

## Gender role and personality as predictors of peer and self leadership evaluations

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### Abstract

This paper investigated the relationship among gender role, personality and peer and self evaluations of leadership behavior. Participants formed teams to complete a leaderless group activity and then completed personality, gender role, and leadership questionnaires. Results indicated that low femininity and high extraversion scores were predictive of leadership behaviors. However, high femininity had little relation to self-rated leadership regardless of extraversion. Results also suggest that high levels of masculinity and conscientiousness were predictive of high peer evaluations of leadership ability. A weak correlation was found between self and peer evaluations of leadership which along with the other results suggests that individuals that rate themselves as good leaders are not necessarily perceived as good leaders by others. Implications and directions for future research are discussed.

**Keywords:** *Leadership, Gender Roles, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Personality*

One of the biggest challenges facing organizations today is identifying tomorrow's leaders. The baby boomer generation, which currently fills senior leader positions in most organizations, are beginning to retire (Tierney, 2006). This leaves companies with the need to identify and develop leaders to replace those leaving the organization. To further complicate this issue, highly skilled and experienced leaders at all levels are becoming harder to find (Tierney, 2006). To fill these positions with the best candidates, companies need to know what makes a good leader. Additionally, the ever-shifting economic situation demands leaders who can grow the business and take on an entrepreneurial perspective (Bernthal & Wellins, 2005).

Researchers have discussed the usefulness of viewing leadership as a dynamic social process and examining why certain individuals exhibit leadership behaviors and emerge as leaders in an interactive situation in which formal leadership roles are not specified (Kickul & Neuman, 2000). Understanding what causes individuals to step up and take on a leadership role is critical in determining the future success of organizations. Previous research, however, has not fully explained this process.

A series of recent meta-analyses suggest that gender differences do exist, to varying degrees, in leadership

emergence, effectiveness, evaluation, and style, most notably when the leadership position is defined to be clearly masculine (Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Eagly & Karau, 1991; Eagly, Karau, & Makhijani, 1995; Eagly, Makhijani, & Klonsky, 1992). Females are preferred less by decision makers for male sex-typed positions (Davison & Burke, 2000). Other research suggests that personality factors may be predictive of leadership behaviors (Waldman, Atwater, & Davidson, 2004). Accordingly, this study examined the relationship between evaluations of leader behavior and both gender role (masculinity and femininity) and personality characteristics.

### *Leadership Behavior*

Emergent leaders have been characterized as individuals without formal authority who establish conditions that will promote movement towards the accomplishment of goals and objectives, increase members' freedom and acceptance, and assist in developing a cohesive team (Bass, 1990). Emergent leaders function in organizations as individuals who assume leadership responsibility when formal supervisor-subordinate relationships have not been established (Bass, 1990; Guzzo & Salas, 1995). Leadership in situations without formal power hierarchies has received considerably less research attention than situations involving "legitimate" authority (i.e., elected or appointed leaders; Kickul & Neuman, 2000). It has been suggested that the search to discover the keys to the exhibition of leadership behavior should focus on identifying the specific factors that distinguish leaders from followers (Lord, Devader, Allinger, 1986). Bass (1981) suggested that the leaders in groups talk more than others, participate more actively, and make more attempts to influence the group. Because masculine views of leadership and leadership roles are widely held, a bias emerges against females because they are seen as a poor fit for management positions (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Lord & Maher, 1991; Powell, Butterfield, & Parent, 2002). Additionally, personality variables may have an important role to play in developing theories of leadership behavior, including such areas as career intentions (Crant, 1996; Zhao, Seibert, & Hills, 2005). Some reviews (e.g., Eagly & Karau, 1991; Kenny & Zaccaro, 1983; Lord et al.,

1986;) have emphasized the theoretical and methodological ramifications for considering the role that gender-typed behavior and personality traits have on the tendency of a leader to emerge in team settings.

### *Gender Role*

The influence of group gender composition on the behavior of group members has been of interest for a number of years (Karakowsky & Siegel, 1999). Past research has shown that men tend to emerge as leaders in groups more often than women, and masculine characteristics have been linked to the exhibition of leadership behaviors (Eagly & Karau, 1991; Karakowsky & Siegel, 1999; Kent & Moss, 1994). This result, however, is not universal. Wentworth and Anderson (1984) and Eagly (1987) found that men emerged as leaders more often when the group's task was masculine-oriented or consisted of instrumental behaviors, whereas women emerged as leaders more often when the group task was feminine oriented or consisted of expressive behaviors. Kent and Moss (1994) found that androgynous individuals have the same chances of emerging as leaders as masculine individuals. The importance of studying leader behavior in small groups lies in the evidence such research can provide about whether men gain leadership roles due, in part, to their engaging in certain types of behaviors more than women and performing such behaviors differently (Eagly & Karau, 1991).

Pfeffer and Salancik (1975) state that role theory assumes that sex differences in social behavior are in part caused by the tendency of people to behave consistently with their gender roles. Accordingly, men should engage in proportionally more task activity and women in proportionally more social activity. Eagly and Karau (1991) argue that men emerge as leaders in research when starting in a leaderless group. This is especially the case when leadership is defined primarily in terms of contributions to assigned tasks. Also, men tend to score higher than women on measures of general leadership. In contrast, women score higher than men on measures of social leadership because they place more emphasis on group morale and positive interpersonal relations.

Because masculine views of leadership and leadership roles are widely held, females are often viewed as a poor fit for certain management positions (Scott & Brown, 2006). Accordingly, because of traditional gender stereotypes, it appears that the possession of feminine characteristics may be detrimental to leader identification, while the possession of masculine characteristics is beneficial (Fagenson, 1990). However, with the mass entrance of women in the workforce, the increasing number of female managers (Powell, Posner, & Schmidt, 1984), and societal shifts in gender role perceptions (Helmreich, Spence, & Gibson, 1982), there is no such thing as a clear, unambiguous role of gender in the workplace. The concepts of masculinity and femininity are

not necessarily precise correlates of biological sex (Bem, 1974). Thus, males and females may possess either masculine or feminine characteristics, or both. Given the changes in the societal perceptions of the role of women and the advancement of some women into leadership positions, it is possible that women today possess more masculine characteristics than they have at any time in the past (Kent & Moss, 1994; Watson & Hoffman, 2004).

*Hypothesis 1a: Masculinity will be positively related to self-reported leadership.*

*Hypothesis 1b: Masculinity will be positively related to peer-reported leadership.*

### *Personality/Five-Factor Model*

The relationship between personality traits and leadership is not completely understood. Recent studies, however, are expanding our existing knowledge of this relationship (see Judge, Bono, Iles, & Gerhardt, 2002). In the early days of personality and leadership research, there was no taxonomic structure of personality to aid theory development and testing (De Hoogh, Den Hartog, & Koopman, 2005). As a result, numerous different personality traits were investigated, making integration of results difficult. Over the past 20 years, many researchers have converged on the Five Factor Model as a common taxonomic structure for personality (Waldman et al., 2004). Today, the Five Factor Model provides a unified, comprehensive theoretical framework for comparing and accumulating empirical findings (De Hoogh, Den Hartog, & Koopman, 2005). The Five Factors are most commonly labeled extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness to experience. It is beyond the scope of this paper to describe all five factors in detail. The two facets that are of most interest for this paper are extraversion and conscientiousness and these will be discussed below in relation to leadership and work behavior.

Extraversion describes the extent to which people are assertive, dominant, energetic, active, talkative, and enthusiastic (Costa & McCrae, 1992). People who score high on extraversion tend to be cheerful, like people and large groups, and seek excitement and stimulation. People who score low on extraversion prefer to spend more time alone and are characterized as reserved, quiet, and independent (Zhao & Seibert, 2006). Extraversion is strongly related to social leadership and leader emergence in groups (Judge & Bono, 2000).

Conscientiousness indicates an individual's degree of organization, persistence, hard work, and motivation in the pursuit of goal accomplishment. Some have viewed this construct as an indicator of an individual's volition or the ability to work hard (Barrick & Mount, 1991). Two major facets, achievement and dependability, indicate conscientiousness. Conscientiousness is the trait from the five-factor model that best correlates with job performance (Judge & Bono, 2000).

According to Howard and Howard (2001), although it is possible to succeed as a leader with a different profile, the natural leader defined in Big Five terms is resilient (negative emotionality/neuroticism), energetic, outgoing, and persuasive (positive extraversion), visionary (positive openness to experience), competitive (negative agreeableness), and dedicated to the goal (positive conscientiousness).

As mentioned earlier, the relationship between facets of personality and leadership behavior is increasingly becoming a focus of empirical research. Gender role needs to be integrated into this literature. As the preceding section discussed leader behaviors have traditionally been viewed as masculine. However, this is not always the case. This suggests that some other factor influences the actual exhibition of leadership skills and behavior and casts doubt on a direct relationship between gender role and leadership. Accordingly, it is proposed here that the relationship between gender role behaviors and evaluations of leadership is influenced by personality characteristics – specifically extraversion and conscientiousness. Personality provides a mechanism for explaining the method by which gender types behaviors are carried out.

Gough (1990) found that extraversion and dominance (i.e. masculinity) were related to self and peer ratings of leadership. Additionally, conscientious people, being more task oriented, are more likely to become leaders (Judge et al., 2002). Accordingly, it appears that extraversion and conscientiousness are the personality traits most likely to have a relationship with gender role and emergent leadership. As a step in the integration of gender perceptions and personality, it is specifically hypothesized here that extraversion and conscientiousness moderate the relationship between gender role and emergent leadership.

*Hypothesis 2a: The level of extraversion moderates the relationship between gender role and self-reported leadership, such that the relationship will be stronger for those higher in extraversion.*

*Hypothesis 2b: The level of extraversion moderates the relationship between gender role and peer-reported leadership, such that the relationship will be stronger for those higher in extraversion.*

*Hypothesis 3a: The level of conscientiousness moderates the relationship between gender role and self-reported leadership, such that the relationship will be stronger for those higher in conscientiousness.*

*Hypothesis 3b: The level of conscientiousness moderates the relationship between gender role and peer-reported leadership, such that the relationship will be stronger for those higher in conscientiousness.*

#### *Leaderless Group Activity*

A Leaderless Group Activity is a type of situational exercise commonly used in conjunction with assessment center efforts (Waldman, Atwater, & Davidson, 2004). A

Leaderless Group scenario is relatively brief, involving a small group of individuals faced with solving a relatively unstructured problem (Waldman, Atwater, & Davidson). Leaderless Group Activities are designed to assess team member performance as well as leader behavior (Waldman, Atwater, & Davidson). Leaderless Group Activities have been in use for over 50 years (See Bass, 1949) and are commonly used as an aid in selecting candidates for positions involving leadership. This emphasis is especially relevant today as organizations are increasingly moving toward the adoption of work teams as a mechanism for successful management (Peters, 1988). A Leaderless Group is “leaderless” in the sense that no formal leader is assigned to the group; it is possible and even desirable for one or more individuals to assume a leadership role and thus display leader behavior (Waldman et al., 2004).

## **Method**

### *Participants*

Participants were 139 undergraduate and graduate students at a medium sized public university in the southern region of the United States. Of the participants 43 (30.7%) were male and 96 (68.6%) were female. The age of participants ranged from 18 to 46 years, with a mean of 23 years old (SD=4.88). Most of the participants were undergraduate students, Freshman (N=21; 15%), Sophomore (N=12; 8.6%), Junior (N=22; 15.7%) and Senior (N=28; 20%). Remaining participants were graduate students (N=55; 39.6%). Most of the participants were Caucasian (N=101; 72.1%) and African American (N=26; 18.6%).

### *Measures*

Paper and pencil measures were included with a leaderless group activity. The paper and pencil survey was collected immediately following the leaderless group activity.

*Big Five Personality Measure.* The big five personality traits were measured utilizing items from the International Personality Item Pool (IPIP; see Goldberg, et al., 2006). The measure consisted of fifty seven-point likert-type items -- ten measuring each facet (extraversion  $\alpha = .91$ ; agreeableness  $\alpha = .82$ ; conscientiousness  $\alpha = .84$ ; openness  $\alpha = .79$ ; emotional stability  $\alpha = .84$ ).

*Gender Role Measure/Sex Role Inventory.* Sex role was evaluated using the masculinity and femininity subscales of the Bem Sex Role Inventory (Bem, 1981). Items consisted of 40 self-descriptive words; 20 typically associated with masculinity and 20 typically associated with femininity. Participants rated each word on a 1-4 scale based upon how well each word described him/her (1 = usually not true, 4 = always true; masculinity  $\alpha = .81$ , femininity  $\alpha = .85$ ).

*Leadership Behavior (Self).* Leader behavior was measured using the IPIP Leadership scale (Goldberg, et al., 2006; IPIP, 2006). The survey consisted of ten seven-point likert-type items that were completed by the participant ( $\alpha = .82$ ).

*Peer Leadership.* The Peer Leadership survey consisted of a subset of items from the leadership scales on the International Personality Item Pool (IPIP) website (International Personality Item Pool, 2006). Items from all leadership scales on the IPIP website were evaluated and five items that related to peer evaluations were selected for inclusion in the measure. Items were presented in a seven-point Likert-type format ( $\alpha = .85$ ). Items asked individuals to evaluate group members on how much they 1) took charge, 2) tried to be the leader of the group, 3) wanted to be in charge, 4) let others make the decisions (reverse scored), and 5) tried to keep group members focused and on task.

*Procedure*

Participants were randomly assigned to a leaderless group discussion team. Care was taken to ensure that all groups contained at least two males and two females. Groups of 4 to 5 people were given twenty (20) minutes to build a structure out of twenty-five balloons and a roll of scotch tape. The rules were that the structure had to be freestanding and participants could not stand on anything but the floor during construction. All team members completed the peer leadership scale to evaluate the emergent leadership of other team members. Participants were asked to complete the personality, gender role, and self evaluation of leadership measures after completing the leaderless group activity.

**Results**

Descriptive statistics for the Big Five Personality factors, Sex Role Inventory dimensions, Self-Leadership, and Peer-Leadership are presented in Table 1. Correlations among all variables are presented in Table 2. Fifteen of the thirty-six correlations were statistically significant ( $p < .05$ ). Extraversion was positively and significantly related to agreeableness ( $r = .29$ ), emotional stability ( $r = .20$ ), leadership ( $r = .49$ ), masculinity ( $r = .48$ ), and peer leadership ( $r = .22$ ). Agreeableness was positively and significantly related to conscientiousness ( $r = .19$ ), emotional stability ( $r = .26$ ), openness to experience ( $r = .29$ ), and femininity ( $r = .70$ ). Conscientiousness was

positively and significantly related to openness to

Table 1  
Means and Standard Deviations for Variables Measured Across All Scales

Variable	N	MIN	MAX	M	SD
Extraversion	139	20	66	45.63	10.18
Agreeableness	139	29	69	54.37	7.86
Conscientiousness	137	31	70	51.57	7.80
Emotional Stability	139	18	68	44.32	8.89
Openness	138	32	65	49.42	6.80
Masculinity	137	39	75	57.44	8.33
Femininity	138	34	74	58.80	8.52
Self-Reported Leadership	139	24	61	45.96	8.33
Peer-Reported Leadership	139	0	25	10.17	6.04

experience ( $r = .27$ ), and masculinity ( $r = .31$ ). Openness to experience was positively and significantly related to leadership ( $r = .21$ ), and masculinity ( $r = .37$ ). And, Self-reported leadership was positively and significantly related to masculinity ( $r = .62$ ) and peer leadership ( $r = .20$ ).

*Hypothesis-Related Analyses*

Supporting Hypothesis 1a, a significant correlation was found between masculinity and self-reported leadership ( $r = .62$ ;  $p < .01$ ). There was not a significant correlation between masculinity and peer leadership, therefore Hypothesis 1b was not supported. No significant correlation was found between femininity and either self or peer evaluations of leadership.

A moderated regression analysis was run to test Hypotheses 2a, 2b, 3a, and 3b. (See Aiken and West, 1991 for a detailed discussion of this process) Moderated regression analysis involves two steps. In step one, leadership was entered into the equation as a dependent variable with both masculinity and femininity as predictors. For the second step an interaction term was created and entered to determine if a moderated relationship existed. As recommended by Aiken and West (1991), to reduce multicollinearity among variables, all terms were centered prior to the analyses. Results for Hypothesis 2a and 2b can be found in Table 3.

Table 2  
Correlations Among Variables Measured Across All Scales

Measure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Extraversion	--								
2. Agreeableness	.29 **	--							
3. Conscientiousness	-.03	.19 *	--						
4. Emotional Stability	.20 *	.26 **	-.02	--					
5. Openness	.16	.29 **	.27 **	.08	--				
6. Masculinity	.48 **	.07	.31 **	.05	.37 **	--			
7. Femininity	.10	.70 **	.03	.12	.11	.03	--		
8. Self-Reported Leadership	.49 **	-.01	.15	.02	.21 *	.62 **	.15	--	
9. Peer-Reported Leadership	.22 *	.06	.08	-.06	.05	.11	.00	.20	--

\* $p < .05$ . \*\* $p < .01$ .

Table 3  
Summary of Regression Analysis Testing for the Moderation of Extraversion on Gender Roles and Emergent Leadership

Predictors	Self-Reported Leadership		Peer-Reported Leadership	
	$\beta$	$\Delta R^2$	$\beta$	$\Delta R^2$
Step 1				
Masculinity	.49 ***	.48 ***	.01	.05
Femininity	-.19 **		-.02	
Extraversion	.28		.21 *	
Step 2a				
Masculinity x Extraversion	-.97	.01	-.57	.00
Step 2b				
Femininity x Extraversion	-1.23 *	.02 *	-.95	.01

\* $p < .05$ . \*\* $p < .01$  \*\*\* $p < .001$

A moderated relationship was found for extraversion between femininity and self reported leadership; therefore, Hypothesis 2a was supported. However, there was not a significant relationship for extraversion between gender and peer-reported leadership so Hypothesis 2b was not supported. A graphical representation of the identified significant relationship is presented in Figure 1. Results indicate that ratings of high femininity are generally related to low levels of self reported leadership. However, under conditions of low femininity, self-evaluations of leadership varied such that high extraversion was related to higher evaluations of leadership. The results for Hypothesis 3a and 3b can be found in Table 4. Hypothesis 3b was supported. However, contrary to Hypothesis 3a there was not a significant moderated relationship for conscientiousness between gender and self-reported leadership. Results of the peer reports of leadership revealed that high masculinity and high conscientiousness were predictive of high peer leadership while low masculinity and high conscientiousness was predictive of low peer leadership. This relationship is represented graphically in Figure 2.

Table 4  
Summary of Regression Analysis Testing for the Moderation of Conscientiousness on Gender Roles and Emergent Leadership

Predictors	Self-Reported Leadership		Peer-Reported Leadership	
	$\beta$	$\Delta R^2$	$\beta$	$\Delta R^2$
Step 1				
Masculinity	.64 ***	.42 ***	.10	.02
Femininity	-.17 *		.00	
Conscientiousness	-.04		.05	
Step 2a				
Masculinity x Conscientiousness	-.36	.00	1.74 *	.03 *
Step 2b				
Femininity x Conscientiousness	.23	.00	.01	.00

\* $p < .05$ . \*\* $p < .01$  \*\*\* $p < .001$

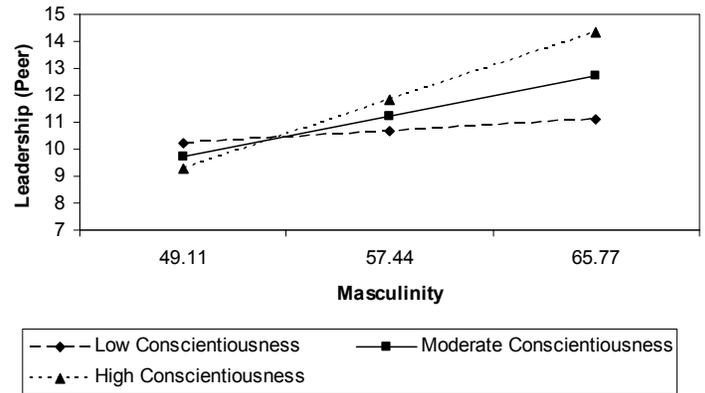
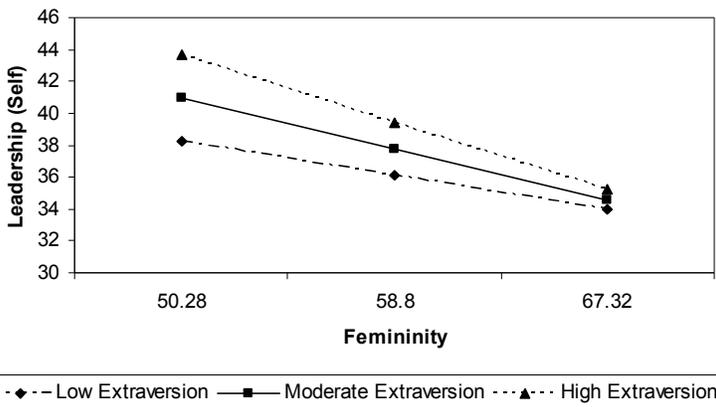


Figure 2. Masculinity x Conscientiousness predicting Peer Reports of Leadership

## Discussion

This study was designed to extend the literature on leadership behavior and its relationship to gender role and personality. Specifically, it was conducted to examine the relationship among self and peer evaluations of leadership, gender role, and personality. This study looked at the relationship between masculine characteristics and leadership, as well as, proposed and tested a moderating role for extraversion and conscientiousness in the relationship between gender role and personality. In general there was support for relationships among all variables. Specific results have implications for training and selecting employees, as well as for diversity awareness and utilization.

Analyses found a positive relationship between masculine characteristics and self-reports of leadership. This result is consistent with previous research which suggests men are more likely to emerge as leaders in



Femininity x Extraversion predicting Self Reports of Leadership

groups (Wentworth & Anderson, 1984; Eagly, 1987) and that masculine characteristics are related to leadership behaviors (Eagly & Karau, 1991; Karakowsky & Siegel, 1999; Kent & Moss, 1994). Interestingly, however, peer reports of leadership behavior did not follow this pattern suggesting that masculine characteristics are more related to self promotion of leadership and not to peer evaluations.

Support was also found for Hypothesis 2a, which proposed that the relationship between gender role and self-reported leadership was moderated by extraversion. Specifically, the interaction between extraversion, femininity, and self-leadership was significant. When looking at these results (see Figure 1), an interpretation can be made to suggest that people who score high in femininity do not view themselves as leaders and do not use self-promotion. The same interpretation could be made with people who score low on femininity and low on extraversion. However, people who score low on femininity and high on extraversion may use more self-promotion and view themselves as a leader. No interaction was found between extraversion, masculinity, and either self or peer reports of leadership. The results supported a moderating relationship between femininity and emergent leadership. These findings extend previous research that suggests that extraversion and masculinity were related to self and peer ratings of leadership (Gough, 1990) by suggesting that the relationship is more complicated than originally proposed.

Hypothesis 3b proposed that the relationship between gender role and peer-reported leadership was moderated by conscientiousness, such that the relationship is stronger for those high in conscientiousness. The interaction between conscientiousness, masculinity, and peer-leadership was significant. An interpretation can be made, based on these results, that people who score high on conscientiousness and high on masculinity may be viewed by others as exhibiting leader characteristics. However, individuals who score low on masculinity may be viewed by others as being a conscientious team member instead of a leader. No interaction was found between conscientiousness, femininity, and either self or peer leadership. The results supported a moderating relationship between masculinity and emergent leadership (see Figure 2). These findings are in line with previous research. Earlier studies have suggested that conscientious people being more task-oriented or masculine are more likely to become (or be viewed as) leaders (Judge et al., 2002).

#### *Limitations and Future Research*

The present study included several potential limitations. First, the participants were from a medium sized University in the Southeastern part of the United States. Regional and cultural differences may influence the way woman emerge as leaders. Using larger samples of men and minorities and participants from different regions may increase the generalizability of future studies.

Using self-reported and peer-reported data is another limitation. Videotaping the participants and using raters to rate the amount of emergent leadership could alleviate this limitation in future studies. Due to practical constraints this was not possible in this study. Additionally, some concerns have been raised in literature regarding the validity of the Bem Sex Role Inventory (see Cross & Markus, 1993; Holt & Ellis, 1998; Lott & Maluso, 1993) which suggests that alternative measures of gender roles need to be incorporated into future research.

This study was primarily exploratory in nature. Future research is needed to further evaluate the relationship between personality, gender role, and leadership. Additionally, students were used instead of professionals. Professionals may react to a leaderless group discussion differently than students (Waldman et al., 2004). Future research may benefit from using professionals from different companies.

Finally, another limitation to this study is the risk of common method variance. Self-report measures were used to collect most of the information for this research. Although there is a potential for internal validity to be reduced by common method variance, surveys are typically the most practical method for collecting data related to the perceptions of individuals (Kraut, 1996). Future research should also look at alternative data collection and analytic techniques.

#### *Practical Implications*

There are several practical implications of the present study. Due to the differing perspectives of male and female managers, organizations should look at ways to fairly select and train managers of different genders. From both a legal and fairness perspective it is critical during the employee selection process that organizations ensure, to the extent possible, that gender bias does not exist in the measure. Results of this study and previous research suggest that, when selecting managers for leadership positions, employers should consider the type of task(s) that are involved. Past research suggests that men typically do better with tasks that are more masculine oriented or consist of instrumental behaviors, whereas, women prefer tasks that are more feminine oriented or consist of expressive behaviors (Eagly, 1987; Wentworth & Anderson, 1984). This study suggests that perceptions of leadership vary depending on self and peer evaluations, gender-typed behaviors, and personality characteristics. Training on managerial skills that recognizes these differences may help alleviate leadership differences based on biological sex. The results of this study are also useful for improving diversity awareness and the proper utilization of employee skills and abilities. Additionally, some research suggests that groups composed of all males make hyper-aggressive, poorer decision than other groups (see LePine et al, 2002). The results of this research taken in conjunction with the current study suggest that not only

gender composition, but also factors such as personality and gender role composition of groups may be utilized to produce groups that make more efficient and effective decisions.

The weak relationship found between self and peer evaluations of leadership suggests that individuals that view themselves as good leaders are not necessarily viewed the same by others. A better understanding of the facts that lead to positive evaluations of leadership ability is critical in order for organizations to successfully fill leadership positions. The consideration of extraversion and conscientiousness might assist organizations in identifying future leaders. With a better understanding of personality, gender role, and leadership behavior, organizations can adopt strategies that are specifically aimed at finding individuals who display certain types of personalities found to be predictive of leadership behaviors. These strategies include the use of selection procedures to screen individuals whose personality is related to leadership behavior.

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