDT	0.1274	0.06950	1.83	0.06	-	0.264	0.0099	0.2649
	81	3	4174	8863	0.00999	955	9	55

To further support the analysis, Autonomy x SDT Leadership interaction plot was produced in Figure 29. Interaction plot was made using predicted values of employee performance at low (-1 x Standard Deviation), mean and high (1 x Standard Deviation) of SDT leadership, indicating no real difference between the lines and being consistent with the non-statistically significant interaction in the regression analysis.

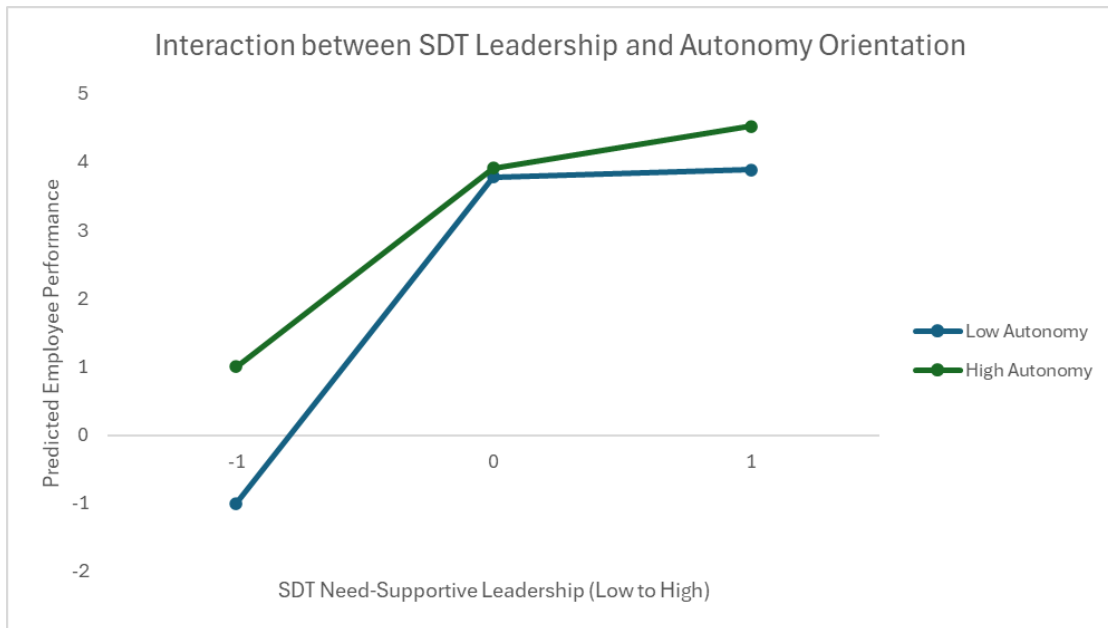


Figure 29: Interaction between Autonomy and SDT Leadership

4.6.3 Culture variables in support to hypotheses

As presented in the previous section, the interaction between power distance and authoritarian leadership was not statistically significant, hence hypothesis 8 (The

negative effect of authoritarian leadership on employee performance is stronger in the United Kingdom than in Greece) was not supported.

In terms of power distance and transformational leadership, again it did not achieve statistical significance. However, the interaction was positive, which partially support hypothesis 7, although this interpretation should be treated cautiously.

Finally, the interaction between autonomy and SDT leadership was again positive but not statistically significant. Again, this provided partial support to hypothesis 9, but this interpretation should be treated cautiously as it lacks sufficient statistical strength.

4.7 Hypothesis Evaluation Summary

Overall, the hypothesis results showed a clear difference between simple correlations and regression results, as well as between individual cultural effects and differences between Greece and the United Kingdom.

In the correlation analysis, all supportive leadership styles—transactional, transformational, and SDT need-supportive leadership— showed positive relationships with employee performance, while authoritarian leadership showed a weak negative relationship. These findings provide initial support for several of the study’s hypotheses.

At the regression level, the pattern changed. SDT-based leadership was the only consistent predictor of employee performance in the overall sample and in Greece, while transactional leadership was the only statistically significant predictor in the United Kingdom subsample. This suggest that leadership effects vary depending on context and environment they are applied, supporting the comparative aim of the study.

Moderation analyses provided limited support for culture as a moderator. Interaction terms involving power distance and autonomy orientation did not reach statistical significance, although some effects were directionally consistent with expectations, providing partial support to hypotheses. This suggested that cultural orientation showed a weak influence on leadership–performance relationships. providing partial support to hypotheses. This suggested that cultural orientation showed a weak influence on leadership–performance relationships.

Summary of hypotheses verdict is shown in

4.7.1

Table 19.

Table 19: Summary of Hypotheses verdict

Hypothesis	Prediction	Key Evidence	Verdict
H1	Managerial leadership style has a significant impact on employee performance	Regression: Overall model significant (p < .001)	Supported
H2	Leadership–performance relationships differ between Greece and the UK	Regression: Different unique predictors (GR: SDT; UK: Transactional)	Supported (descriptively)
H3	Transformational leadership positively relates to performance	Correlation: Positive; Regression: not significant	Partially supported
H4	Transactional leadership positively relates to performance but is weaker than transformational	Correlation: Positive; Regression: only significant in UK	Partially supported
H5	Authoritarian leadership negatively relates to performance	Correlation: weak negative; Regression: not significant	Not supported
H6	SDT leadership positively relates to performance	Correlation: strongest positive; Regression: significant overall & GR	Supported
H7	Transformational effect stronger in UK than Greece	Regression: not significant in either sample	Not supported
H8	Authoritarian negative effect stronger in UK than Greece	Moderation: PD × Authoritarian not significant	Not supported
H9	SDT effect stronger in UK vs Greece	Regression: stronger in Greece; interaction weak	Not supported
H10	Transactional leadership more effective in Greece	Regression: transactional only significant in UK	Not supported

4.8 Qualitative Insights from Open-Ended Responses

To complement the quantitative findings, responses to open-ended survey questions were analysed using word frequency visualisation to identify recurring themes in how employees perceive leadership behaviours and their impact on performance.

4.8.1 *What leadership behaviours most help you perform well in your role?*

The most frequently occurring word among the 23 respondents was “trust” as shown in Figure 30. In addition, most of the words appeared were around trust, support, clear vision and feedback. These responses indicate that employees are looking for trust-based relationships, open communication and psychological safety that compliments SDT based leadership style.



Figure 30: Response to open-ended question 1

4.8.2 *How does your manager's leadership style affect your motivation and performance?*

The most frequently occurring word among the 11 respondents was “good” as shown in Figure 31. In addition, most of the words appeared were around motivation, perform better, guidance and support. These responses indicate that employees are interpreting leadership style as motivation to offer above and beyond the minimum requirements. Motivation was not investigated further in this study.

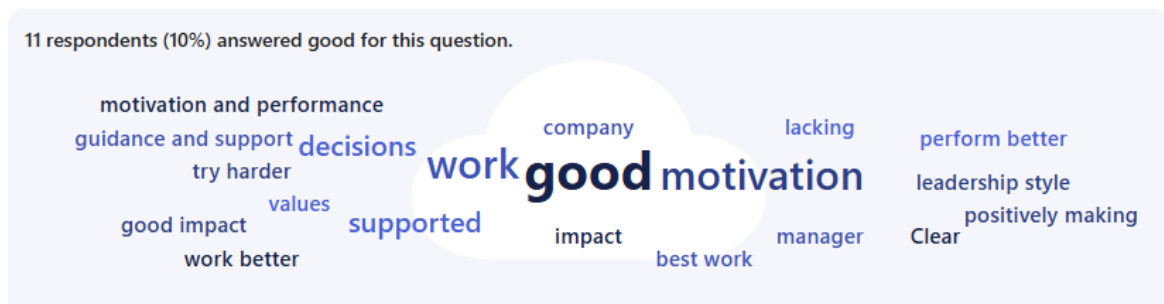


Figure 31: Response to open-ended question 2

4.8.3 *What leadership behaviours make it harder for you to perform effectively?*

The most frequently occurring word among the 21 respondents was “micromanagement” as shown in Figure 32. In addition, most of the words appeared were around lack of clarity, lack of acknowledgement and poor communication. These responses indicate that controlling behaviours are related with lower performance. In addition, employees

understand micromanagement as lack of respect, lack of trust that negatively affects the performance. This pattern is in line with the previous analysis shown in this study.

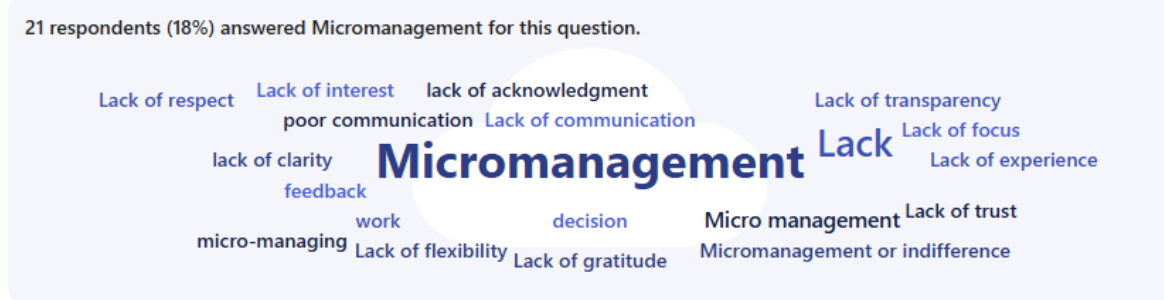


Figure 32: Response to open-ended question 3

4.8.4 *How does your manager support your motivation and engagement at work?*

The most frequently occurring word among the 7 respondents was “regular” as shown in Figure 33. In addition, most of the words appeared were around regular interaction. These responses indicate that ongoing communication is helping employee performance. These results compliment the transactional, transformation and SDT leadership quantitative analysis results.



Figure 33: Response to open-ended question 4

4.8.5 *What changes in leadership approach would improve your performance and well-being?*

The most frequently occurring word among the 12 respondents was “clear” as shown in Figure 34. In addition, most of the words appeared were around better communication. These responses indicate that employees value clarity and actions that reduce ambiguity. These results compliment the transactional, transformation and SDT leadership quantitative analysis results.



Figure 34: Response to open-ended question 4

4.8.6 *Share an example of a situation where your manager's leadership positively influenced your performance.*

The most frequently occurring word among the 14 respondents was “work” as shown in Figure 35. In addition, most of the words appeared were around support, help, team and feedback. These responses indicate that employees value managerial support. These results compliment the transactional, transformation and SDT leadership quantitative analysis results.

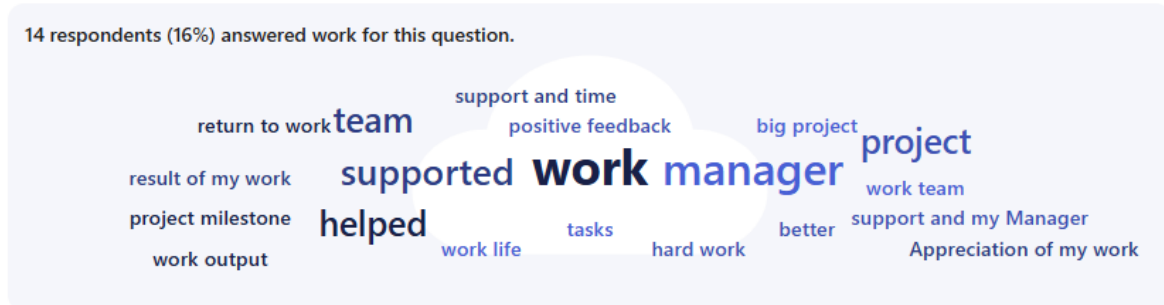


Figure 35: Response to open-ended question 5

4.9 Chapter Summary

In this chapter all the findings of the study were presented and evaluated the hypotheses using a combination of descriptive statistics, correlation analysis, and multiple regression models.

At a descriptive level, employees reported that their performance is higher when SDT need-supportive and transformational leadership are applied, while authoritarian leadership was rated lower. Self-reported performance was consistently high across the whole sample. The correlation analysis showed that supportive leadership styles were positively related to performance, with stronger relationships usually observed in the Greek subgroup.

When leadership styles were tested simultaneously in the regression models, the results changed. SDT-based leadership was the only leadership that consistently predicted performance in the overall sample and in Greece, while transactional leadership was the only statistically significant predictor in the United Kingdom subsample.

The results of all hypotheses were summarised with findings showing that while leadership is clearly related to employee performance, only certain leadership behaviours maintain their influence when overlap between styles is considered. The interpretation of these patterns and how related leadership styles and cross-cultural differences, are explored in Chapter 5.

5 Discussion

In this chapter the findings presented in Chapter 4 are discussed in relation to this study's research objectives and the theoretical foundations outlined in Chapter 2. The central aim of the study was to explore how different managerial leadership styles relate to employee performance, and whether these relationships vary between Greece and the United Kingdom.

Overall, three key findings were identified:

- SDT need-supportive leadership was the predictor of employee performance, both in the overall sample and in the Greek subsample
- Transactional leadership was the only predictor of employee performance for the United Kingdom subsample
- The relationship between leadership and performance was stronger in Greece than in the United Kingdom

5.1 *Authoritarian Leadership*

In general, the authoritarian leadership style showed weak and inconsistent relationships with employee performance across the various analyses. At the correlation level, it was slightly negatively related to performance, especially in the Greek subsample. In the United Kingdom, it was the negative value was so marginal that essentially unrelated to performance. This provided partial descriptive support for Hypothesis 5 (Authoritarian leadership is negatively associated with employee performance in both Greece and the United Kingdom), which predicted a negative relationship, although the magnitude of this association was almost negligible. On the other hand, Hypothesis 8 (The negative effect of authoritarian leadership on employee performance is stronger in the United Kingdom than in Greece) was not supported at all.

In regression models, authoritarian leadership was not statistically significant on performance in any of the samples. Although the coefficient was slightly positive in the overall and country subgroups, these effects were weak and not significant When the other three leadership styles were considered. As a result, Hypothesis 5 (Authoritarian leadership is negatively associated with employee performance in both Greece and the United Kingdom) was not supported at the multivariate level, indicating that authoritarian leadership did not explain unique variation in employee performance.

Based on these findings, the authoritarian leadership has limited to negligible value for enhancing performance in the examined scenarios. Even in Greece, in which descriptive cultural results indicated a higher acceptance of hierarchy, this did not translate into a positive relationship with performance. This is in accordance with House et al., 2004 [54] in which is noted the difference between cultural acceptance of authority and the effectiveness of controlling leadership behaviours.

Furthermore, the moderation analysis showed that the interaction between power distance and authoritarian leadership was not statistically significant. In this way, Hypothesis 8 (The negative effect of authoritarian leadership on employee performance is stronger in the United Kingdom than in Greece), which predicted that the negative effect of authoritarian leadership would be stronger in the UK, was not supported. Hence, this indicated that individual-level cultural differences in power distance cannot affect the relationship between authoritarian leadership and performance.

From a theoretical perspective, these findings are consistent with research suggesting that highly directive and controlling leadership can minimise employee voice and reduce initiative (Bryman, 2016 [71]; Yukl, 2013 [5]). As a result, leadership styles that focus on control than autonomy may be less effective in modern environments that employee engagement and adaptability are critical to performance.

Overall, this reinforces the broader view that leadership effectiveness is not only dependant to the structural authority, but on how employees interpret leadership behaviours in their day-to-day work (Van den Broeck et al., 2021 [12]; Deci & Ryan, 2000 [63]).

5.2 Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership demonstrated a moderate positive relationship with employee performance at the correlational level, which remained consistent across both Greece and the United Kingdom. This provided support for Hypothesis 4 (Transactional leadership is positively associated with employee performance, but its effect is weaker than transformational leadership in both countries) when the relationship was between two variables at a time. This suggests that behaviours such as setting clear expectations, monitoring performance, and linking results to rewards lead to higher self-reported performance. These findings are in alignment with previous leadership research, which showed that transactional leadership can be effective in maintaining performance standards and ensuring role clarity (Bass & Riggio, 2006 [4]; Judge & Piccolo, 2004 [7]).

However, the above pattern was not followed when leadership styles were examined simultaneously in the regression models. Transactional leadership did not demonstrate a significant unique effect in the overall sample or in Greece subsample, indicating that its influence at the correlational level overlaps with other leadership behaviours. In contrast, transactional leadership was the only statistically significant predictor of performance in the United Kingdom subsample, providing partial support for Hypothesis 6 (Self-Determination Theory (SDT) need-supportive leadership is positively associated with employee performance and well-being in both countries). Hence, for the United Kingdom subsample, transactional behaviours contributed uniquely to explaining differences in employee performance.

A possible explanation of this analysis outcome is that transactional leadership may be particularly effective in environments where performance systems are structured and employee's outcomes are clearly defined. Under this situation, employees may benefit from leaders who provide explicit goals, measurable and achievable expectations, and consistent feedback. This interpretation is in line with research suggesting that contingent reward and performance monitoring can be effective under conditions of goal clarity and formal accountability (Judge & Piccolo, 2004 [7]; Yukl, 2013 [5]).

In the Greek subsample, transactional leadership was not a statistically significant predictor when tested simultaneously with other leadership styles. The contrast between Greece and the United Kingdom therefore provides partial support for Hypothesis 10 (Transactional leadership is more effective in Greece than in the United Kingdom due to cultural preferences for structure and hierarchy), as there is a difference between Greece and United Kingdom subsamples, without though a clear result on its effectivity.

An important point to consider, is the low reliability for the transactional leadership dataset ($\alpha \approx 0.58$). This suggests that there may be some measurement error that can make it hard to detect statistically significant relationships (Cohen et al., 2003 [88]). However, transactional leadership was the still the only statistically significant predictor in the United Kingdom regression model, suggesting that it likely is a real and meaningful performance measurement, despite these limitations. In any case, this finding should be treated cautiously and may be useful for future research to examine transactional leadership in more detail,

such as separating contingent reward and management behaviours, to better isolate and understand their effects.

Overall, the findings indicated that transactional leadership is reliably associated with performance at a general level. In this study, its unique contribution was only observed in the United Kingdom subsample, supporting the broader conclusion that leadership does not work the same in every environment. In places that are expectations are clear and structured, performance-focused leadership behaviours may become more obvious.

5.3 *Transformational Leadership*

Transformational leadership showed a positive relationship with employee performance at the correlational level, particularly in the Greek subsample, where the correlation was relatively strong. This provides support for Hypothesis 3 (Transformational leadership is positively associated with employee performance in both Greece and the United Kingdom) at the correlational level and is consistent with previous research showing that transformational leadership style—in example communicating a clear vision, inspiring employees, and providing employee tailored support—can increase performance (Bass & Riggio, 2006 [4]; Judge & Piccolo [7], 2004).

However, the above pattern did not hold when multiple leadership styles were examined simultaneously in the regression models. Transformational leadership was not statistically significant neither in the overall sample nor the country-specific models. As such, Hypothesis 3 (Transformational leadership is positively associated with employee performance in both Greece and the United Kingdom) was not supported at the multivariate level. Similarly, Hypothesis 7 (The positive effect of transformational leadership on employee performance is stronger in the United Kingdom than in Greece) was not supported, as the assumed stronger effect in the United Kingdom was not observed. This result indicates that some of the performance benefits related to the transformational leadership overlap with other leadership behaviours, hence their input cannot be assessed individually.

In other words, and as shown in past research (Bryman, 2016 [71]; Van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013 [15]), transformational leadership appears to function as an “umbrella” of positive leadership behaviours, rather than as a distinct driver of performance on its own without clearly isolating the mechanisms through which performance is influenced.

The comparison of the subgroups in Greece and the United Kingdom further supported this interpretation. At the correlation level, transformational leadership was more strongly related to performance in Greece than in the United Kingdom, suggesting that inspirational and tailored support behaviours may fit better in certain environments. However, this effect was not identified in the regression model, when other leadership styles were simultaneously considered. Hence, this reinforces the idea and the criticism that transformational leadership may overlap conceptually with other supportive leadership behaviours rather than operate independently (Bryman, 2016 [71]; Van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013 [15]).

These findings were also reflected in the open-ended responses, where most employees mentioned themes such as support, feedback, trust, and teamwork. Only a few responses explicitly mentioned “inspiration” or “vision”. Hence, this suggest that employees mainly reported items that are indirectly related to transformational leadership, rather than its core characteristics. As a result, the responses focused on practical support and communication

in day-to-day work, rather than broader inspirational aspects. This observation also supports existing critiques of transformational leadership (Bryman, 2016 [71]; Van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013 [15]).

Overall, the findings show that transformational leadership plays an important role in shaping general perceptions of leadership effectiveness, but its unique contribution to performance was difficult to understand and interpret in this study. The evidence used by researchers to criticise transformation leadership style have been seen in this study.

5.4 *SDT-Based Leadership*

This dissertation did not model motivation or well-being as mediators for SDT-based leadership, so the results should not be interpreted explaining how SDT leadership improves performance. Data demonstrated maybe the strongest message among the other leadership styles in explaining employee performance. Both in correlation analysis and regression models, SDT showed strong results, particularly in the overall sample and in Greece subsample. Specifically, SDT leadership was a statistically significant predictor in the overall regression model and remained significant in the Greek sub model, supporting Hypothesis 6 (SDT leadership is positively related to performance). In SDT terms, leaders have the power to shape performance through the everyday working conditions they create for employees' autonomy, competence (informational feedback and guidance), and relatedness (respectful, trustworthy interaction) (Deci & Ryan, 2000 [63]; Gagné & Deci, 2005 [78]). In contrast, SDT leadership was positive but not statistically significant in the United Kingdom regression sub model, which means Hypothesis 9 (SDT stronger in the UK than Greece) is not supported by the performed analysis.

This interpretation was reinforced—not challenged—by the open-ended responses. Across these responses, employees repeatedly mentioned trust, support, clear communication, feedback, and autonomy, while micro-management and lack of clarity were seen as barriers to positive performance. These responses align with SDT-based leadership: trust and respectful interaction relate to relatedness, personal freedom to autonomy, and feedback to competence (Deci & Ryan, 2000 [63]; Van den Broeck et al., 2021 [12]). This is important because the performance in this study is not limited to routine task completion; it includes contextual and adaptive behaviours (Koopmans et al., 2014 [19]). SDT-based leadership fits well with these broader aspects of performance, as it supports initiative, learning, and sustained effort over time (Gagné & Deci, 2005 [78]; Van den Broeck et al., 2021 [12]).

Overall, the findings show that transformational leadership plays an important role in shaping general perceptions of leadership effectiveness. SDT-based leadership appears to be the most consistent unique predictor overall (supporting Hypothesis 6), but the UK results show that transactional structure can become uniquely important in certain contexts. This pattern reinforces the broader cross-cultural leadership argument that there is unlikely to be a single universally “best” style, and that what matters most depends on context (House et al., 2004 [54])

5.5 *Understanding the Difference Between Correlation and Regression Results*

A key aspect of interpreting the findings in this study is understanding the difference between bivariate correlations and multivariate regression results. At first glance, several

leadership styles appear positively related to employee performance. However, when these styles were tested simultaneously in a regression model, only a smaller subset remained statistically significant. This is not a contradiction but rather reflects the way different leadership behaviours overlap in practice.

A helpful way to understand this is to distinguish between the two analysis methods. Correlations capture simple relationships between two variables (leadership style compared to performance), meaning each leadership style is examined in isolation. At this stage, multiple leadership styles, such as transformational, transactional, and SDT-based leadership, show similar relationships with performance because they often overlap. For example, a manager who inspires employees (transformational) may also support (transformational and SDT) them, involve them in decisions (SDT), and provide constructive and helpful feedback (transformational and SDT). As a result, employees may rate different leadership styles in a similar way, leading to similar correlation results.

At the same time, overlap can also be due to the way these leadership styles are measured in the questionnaire. Although the questions were targeted to capture different styles, the examined items involve related behaviours, such as providing support or giving constructive feedback. Hence, respondents may give similar ratings across multiple leadership styles, affecting the final measurements. Therefore, it is reasonable to mention that the overlap observed at the correlation analysis does not only reflect the real similarities between leadership behaviours, but also the fact that the questionnaire captured items that are related among leadership styles.

Regression analysis, however, examines all leadership styles simultaneously. In doing so, it effectively forces them to “compete” with one another, allowing the analysis to identify which behaviours explain performance after shared variance is removed (Cohen et al., 2003 [88]). In this way, only the behaviours of each leadership style retain statistical significance in regression. As a result, correlations capture the general “good leadership” package, whereas regression highlights the behaviours that remain most unique when directly compared with others.

In this study, this difference is clearly reflected in the results. While multiple leadership styles had a positive relationship with performance in correlation analysis, only two remained statistically significant in regression analysis. SDT-based leadership was the only statistically significant predictor in the overall and Greek models, while transactional leadership was the only significant predictor in the United Kingdom model.

This indicates that the behaviours mostly related to performance vary depending on the context, supporting Hypothesis 2 (The relationship between leadership style and employee performance differs significantly between Greece and the United Kingdom) and highlighting the importance of considering leadership within its broader organisational and national setting (House et al., 2004 [54]).

5.6 *Cultural Orientation: Descriptive Patterns and Moderation Effects*

The cultural orientation was investigated in this study both descriptively and as a potential moderator of leadership–performance relationships. As presented in Chapter 4, the differences between Greece and United Kingdom subsamples were modest. Greek respondents reported slightly higher hierarchy-related items, whereas United Kingdom respondents reported higher levels of personal freedom at work. This followed the pattern

that there are differences between the different working environments, while also highlighting that differences are small rather than extreme.

When tested through interaction models, it was not possible to extract a safe conclusion. None of the interaction terms (Power Distance $\times$ Authoritarian, Power Distance $\times$ Transformational, or Autonomy $\times$ SDT leadership) were statistically significant, although some effects were directionally consistent with expectations. This is an indication that while cultural values matter descriptively, this was not mirrored in the regression analysis.

This apparent contrast between descriptive differences and weak statistical moderation is important for interpretation. It suggests that although there are cultural differences between Greece and the United Kingdom, this not mirrored at individual level. As a result, the overall environment people work in is that shapes how leadership style affects performance rather than their personal values (House et al., 2004 [54]).

The qualitative results from the open-ended questions also support this interpretation. Employees mainly mentioned trust, communication, support, and autonomy as key factors for increased performance, while micro-management and lack of clarity were seen as barriers. These responses were consistent across both countries, even though it is known that there are cultural differences between them.

To sum up, these findings indicate that cultural orientation is best understood in this study as a contextual lens, supporting Hypothesis 2 (The relationship between leadership style and employee performance differs significantly between Greece and the United Kingdom) rather than a direct explanatory mechanism to explain performance with leadership style.

5.7 *Cross-National Differences: Greece and the United Kingdom*

The purpose of this study is about the cross-national comparison between Greece and the United Kingdom. Results show that leadership–performance relationships differ meaningfully between Greece and the United Kingdom. Overall, leadership effects were stronger in Greece than in the UK, as reflected in (a) higher bivariate correlations for SDT-based and transformational leadership and (b) greater explained variance in the Greek regression model ($R^2 = 0.276$) compared to the UK model ($R^2 = 0.162$). These results indicated that leadership behaviours account for a larger share of performance variation in the Greek context.

The country-specific correlation results help to explain this difference. In Greece, the relationship between leadership and performance was stronger for SDT-based leadership ($r = 0.497$) and transformational leadership ($r = 0.454$) compared to the United Kingdom ($r = 0.226$ and $r = 0.171$, respectively). In contrast, transactional leadership showed similar relationships in both countries (Greece $r = 0.329$; UK $r = 0.343$). This suggested that the difference between Greece and the United Kingdom is not about whether transactional leadership can work or not- it works in both cases. Instead, the difference is based on how much the performance depends on supportive and inspirational leadership behaviours; as these types of leadership are more important in Greece than in the United Kingdom.

In addition, the regression results reinforced this difference. In Greece, SDT-based leadership was the statistically significant of performance, whereas in the United Kingdom, transactional leadership was the only statistically significant leadership style. This pattern provides clear support for Hypothesis 2, confirming that leadership–performance

relationships differ by national context. Hence, the differences in leadership styles become important regarding to the situation; as there is no universally applied style that can be applied efficiently and effectively everywhere.

The cultural orientation profiles also offered useful descriptive results. Greece showed higher levels of hierarchy-related items, while the UK showed higher endorsement of personal freedom at work. Importantly, when considered together with the moderation results from Section 5.6, these findings suggest that cultural differences influence leadership effectiveness indirectly through the work environment, rather than directly through individual attitudes.

In the Greek context, hierarchical authority appeared to be more accepted, hence leadership behaviours that introduce autonomy, invite employee input, and provide supportive feedback may be experienced more distinctive. As a result, need-supportive behaviours are likely to stand out more clearly because of the employees' day-to-day experience. This helps explain why SDT-based leadership shows stronger relationships with performance in Greece.

In the UK, by contrast, higher reported levels of personal freedom suggest that autonomy is likely to be already applied as a baseline feature in the work environment. In this context, autonomy-supportive leadership are likely to not stand out as much or explain differences in performance. Instead, differences in performance may depend more on how clearly leaders set goals, provide feedback, and link outcomes to rewards. This helps to explain why transactional leadership was the only predictor in the UK regression model.

These findings support cross-cultural leadership theory and past research, which emphasised that leadership should not be viewed as universal as it does not work the same way everywhere (House et al., 2004 [54]; Van den Broeck et al., 2021 [12]). Rather than being one "best" leadership style, the results of this study showed that different leadership behaviours depend on the institutional and cultural environment in which they are applied.

However, the results of this study suggest a more specific outcome. Rather than leadership simply depending on cultural or institutional context, leadership appeared to have a stronger influence when it provides behaviours that are less present in the existing work environment. Hence, employees respond more positively to leadership behaviours that improve their day-to-day work experience, rather than to behaviours that are already available in the workplace.

For example, in Greece, where autonomy and participation may be less available in workplace, SDT-based leadership stands out and improve further the performance. As a result, employees seem to value more these behaviours as it's outside the normal workplace environment. On the other hand, in the United Kingdom, where autonomy is common in workplace, transactional behaviours that provide clarity on expectations, constructive feedback appear to be valued more in explaining the differences in performance.

Overall, the cross-national comparison reinforces a central conclusion of the study: while leadership is clearly related to employee performance there are two parts that should be taken under consideration. Firstly, on which behaviours matter most—and how strongly they matter—varies with the applied institutional and cultural environment. Secondly, the effectiveness of leadership behaviours is also dependent on how those behaviours complement or extend employees' experience in their workplace.

6 Conclusions

6.1 *Conclusions*

This dissertation examined how different leadership styles (authoritarian, transactional, transformational and SDT-based) relate to employee performance, and the role of cross-national context. By combining a theory-driven approach with a comparison between Greece and the United Kingdom, this study's main outcome that leadership should be both more accurate, clear and depended on the environmental context that is applied.

The findings show that leadership matters, but it does not work in the same way everywhere. When leadership styles were examined together (regression analysis), SDT-based leadership was the most consistent predictor of performance in the overall sample and in Greece. In contrast, transactional leadership was the only leadership style that was statistically significant in the United Kingdom model. This highlights a key insight: the leadership behaviours most strongly linked to performance are context-dependent rather than universal.

These differences are not just due to the different country, but is highly related and depended to the work environment that employees expect from leadership. In Greece, where hierarchy is more applied, leadership actions that offer support and freedom stand out more and have a higher impact on performance. In the United Kingdom, where autonomy is already normality, performance is more affected by leadership behaviours that provide clarity in requirements and direction.

The comparison between Greece and the UK reinforces this conclusion. Leadership-performance relationships were generally stronger in Greece, as the model explained more variance ($R^2 = 0.276$) than in the United Kingdom ($R^2 = 0.162$). This means that leadership in Greece has a stronger effect on performance. In the same way, SDT-based leadership stood out in Greece, whereas in the UK transactional leadership appeared more important. These results suggest that leadership should be understood within the context this should be applied, rather than as a fixed “best practice” that is transferrable everywhere. Therefore, the main conclusion of this study is that leadership depends on the work environment; it is more effective when it adds something new that is missing in employee's day to day work.

6.2 *Managerial Implications*

The findings of this study can offer practical and useful guidance for managers working in different environments. A key takeaway is that effective leadership is a combination of supportive behaviour within the environment that is applied.

6.2.1 *Greece*

In Greece, where SDT-based leadership was the strongest statistically predictor, managers should focus on behaviours that:

- support employee autonomy, while keeping clear boundaries
- provide constructive and clear feedback
- build trust and strong working relationships

These behaviours are especially important in environments where hierarchy is more accepted, as they help balance organisational structure with flexibility.

6.2.2 United Kingdom

In the United Kingdom, where transactional leadership emerged as the key predictor, managers should focus on:

- setting clear expectations, measured and achievable goals
- providing consistent feedback
- linking performance to recognition and rewards

It should be noted that this does not mean that autonomy support is unimportant, but rather that it may already be expected. As a result, clarity and consistency in performance management become more visible when looking for performance outcomes.

6.2.3 Organisational Leadership Development

At an organisational level, the findings suggest moving beyond simple “leadership style” training. Instead, organisations should get or develop leaders who can:

- combine supportive and motivational behaviours (SDT-based), which are linked to engagement, development, and long-term performance
- set clear expectations and rewards (transactional), which support structure and performance consistency
- avoid overly controlling behaviours (authoritarian leadership), which may reduce employee voice, motivation, and development

apply inspirational behaviours (transformational leadership) appropriately, recognising that their impact may vary depending on the work environment. In addition, leaders should be able to adjust and apply these behaviours depending on the work environment, organisational processes and cultural/national context. This research has clearly demonstrated that same leadership behaviours do not have the same effect everywhere but is more effective when it meets employees' needs. Hence, leaders should be able to be flexible and adaptive, and organisations should invest in developing leaders with these skills.

This supports a more flexible and practical approach to leadership development (Antonakis et al., 2023 [6]; Howard et al., 2017 [89]).

6.2.4 Global Leadership Management

For organisations that operate in many and different countries, these results are also important for global leadership and managers working abroad.

A key lesson from this study is that leadership works best when it fits the local work environment the branch is operating. This means that organisations should avoid using the same leadership style everywhere. Instead, leaders need to understand how work practices and employee expectations differ between countries to lead people efficiently (House et al., 2004 [54]; Tsai, 2022 [95]).

For managers working abroad, this means adapting their leadership style to the local requirements (Brewster et al., 2020 [93]; Lessle et al., 2020 [96]). For example:

- In environments with more hierarchy and structure, leaders should focus on giving clear direction, guidance, and coordination.
- In environments where employees already have more freedom, leaders should focus more on fairness, consistency, and clear performance feedback.

Organisations should also invest in preparing managers before international assignments. This preparation should not only focus on understanding culture, but also on understanding how employees work and what they expect from leadership in their daily jobs (Brewster et al., 2020 [93]; Lessle et al., 2020 [96]).

More generally, organisations should not try to teach one “best” leadership style. Instead, they should develop leaders who can:

- understand different work environments
- recognise what employees already experience
- and adjust their behaviour to provide what is most needed

6.3 *Limitations*

This study has several limitation that should be mentioned clearly. First, this study used a cross-sectional design; hence it is not possible to extract cause and effect conclusions, but only relationships between variables can be identified.

Second, the use of self-reported data introduces the possibility of common method bias (Podsakoff et al., 2003 [73]). Although steps were taken in the questionnaire design to reduce this risk, no formal statistical test (such as Harman’s single-factor test) was conducted. As seen already, performance scores were generally high, suggesting a restricted range and may have reduced the strength of observed relationships between leadership and performance. Using a convenience sample also limits how widely the results can be generalised, and the country-specific analyses are based on relatively small size. Measurement limitations should be noted, as transactional leadership showed lower reliability ($\alpha \approx 0.58$), which may have reduced the strength of the observed effects.

Finally, although the same questionnaire was used in both Greece and the United Kingdom, no formal tests were conducted to measure equivalence, hence cross-national comparisons should be treated with caution and seen as indicative rather than conclusive.

6.4 *Recommendations for Future Research*

This study provided several findings that future research could strengthen and extend. First, future studies could incorporate objective or multi-source performance measures, such as organisational performance data. In this way, limitations observed with self-reported data, such as the relative high-performance scores might be reduced.

Second, future research could examine transactional leadership sub-components (e.g., contingent reward vs monitoring) that may affect performance differently in more detail.

This could address the mixed findings in this study, in which transactional leadership was statistically significant only in the United Kingdom regression model.

Third, future studies could formally test measurement equivalence across countries to ensure that survey items are understood in the same way in different cultural contexts. This is important for cross-national comparisons, due to the different cultural background of the participants.

Furthermore, future research could include measuring motivation as context that influences performance. This is a suggestion following the strong findings on relationship of SDT-based leadership and employee performance in this study. Hence, future studies can incorporate in their research measures of intrinsic motivation, engagement, or psychological need satisfaction to investigate the linkage of any underlying mechanisms for leadership and performance.

Finally, future research could further explore how cultural context influences leadership through both individual values and organisational systems. This study has shown that contextual factors, such as work environments and organisational processes may have a stronger impact than individual employee's cultural background. Future studies could investigate this relationship more directly, for example, by using data about employees together with data about their workplace.

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Appendix A: Leadership Style & Employee Performance Survey

Leadership Style & Employee Performance Survey

MBA Thesis Survey

This anonymous survey explores how managerial leadership styles and workplace culture affect employee performance in Greece and the UK. Participation takes 15 minutes. Your input is valuable, confidential, and anonymous. All data collected will be treated with strict confidentiality and anonymity. For questions, contact: std165013@ac.eap.gr

* Required

Section A: Demographic Information

Helps to understand your background to contextualize your responses.

1. Country of employment *

- ☐ Greece
- ☐ United Kingdom

2. Age *

- ☐ Under 25
- ☐ 25–34
- ☐ 35–44
- ☐ 45–54
- ☐ 55+

3. Gender *

- ☐ Woman
- ☐ Man
- ☐ Non-binary
- ☐ Prefer not to say

4. Highest education level *

- ☐ High School Diploma
- ☐ Bachelor's Degree
- ☐ Master's Degree
- ☐ Doctorate (Ph.D.)

5. Job level *

- ☐ Junior
- ☐ Mid-Level Professional
- ☐ Manager
- ☐ Senior Management

6. Length of time with your current organization

*

- ☐ Less than 1 year
- ☐ 1–3 years
- ☐ 4–6 years
- ☐ 7–10 years
- ☐ More than 10 years

7. Length of time under your current manager

*

- ☐ Less than 6 months
- ☐ 6 months – 1 year
- ☐ 1–3 years
- ☐ 4–6 years
- ☐ More than 6 years

8. Employment type *

- ☐ Full-time
- ☐ Part-time
- ☐ Contract

9. Organization size *

- ☐ Small (1–50 employees)
- ☐ Medium (51–250 employees)
- ☐ Large (251–1,000 employees)
- ☐ Very Large (1,001+ employees)

10. Work arrangement *

- ☐ On-site
- ☐ Hybrid
- ☐ Remote

11. Average weekly working hours *

- ☐ Less than 20 hours
- ☐ 20–29 hours
- ☐ 30–39 hours
- ☐ 40–49 hours
- ☐ 50 hours or more

Section B: Leadership Style Assessment

Evaluate your manager's leadership behaviors based on your experience.

12. Rate each statement from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree) *

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
My manager communicates a clear vision for the future	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My manager expects strict compliance with rules	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My manager gives me autonomy in how I do my work	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My manager rewards employees for meeting goals	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My manager encourages me to challenge old ways of doing things	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My manager discourages questioning authority	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My manager provides constructive feedback to improve my skills	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

My manager monitors performance closely	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My manager rarely explains the reasons behind decisions	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My manager treats employees as individuals with unique needs	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My manager uses rewards as the main way to motivate employees	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My manager shows genuine care for my well-being	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My manager discourages employee input in decision-making	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
My manager provides clear expectations and performance standards	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My manager inspires me to see the bigger picture of my work	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My manager allows flexibility in how I complete tasks	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My manager intervenes only when problems occur	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My manager makes decisions without consulting employees	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My manager supports my professional development goals	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
My manager encourages creative thinking	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Section C: Employee Performance

Reflect on your own motivation, engagement, and performance at work.

13. Rate each statement from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree) *

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
I complete tasks efficiently and on time	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I produce high-quality work	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I actively seek ways to improve my work performance	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I feel motivated to go beyond my job requirements	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I contribute to team success	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I adapt well to changes in my work environment	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I feel confident in my ability to meet job challenges	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Section D: Workplace Culture

Reflect on the cultural context best describes your work environment

14. Rate each statement from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree) *

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
I prefer clear hierarchical structures at work	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I believe managers should have the final say in decisions	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I am comfortable challenging my manager's decisions	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I value individual achievement over group harmony	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I prefer working in teams rather than individually	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I value personal freedom in my work tasks	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Section D: Single-Word Response Prompts

Use one or two words to describe key aspects of your work experience.

15. What leadership behaviors most help you perform well in your role?

16. How does your manager's leadership style affect your motivation and performance?

17. What leadership behaviors make it harder for you to perform effectively?

18. How does your manager support your motivation and engagement at work?

19. What changes in leadership approach would improve your performance and well-being?

20. Share an example of a situation where your manager's leadership positively influenced your performance.

Appendix B: Analysis spreadsheet



Leadership Style &
Employee Performar

Author's Statement:

I hereby expressly declare that, according to the article 8 of Law 1559/1986, this dissertation is solely the product of my personal work, does not infringe any intellectual property, personality and personal data rights of third parties, does not contain works/contributions from third parties for which the permission of the authors/beneficiaries is required, is not the product of partial or total plagiarism, and that the sources used are limited to the literature references alone and meet the rules of scientific citations.