

Female's gender role conflict: The moderation effect of gender role self-concept on the relationship between masculine versus feminine personality states and well-being

Jana Benedik (i6172406)

Faculty of Psychology and Neuroscience

Work and Organizational Psychology

First supervisor: Annika Nübold

Second supervisor: Philippe Verduyn

August, 2018

Abstract

Despite the advancement of women in the workplace and only a few differences between the behaviour of male and female managers, women in leadership positions within businesses are still a minority. It is much easier for men to be perceived as successful leaders since the stereotypical characteristics of men overlap with the stereotypical characteristics of good leaders. Thus, there is a dilemma with regard to what is expected from female leaders. The aim of this study was to explore the relationship between females' expression of masculine versus feminine personality states and subjective well-being (i.e., positive and negative affect) as well as the possible moderation effect of gender role self-concept. All together 64 female leaders participated in the present study over five consecutive days. The results showed that the expression of both masculine and feminine personality states leads to an increase in positive affect. Furthermore, our findings suggest that there is a moderation effect of gender role self-concept on the above mentioned relationship. The hypotheses were partially supported. These results extend previous research on the effects of gender role conflict on well-being, as well as provide another perspective on why female leaders face a double bind.

Keywords: Female leadership, gender role conflict, gender role self-concept, personality states, role congruity

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Introduction

“Imagine a young girl – perhaps a daughter, a niece or the girl down the street. She is smart. She is ambitious. She believes in herself and her abilities. From a young age, she has the desire to lead – to inspire others to greatness, to surpass expectations, to better the world. Yet as she grows up, two elements will affect her ability to lead: confidence and connections. Throughout her life, she either will receive what she needs to build these two key components of leadership – or she won't.” (KPMG, 2015)

It's a fact, women in leadership positions within businesses are a minority. They account for 50 percent of the population (The World Bank, 2017) and 49.6 percent of the labour force, yet their representation at higher corporate levels is negligible by comparison (Catalyst, 2017). Globally, women held only 16.3 percent of CEO positions, represented 24.7 percent of board directors, and earned 77 percent of what men earned in 2015-2016. In the same year, one third of global businesses had no women in senior management roles, which leads to the conclusion that women will not reach parity with men until 2060 (Catalyst, 2017).

Despite the advancement of women in the workplace and only a few differences between the behaviour of male and female managers (Morrison, White, & Val Velsor, 1987), there remains a disparity between the two genders in the workplace which is not fully understood yet. One explanation for the difficulties women experience in reaching and maintaining leadership positions is that the same behaviours exhibited by men and women are perceived differently because of gender roles - socially shared expectations about how men and women should behave (Eagly, 1987). Gender roles are often examined in terms of agency and communion, which are described as fundamental drivers of human existence. On the one hand, agency is associated with a male gender role and relates to the motivation toward striving for power and control over others, efficacy, and mastery. On the other hand, communion is associated with a female gender role and relates to the motive to form social relationships and get along with others (Bakan, 1966).

Johnson, Murphy, Zewdie and Reichard (2008) proposed that the pressure created by society, which generally favours gender role consistent behaviour, encourages or even forces many people to behave according to their gender role. As a result, people may internalize societal expectations about their gender and consequently be intrinsically motivated to act consistently with their gender roles. With that said, women are expected to be communal (e.g., helpful, warm, and gentle) while men are expected to be agentic (e.g., assertive,

dominant, and competitive). Authors further claimed that such pressures favouring behaviour congruent with one's gender role could be problematic for women occupying leadership roles because of the misalignment of the social role (i.e., the female gender role) with the leader role traditionally associated with masculinity (Johnson, Murphy, Zewdie & Reichard, 2008).

Expanding on the above point, in the same way that society created gender role expectations, they have created leadership expectations (i.e., leadership prototypes) and leaders who behave according to these leadership prototypes are perceived as effective leaders (Lord & Maher, 1993). Offerman, Kennedy, and Wirtz (1994) proposed eight leadership prototype dimensions that are held consistently across most individuals: sensitivity, dedication, tyranny, charisma, attractiveness, intelligence, strength, and masculinity. According to these prototypes, it is much easier for men to be perceived as successful leaders since the stereotypical characteristics of men overlap with the stereotypical characteristics of good leaders (e.g., being assertive, competitive, confident) – a phenomenon known as role congruity (Koenig, Eagly, Mitchell, & Ristikari, 2011). For women however, there is a dilemma with regard to what is expected from female leaders, as feminine characteristics are less consistent with societal perceptions of successful leaders, hence women tend to be perceived as less fit for a leadership position. As a result, women face a double bind. When they show communal traits such as affection, compassion, warmth and gentleness, they are perceived as weak leaders. However, when they show agentic traits (assertiveness, forcefulness, dominance and competition), they are penalized for opposing gender norms (Eagly & Koenig, 2014). Gender role conflict is, in this case, created by inconsistency between internal values and the external demands imposed by society. Studies showed that women, especially in management positions, experience greater gender role conflict than men (Koberg & Chusmir, 1987) and might for that reason experience increased stress and role strain (Chusmir & Koberg, 1988).

While research has demonstrated why female leaders face a barrier to their success (Eagly & Koenig, 2014), it has not examined in detail how being a female leader and acting in agentic ways actually influences one's well-being in specific situations. According to social role theory (Eagly, 1987), agentic behaviour would be inconsistent with female leaders' gender role thus diminishing well-being. The current research investigates whether the expression of female leaders' masculine (i.e., agentic) versus feminine (i.e., communal) personality states has an impact on their well-being (i.e., positive and negative affect). This is important because women show different behaviours in social situations and take on different roles (communal versus agentic), due to the expectations that society puts upon them. What is

more, they might be subjected to prejudicial reactions as they violate other's gender expectations (Eagly & Karau, 2002), which can diminish their performance and impact their well-being (Chusmir & Koberg, 1988).

To scrutinise the relationship more in detail, the additional purpose of this paper is to identify the moderation effect of gender role self-concept on the relationship between the expression of masculine and feminine personality states and subjective well-being. Athenstaedt, Mikula and Bredt (2009) defined gender role self-concept as the amount of gender stereotypical traits and behaviours that individuals use for self-description. Studies showed that men and women often adopt gender stereotypical traits as self-standards, which have the same motivational importance as other self-beliefs. These gender role self-standards can be incorporated into people's ideal self (the attributes one hopes and wishes to possess) or ought self (the attributes that one should possess because of obligation) and represent internal guidelines against which people evaluate themselves (Higgins, 1987). Based on theory and research on gender role conflict and its consequences on well-being, we propose that the negative effect of female leaders' masculine or feminine behaviour on their well-being should be stronger if they hold an opposing gender role self-concept, which contradicts to their internal values.

This research adds to the existing literature in several ways. Firstly, the present study further supports previous findings from Whitley (1984) that the combination of both masculine and feminine personality states best predicts well-being (i.e., androgyny model). It also extends the knowledge on the shift in behaviour of female leaders toward masculinity (Konrad, Ritchie, Lied, & Corrigan, 2000; Byrnes, Miller, & Schafer, 1999; Astin, Parrott, Korn, & Sax, 1997). Furthermore, so far, not many researchers have looked at the interaction between gender role self-concept and the expression of masculine and feminine personality states and its joint effect on well-being. Chusmir and Koberg (1988) investigated the relationship between gender role conflict and well-being (i.e., stress and role strain) as well as the combination effects of gender and sex role orientation on gender role conflict. We extended this study by looking at the moderation effect of sex role orientation (i.e., gender role self-concept) on the relationship between the expression of masculine versus feminine personality states and subjective well-being. Additionally, a study by Wolfram, Mohr and Borchert (2009) looked at the relationship between gender role conflict, gender role self-concept and well-being, however, their sample was male population. In contrast, this study specifically investigated the relationship between the above mentioned constructs in female population.

An important contribution to the existing literature is also the use of situational analysis and the investigation of the micro perspective of the constructs by using an experience sampling design - a phenomenological approach, where the primary objects of the study are individual's own thoughts and perceptions of events (Ohly, Sonnentag, Niessen, & Zapf, 2010). In comparison to macro perspective, which focuses on general tendencies and processes assessed with concurrent and longitudinal assessments, micro perspective focuses on the situational processes with much shorter time frame. By using a diary study (i.e., experience sampling design), we were able to gather data in people's natural life contexts, where phenomena and processes were assessed in their natural settings in contrast to a laboratory setting (Ebner-Priemer & Kubiak, 2007).

The present study also has important practical implications as it reveals key distinctions between masculine and feminine personality states, and how these behavioural differences influence well-being of female leaders, depending on their gender role self-concept. Sadly, organizations are subconsciously reducing their productivity by removing an important proportion of the available pool of managerial talent. They too often fail to maximize the potential of their female employees, even though a study showed that men and women do not differ in their effectiveness as leaders (Powell, 1993). Today's business world is defined by complexity, innovation, disruption, and change. So, the most successful enterprises are the ones that bring diverse perspectives, experiences, and skills to face new challenges. For that reason, it is crucial for businesses to look at the challenges female leaders face.

Theoretical background and hypotheses development

Females in leadership positions

Even though the recipe for corporate success is a mystery, one of the key components is definitely leadership (Hayward, 1998). With that said, one must be seen as a leader or at least as possessing the potential to be a leader in order to rise to more senior positions (Lord & Maher, 1993). Stereotypically, women are still seen as less competent to be a leader than men, which is often a barrier to women's advancement to leadership positions (Appelbaum, Audet, & Miller, 2002). The characteristics associated with leadership roles have historically been more attached to men than to women, consequently, it is assumed that leadership is more congruent with the masculine gender role than the feminine gender role (Powell, 1999). The best known paradigm explaining the cultural masculinity of leader stereotypes is the think-manager-think-male paradigm, which represents the similarity of stereotypes of men to

cultural concepts of leadership (Schein, 1973). A study on stereotypes of leaders showed that people viewed leaders as similar to men but not similar to women, as more agentic than communal, and as more masculine than feminine (Koenig et al., 2011).

In the past, the problem preventing women to climb up the corporate ladder and be representative in senior positions was called the “glass ceiling effect”. Carol Hymowitz and Timothy Schellhardt published an article in the Wall Street Journal in 1986 explaining this phenomena by saying: “Even those few women who rose steadily through the ranks eventually crashed into an invisible barrier. The executive suite seemed within their grasp, but they just couldn't break through the glass ceiling”. The statement demonstrates the frustration of a goal within sight but still unattainable (Eagly & Carli, 2007).

However, as proposed by Eagly and Carli (2007), times have slightly changed, giving the possibility for women to climb up the corporate ladder – but only a few manage to do so. The metaphor of the glass ceiling effect is now more wrong than right. It describes an absolute barrier, it implies that women and men have equal access to entry and mid-level positions but it fails to incorporate the complexity of challenges that women face in their career journeys. It doesn't happen only at the top positions that women are turned away, but also at the stages beforehand. For that reason, Eagly & Carli (2007) proposed a new metaphor depicting the challenges that women face as a labyrinth. A labyrinth, in this sense, demonstrates the idea of a complex journey toward a goal worth striving for. It demonstrates persistence, awareness of one's progress, and the identification of the barriers that lie ahead. Contrary to the glass ceiling effect, it conveys the possibility for women to climb up, but the road to the top is full of twists and turns (Eagly & Carli, 2007).

Despite a bigger prospect for women to create a successful career, the disparity between female and male careers is still significant. Discrimination of females does not affect only wages, but also promotions which come much slower for women than for men with equivalent qualifications. Studies showed that even in “feminine jobs” such as nursing, librarianship, elementary education, and social work, men ascend to higher positions more quickly than women (Eagly & Carli, 2007). The question now is, what makes female leaders act in a specific way and how does the incongruence between their actual expression of personality and gender role self-concept affect their well-being?

Gender role conflict, personality states and subjective well-being

According to social role theory (Eagly, 1987), women and men behave differently in social situations and take on different gender roles, due to the expectations that society puts

upon them. Robustly, gender roles can be defined as “behaviours, expectations and role sets defined by society as masculine or feminine which are embodied in the behaviour of the individual men or women and culturally regarded as appropriate to males and females” (O’Neil, 1981, p.203). The ultimate origins of gender differences in behaviour derive mainly from physical gender differences, implying that one gender can more efficiently perform certain tasks in particular environments (Eagly & Koenig, 2006). According to Cialdini and Trost (1998) gender roles can be best explained with gender stereotypes, comprising of descriptive and prescriptive norms. The difference between the two is that descriptive norms are beliefs about the actual characteristics of women and men, whilst the prescriptive norms stand for the beliefs about what women and men should do (Cialdini & Trost, 1998). A key proposition of social role theory is that the majority of the beliefs about the gender, relate to communion and agency. On the one hand, communal traits are more common for females and include characteristics such as being affectionate, helpful, kind, sympathetic, interpersonally sensitive, gentle (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001), unselfish, friendly, warm, compassionate, and concerned with others (Eagly & Koenig, 2006). On the other hand, agentic traits are common for males and include characteristics such as being aggressive, ambitious, dominant, forceful, self-confident (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001), assertive, independent, adventurous, and willing to take risks (Eagly & Koenig, 2006).

One theory that goes beyond the social role theory is role congruity theory (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Role congruity theory considers the agreement between gender roles and other roles, especially leadership roles. In leadership positions, females are expected to act in a certain way which might not always be aligned with their gender roles nor their internal values (Eagly & Karau, 2002). With that being said, female leaders face two different expectations, one specific to being female (the expression of communal traits) and one specific to being a good leader (the expression of agentic traits). According to the society, these two expectations contradict, which often leads to conflict and prejudice (Eagly & Karau, 2002). The mismatch between the female gender role and the leadership role results in two types of biases – descriptive and prescriptive – and consequently two forms of prejudice. Descriptive bias results from the mismatch between the feminine role and the leader role, which means that women do not possess necessary characteristics to be a good leader (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Whilst, prescriptive bias occurs when women are trying to act as men and adopt a more masculine leadership style thus, violating their gender role expectations. None of the above mentioned biases result into positive evaluations of female leaders. In fact, these two forms of prejudice produce three types of consequences: (a) female leaders are perceived

less favourably than male leaders, (b) women face greater difficulty to attain leadership roles, and (c) women are less likely to be recognized as effective in leadership roles (Eagly & Karau, 2002).

Another consequence of the mismatch between the gender role and other roles is gender role conflict. It is created when internal values and the external demands imposed by society do not match. When these two values clash, individuals either choose one of the roles or try to attempt to meet all the demands of the multiple roles. However, trying to meet all the demands leads to increased stress and role strain (Garnets & Pleck, 1979). Further, O'Neil (1981) defined gender role conflict as "a psychological state in which gender roles have negative consequences or impact on the person or others" (O'Neil, 1981, p.203). A study by Davis and Walsh (1987) found that gender role conflict was significantly negatively correlated with measures of psychological well-being (self-esteem and anxiety). Various studies also showed that gender role conflict was the cause of emotional turmoil, stress, and depression. Additionally, it is also negatively related to happiness in life, and emotional and physical health (Glazebrook & Munjas, 1986; Harrison, 1978; Light, 1984; Pleck & Sawyer, 1974; Sekaran, 1985).

For the purpose of this study it is also important to define subjective well-being (SWB). Subjective well-being is a multi-faceted construct which consist of affective (AWB) and cognitive well-being (CWB) (Diener, 1984). On the one hand, AWB refers to positive and negative emotions and moods, which people have experienced over a specific period of time. On the other hand, cognitive well-being refers to a global life satisfaction and is usually not defined by time (Luhmann, Hawkley, Eid, & Cacioppo, 2012). In our study we used the affective well-being as dependent variable, which is defined by positive and negative affect.

As we have noted, several psychological connections between subjective well-being and gender role have been postulated. There are a few possible explanations for the correlation between gender role and subjective well-being, yet the ones related to gender role conflict were mainly studied in male populations (Wolfram, Mohr, & Borchert, 2009) and related to cognitive well-being (Glazebrook & Munjas, 1986; Harrison, 1978; Light, 1984; Pleck & Sawyer, 1974; Sekaran, 1985). Since gender role conflict is caused by inconsistencies between a person's attributes and societal expectations based upon gender, it can be assumed that females who express masculine personality states, and thus violate societal expectations, are exposed to gender role conflict. The impaired affect is in this case the incongruency between actual gender role (female) and the expression of the opposite gender personality (masculine personality), and might have an impact on affective well-being.

For these reasons, it was hypothesized that the expression of masculine versus feminine personality states will have an impact on affective well-being. More specifically, we assume that when females express masculine personality and thus show incongruent behaviour, it will lead to an increase in negative affect and decrease in positive affect.

H1: The expression of masculine personality states is negatively associated with a) positive affect and positively associated with b) negative affect.

In contrast, when females express congruent behaviour such as feminine personality it will lead to an increase in positive affect and decrease in negative affect.

H2: The expression of feminine personality states is positively associated with a) positive affect and negatively associated with b) negative affect.

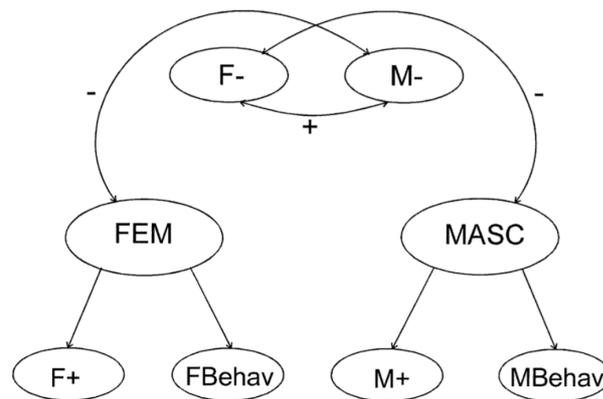
Gender role conflict and the moderation effect of gender role self-concept

People do not use gender stereotypes only to build their own individual picture of female and male roles, but also to describe themselves – a phenomena called gender role self-concept. In simple words, gender role self-concept demonstrates how women and men perceive themselves and their worlds. It can be further conceptualized as the amount of gender stereotypical traits and behaviours that individuals use for self-description (Athenstaedt, Mikula, & Bredt, 2009).

New theories of gender role self-concept propose that two independent dimensions exist – a female role self-concept (FEM) and a male role self-concept (MASC). Based upon this dimensional conceptualization, female role components constitute the female role self-concept and male role components constitute the male role self-concept (Bem, 1974). Figure 1 demonstrates the model that best describes the structure of the gender role self-concept. According to Athenstaedt (2003), gender role self-concept is a multifaceted construct consisting of socially desirable expressive (e.g., gentle, helpful) and instrumental (e.g., independent, active) traits (F+ and M+), gender stereotypical behaviour (FBehav and MBehav) and socially undesirable expressive (servile, complaining) and instrumental (arrogant, dictatorial) gender traits (F- and M-). With that said, the traits and the behaviours form two different dimensions – a female gender role self-concept (FEM) and a male gender role self-concept (MASC). The gender role self-concept model also proposes that people use socially undesirable gender traits (F- and M-) for self-description. These are two independent,

yet cross-gendered negatively correlated factors. Which in simple words mean that socially undesirable gender traits have a negative correlation with the opposite gender. One explanation for the negative correlations could be that persons who are more focused on their own individual self (i.e., high M+) would rather not sacrifice themselves for others (i.e., low F-) and people who put the needs of others above theirs (i.e., high F+) will not focus on the self to the exclusion of others (i.e., low M-) (Athenstaedt, 2003).

Figure 1. The multifaceted conceptualization of gender role self-concept (Athenstaedt, 2003).



In the past, it was assumed that women have mainly feminine self-concept and men have a masculine self-concept. However, this view changed with the development of two scales, the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI; Bem, 1974) and the Personal Attribute Questionnaire (PAQ; Spence, Helmreich, & Stapp, 1974, 1975). These scales are used as measurements of the amount of gender-related traits that people have incorporated into their self-concept and give the possibility that individuals may use both feminine and masculine aspects to describe themselves. The study on the content and structure of gender role self-concept showed that, contrary to men, when women incorporate gender role aspects into their self-concept, they tend to incorporate both feminine and masculine aspects. This might be due to the higher value that is given to masculine characteristics in society (Athenstaedt, 2003).

The past literature suggests that there are three models for conceptualizing the relationship between gender role orientation and psychological well-being: the congruence model, the androgyny model, and the masculinity model (Whitley, 1984). The congruence model proposes that psychological well-being will be fostered when one's sex-role orientation and gender are in congruence. Secondly, the androgyny model suggests that well-being is maximized when one's sex-role orientation incorporates both masculinity and femininity

regardless of one's gender. Lastly, the masculinity model posits well-being is related to masculine sex-role orientation (Whitley, 1984).

This study concerns itself with the first model – the congruence model, also known as the sex role identity model (Garnets & Pleck, 1979). The above mentioned model was the first model for conceptualizing the relationship between sex role and psychological well-being and assumes that better psychological adjustment is achieved when one's sex role orientation is congruent with one's gender (Mussen, 1969). Building upon the congruence model, Garnets and Pleck (1979) proposed the sex role strain analysis model, which assumes that gender role conflict (sex role strain) is caused by discrepancy between real self and ideal self. Further, O'Neil (1981) suggested that gender role conflict, which is not resolved can potentially affect overall emotional and physical health, and reduce happiness in life. Having said that, one could assume that sex role orientation could strengthen the relationship between gender role conflict, caused by the incongruency between females' gender role and females' expression of masculine versus feminine personality states, and affective well-being.

On that grounds, we hypothesize that a perception of one's self (i.e., gender role self-concept) moderates the relationship between the expression of masculine versus feminine personality states and well-being. More specifically, if females express masculinity, yet perceive themselves as feminine, the impact on negative affect will be more significant. In contrast, when females express femininity and perceive themselves as feminine, the impact on positive affect will be more significant. The proposed hypotheses are presented below.

H3: Gender role self-concept will moderate the relationship between a) feminine and b) masculine personality states and positive affect. The positive relationship between feminine personality states and positive affect will be stronger when a female leader's gender role self-concept is more feminine and weaker when the gender role self-concept is more masculine. The negative relationship between masculine personality states and positive affect will be stronger when a female leader's gender role self-concept is more feminine and weaker if the gender role self-concept is more masculine.

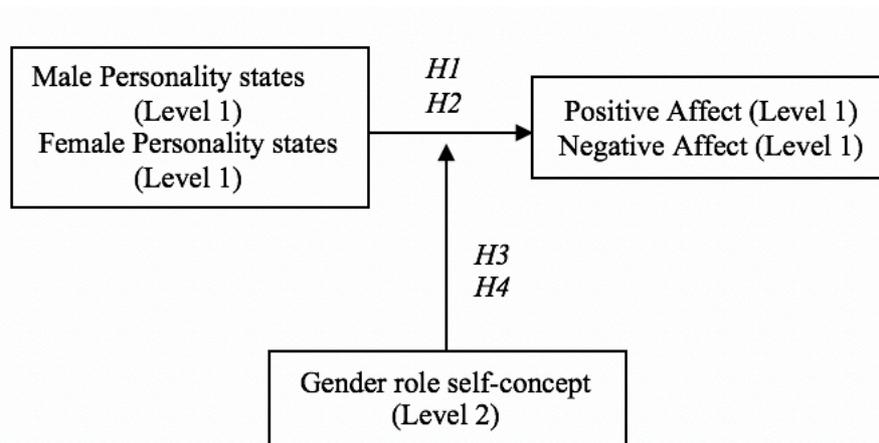
H4: Gender role self-concept will moderate the relationship between a) feminine and b) masculine personality states and negative affect. The negative relationship between feminine personality states and negative affect will be stronger when a female leader's gender role self-concept is more feminine and weaker when the gender role self-concept is more masculine. The positive relationship between masculine personality states and negative affect

will be stronger when a female leader's gender role self-concept is more feminine and weaker if the gender role self-concept is more masculine.

The proposed research model

The research model depicted below in Figure 2 summarizes the variables of interest, thereby forming the basis of this analysis.

Figure 2. The proposed moderation model (Own source)



Methodology

Data Collection and participants

Participants. To investigate the aforementioned model, a total of 160 individuals were approached, of whom 69 accepted to do the whole study. However, at the end only 64 participants were eligible to be included in the results. The loss of the 5 participants was mainly due to job schedules and business travels interfering with participation. The sample consisted of female leaders mainly from Europe - Germany, the Netherlands, and Slovenia. Their ages ranged between 24 and 60 years ($M = 39.73$, $SD = 11.40$). Our definition of a female leader was not limited solely to a managerial position, but to a supervisory position, meaning that all female employees were able to participate as long as they had at least one subordinate and were interacting with them on a daily basis. In this sense, female leaders included sales managers, marketing managers, project managers, commercial managers, personnel managers, heads of finance departments, head of procurement and purchasing, and CEOs. On average our participants had 16 years and 5 months of experience. As we conducted a diary study over a period of five consecutive working days, it was important for

us that participants were employed full-time. We further limited our sample to individuals who had sufficient English skills since our questionnaires were written in English.

Procedure. We conducted the study in spring 2018 with participants in various occupations recruited mainly through the authors' professional and social contacts. To recruit study participants, we contacted female leaders via email and informed them about our study. After their consent to participate, they received an information email that included the presentation of the project as a study on "female leadership" and the description of the data collection procedure in general terms. Upon their email confirmation, we sent the baseline questionnaire to the participants and scheduled a week for collecting daily questionnaire data. After the participants had filled in the baseline questionnaire, a scheduling system was developed with Qualtrics which sent out daily questionnaires automatically.

The aim of the baseline questionnaire was to obtain personal and professional information about our participants. The first part of the questionnaire consisted of personal and professional background questions as well as working environment questions. Whereas the second part of the questionnaire focused on participants' self-perception.

The Monday following the completion of the baseline questionnaire, participants received three questionnaires per day. These reports were completed on a regular schedule (10 AM, 2 PM and 5 PM) and took about 5 minutes to complete. In order to get more responses we scheduled a reminder one hour after participants received each questionnaire. For five consecutive working days, participants filled in those questionnaires. Each questionnaire started with a prompt to shortly describe a specific leadership-related situation that took place since the last time they completed the survey. Correspondingly, participants described how they had been acting (the expression of feminine versus masculine personality states) and feeling (positive versus negative affect). The questionnaires were similar, yet the morning and evening questionnaire contained additional questions specific to participants' mood.

Measures and scales

The questionnaires were developed using a range of existing self-report questionnaires. All items assessing the extent of applicability of the three main variables of this study were answered on a five-point Likert scale (1 = *not at all*, 5 = *extremely*).

General questionnaire data. The general questionnaire contained demographic questions such as age, nationality, level of education, profession, years of working

experience, number of subordinates, and others. In addition the questionnaire also measured the stable variable, gender role self-concept.

Gender role self-concept. In the current study sex-role orientation was examined using the Bem Sex-Role Inventory (BSRI). The advantage of the BSRI is that it takes into consideration that a person might be “androgynous” - both masculine and feminine. The BSRI is a self-report survey which provides an assessment of masculinity and femininity. It can be used to classify individuals according to their sex-role orientation (Bem, 1974). For research purposes we used a list of masculine (e.g., “act as a leader”, “aggressive”, “forceful”, “strong personality”) and feminine characteristics (e.g., “affectionate”, “compassionate”, “loves children”, “sensitive to the needs of others”). Participants had to rate, on a 5-point scale (1 = *not at all*, 5 = *extremely*), how well each adjective describes their sex-role orientation. On the basis of this responses, each person received two major scores: a masculinity score and a femininity score. The masculinity and femininity scores indicate the extent to which a person endorses masculine and feminine personality characteristics as self-descriptive. It should be noted that a feminine sex role represents not only the endorsement of feminine attributes but the simultaneous rejection of masculine attributes (Bem, 1974).

Daily questionnaire data. The daily questionnaires were similar in structure and were measuring state variables such as personality expression and affect.

Personality. As we were investigating how different personality expressions in a leadership context are impacting well-being, we have used leadership prototypes proposed by Offerman, Kennedy, & Wirtz (1994) to create two different measurement scales (i.e., feminine personality states scale and masculine personality states scale). They proposed 8 interpretable factors of people's implicit theories of leadership, measuring sensitivity, dedication, tyranny, charisma, intelligence, masculinity, strength, and attractiveness. For the purpose of our research we used 22 sample items describing femininity (attentive, creative, emotional, empowering, encouraging, likeable, open, listener) and masculinity (assertive, decisive, direct, brave, confident, eager, independent, serious, stern, strict, rational, risk taker, unemotional, strong willed). Participants were asked to evaluate themselves during a specific leadership-related situation on a 5-point scale (1 = *not at all*, 5 = *extremely*).

Positive and Negative Affect (PANAS). According to Watson, Clark, & Tellegen (1988), Positive and Negative Affect (PA/NA) emerge as the first two factors of self-reported mood. On the one hand, PA is a state of high energy and reflects the extent to which a person feels enthusiastic, active, and alert. On the other hand, NA is characterized by sadness and

exhaustion and reflects anger, contempt, disgust and fear (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). In this research we used a short version of the Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS) scales proposed by Watson, Clark and Tellegen (1988). The questionnaires included one mood question containing a list of 12 adjectives. Participants responded with regards to how they felt at that moment, using a five-point scale (1 = *not at all*, 5 = *extremely*). The scales were anchored by positive (active, interested, excited, strong, inspired, alert) and negative (distressed, upset, irritable, nervous, jittery, afraid) mood words.

Data analysis

Since we used an experience sampling design where the data was repeatedly measured over time and thereby nested within individuals, we applied multilevel modelling using the mixed models procedure by IBM SPSS Statistics Software (SPSS). Generally, multilevel modelling is used for research designs where the data of participants are organized at more than one level (Peugh & Enders, 2005). The units of analysis in the present study are the situations which are nested within individuals. The linear mixed models procedure has several advantages over other approaches, as it does not assume independence of observations. In multilevel models, dependence is demonstrated through random effects that represent different sources of variability in the data. First, at the individual level (level 2), a fixed effect is included to explain the between-group differences in the dependent variable. Secondly, random effects at the situational level (level 1) are included to account for within-person variability in the repeated measures and how they change over time (Bauer, Gottfredson, Dean, & Zucker, 2013). Measurements at the daily level (level 1) were nested within person since each participant was observed on fifteen different occasions. Since we had a lot of missing data, we based the analysis on the daily means (daily level) and not on the means of all situations separately. Meaning that the three situations observed in one day were merged into one measurement, which resulted into five, instead of fifteen, measurement points.

This study used affect (positive and negative) as dependent variable and personality and gender role self-concept as independent variables. We started the analysis by merging the different datasets into one file with a key identifier "*RecipientEmail*". All the answers had to be recoded and changed into an appropriate variable type before being analysed. In order to test the hypothesized interaction effects at different levels, the variables were entered in a stepwise approach, leading to different models. First, we started with an estimation of the intercept-only model (i.e., the null model that contains no explanatory variables). Based on

that model, we calculated the interclass correlation (ICC), which represents the proportion of the total variability in the outcome that is attributable to between person variance (Field, 2013). It is recommended to use centred scores in multilevel analysis in order to get unbiased estimates of the predicted relationships (Hofmann & Gavin, 1998). For that reason, the level 2 variable (gender role self-concept) was centred around the grand mean and level 1 variables (personality) were centred around the respective person mean. Secondly, to account for a possible linear trend in the dependent variable personality was added in Model 1. Model 1 included fixed effects, which can be generalized only to the situations included in the experiment, and account only for within-personal variance. Whereas, a model with random effects can be generalized beyond the situations in the experiment and accounts also for the between-person variability (Field, 2013). For that reason, in a third step, personality was entered to examine if a random personality model explained more variance than a fixed model (Schreurs, van Emmerik, Günter, & Germeys, 2012). In this model (i.e., model 2) intercepts and slopes are allowed to vary across groups, meaning that they are different in different contexts (Field, 2013). Looking at the respective outcomes of model 1 and model 2, one of the two models was used for further analysis. Lastly, in model 3, the independent variable (personality), moderating variable (gender role self-concept) and the interaction between personality and gender role self-concept were added. The respective -2 Log Likelihood has been used to assess the improvement of each model over the previous one. We ran the analyses separately for positive affect and feminine personality states, positive affect and masculine personality states, negative affect and feminine personality states and negative affect and masculine personality states, resulting in four sets of results.

Results

Descriptive statistics and correlations

Descriptive statistics and intercorrelations among study variables are provided in Table 1. As we used two different scales for all the variables (positive and negative affect, masculine and feminine personality, masculine gender role self-concept and feminine gender role self-concept) the table demonstrates the results for each of them separately.

Initially results showed that feminine gender role self-concept had a moderate mean, indicating that participants described themselves as possessing feminine characteristics ($M = 3.39$) but not significantly more than masculine characteristics. In fact, the results showed that the masculine gender role self-concept had also a moderate mean, indicating that participants described themselves as possessing masculine characteristics as well ($M = 3.31$). Further,

negative affect had a relatively low mean ($M = 1.79$), which means that participants did not experience a high degree of negative affect. On the other hand, positive affect had a moderate mean ($M = 3.05$). This mean demonstrates that, on average, participants experienced a moderate positive affect. As for the personality states, the means show that participants in different leadership situations expressed feminine personality characteristics ($M = 3.08$), but also masculine personality characteristics ($M = 3.00$).

Table 1

Means, standard deviations, and correlations for scales

	M	SD	α	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Positive Affect	3.05	.65		1					
2. Negative Affect	1.79	.70		-.09	1				
3. Masculine Personality	3.00	.58		.48**	.21**	1			
4. Feminine Personality	3.08	.53		.52**	-.03	.46**	1		
5. Male Gender Role Self-Concept	3.31	.36	.825	.34**	-.13	.47*	-.23	1	
6. Female Gender Role Self-Concept	3.39	.39	.762	.07	.28**	.19*	.13	-.00	1

*Note: ** $p \leq 0.01$ * $p \leq 0.05$*

Table 1 above further illustrates the various inter-correlations found among the variables included in the research. The results showed a number of significant correlations between the studied variables. There was a significant positive correlation found between the expression of feminine personality and positive affect ($r = .52$), masculine personality expression and positive affect ($r = .48$), and masculine gender role self-concept and positive affect ($r = .34$). In addition, both masculine personality expression ($r = .21$) and feminine gender role self-concept ($r = .28$) were positively correlated to negative affect. Lastly, the results showed that there is a significant positive correlation between the expression of feminine personality and the expression of masculine personality ($r = .46$). The correlations mentioned above are significant at $p \leq 0.01$.

Furthermore, there is a significant positive relationship between masculine gender role self-concept and masculine personality expression ($r = .47$) as well as feminine gender role self-concept and masculine personality expression ($r = .19$). These correlations are significant at $p \leq 0.05$.

Table 1 also shows that there is a negative yet not significant relationship between masculine gender role self-concept and feminine personality expression. This result is as expected, as one would think that women leaning towards masculine gender role self-concept also express less feminine characteristics.

Hypotheses testing

The aim of the current research was to investigate whether females' expression of different personality states (feminine versus masculine), caused by specific situations, impact their well-being. Additionally, we also wanted to investigate whether this relationship is moderated by gender role self-concept. In order to examine the impact, four hypotheses were proposed. The hypotheses were tested in a step-wise approach separately for two dependent variables – positive and negative affect. Before testing the hypotheses per se, the null model was conducted to test whether the use of multilevel analysis was appropriate. The Interclass Correlation Coefficient (ICC) for positive affect was 0.47, which means that 47% of the variance of positive affect was attributed to differences between people. As for the negative affect, the ICC was 0.57, demonstrating that 57% of the variance of negative affect was attributed to differences between people. The above mentioned results justify the use of multilevel analysis (Koo & Li, 2016).

The results are presented separately for positive affect and masculine personality states (Table 2), positive affect and feminine personality states (Table 3), negative affect and masculine personality states (Table 4) and negative affect and feminine personality states (Table 5). The tables demonstrate estimates for the fixed and random effects, -2 Log Likelihood, Δ -2Log Likelihood, and Δ degrees of freedom.

FEMALE'S GENDER ROLE CONFLICT

Table 2

Fixed- and Random-Effects Estimates and Model Fit Index (- 2 Likelihood) for models predicting Positive Affect with the independent variable Masculine Personality States

Parameters	Null Model		Model 1		Model 2		Model 3a		Model 3b	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Fixed Effects										
Intercept	3.07***	.74	1.67***	.26	1.79***	.30	.82	2.82	1.68	3.12
Masculine personality state			.46***	.08	.42***	.10	.62	.97	.40	1.08
GRSC_mas							.30	.84		
GRSC_fem									.03	.94
GRSC_mas * Masculine personality state							-.63	.28		
GRSC_fem * Masculine personality state									.01	.32
Variance in intercepts					1.58	.85				
Variance in slopes					.22**	.10				
-2 Log Likelihood	309.23		283.49		269.55		231.51		232.10	
Δ -2Log Likelihood			25.74***		13.94***		38.04***		37.45***	
Δ Degrees of freedom			1		1		2		2	

Note: GRSC_fem = Feminine Gender Role Self-Concept, GRSC_mas = Masculine Gender Role Self-Concept.

*** $p \leq 0.01$ ** $p \leq 0.05$ * $p \leq 0.1$.

Table 3

Fixed- and Random-Effects Estimates and Model Fit Index (- 2 Likelihood) for models predicting Positive Affect with the independent variable Feminine Personality States

Parameters	Null Model		Model 1		Model 2		Model 3a		Model 3b		
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	
Fixed Effects											
Intercept	3.07***	.07	1.34***	.24	1.16***	.31	1.96	3.27	6.90**	2.98	
Feminine personality state			.56***	.08	.60***	.10	.41	1.03	-1.62	.90	
GRSC_fem							-.24	.97			
GRSC_mas									-1.74	.88	
GRSC_fem * Feminine personality state							.06	.30			
GRSC_mas * Feminine personality state									.67**	.27	
Variance in intercepts					1.58	.92					
Variance in slopes					.15	.09					
-2 Log Likelihood	309.23		262.89		257.98		231.60		218.79		
Δ -2Log Likelihood			46.34***		4.91**		26.38***		39.19***		
Δ Degrees of freedom			1		1		2		2		

Note: GRSC_fem = Feminine Gender Role Self-Concept, GRSC_mas = Masculine Gender Role Self-Concept.

*** $p \leq 0.01$ ** $p \leq 0.05$ * $p \leq 0.1$.

Table 4

Fixed- and Random-Effects Estimates and Model Fit Index (- 2 Likelihood) for models predicting Negative Affect with the independent variable Masculine Personality States

Parameters	Null Model		Model 1		Model 2		Model 3a		Model 3b	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Fixed Effects										
Intercept	1.82***	.08	1.41***	.29	1.33***	.29	.98	2.80	-5.58	3.14
Masculine personality state			.14	.09	.16	.10	.62	.93	1.95	1.05
GRSC_mas							.11	.85		
GRSC_fem									2.13**	.95
GRSC_mas * Masculine personality state							-.14	.28		
GRSC_fem * Masculine personality state									-.56	.31
Variance in intercepts					.55	1.03				
Variance in slopes					.09	.10				
-2 Log Likelihood	309.23		307.01		303.63		270.63		265.13	
Δ -2Log Likelihood			2.22		3.38*		33***		38.5***	
Δ Degrees of freedom			1		1		2		2	

Note: GRSC_fem = Feminine Gender Role Self-Concept, GRSC_mas = Masculine Gender Role Self-Concept.

*** $p \leq 0.01$ ** $p \leq 0.05$ * $p \leq 0.1$.

Table 5

Fixed- and Random-Effects Estimates and Model Fit Index (- 2 Likelihood) for models predicting Negative Affect with the independent variable Feminine Personality States

Parameters	Null Model		Model 1		Model 2		Model 3a		Model 3b	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Fixed Effects										
Intercept	1.82***	.08	2.06***	.27	2.06***	.34	-.61	3.61	3.37	3.49
Feminine personality state			-.08	.08	-.07	.10	.30	1.12	-.33	1.08
GRSC_fem							.84	1.08		
GRSC_mas									-.37	1.04
GRSC_fem * Feminine personality state							-.13	.33		
GRSC_mas * Feminine personality state									.67	.32
Variance in intercepts					1.63	1.00				
Variance in slopes					.13	.10				
-2 Log Likelihood	309.09		308.27		304.74		267.54		270.09	
Δ -2Log Likelihood			0.82		3.53**		37.2***		34.65***	
Δ Degrees of freedom			1		1		2		2	

Note: GRSC_fem = Feminine Gender Role Self-Concept, GRSC_mas = Masculine Gender Role Self-Concept.

*** $p \leq 0.01$ ** $p \leq 0.05$ * $p \leq 0.1$.

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Hypothesis 1 and 2 examined the main effect, and proposed that the expression of masculine personality state would result in negative affect, while the expression of feminine personality state would result in positive affect. More specifically, Hypothesis 1 examined whether the expression of masculine personality states is a) negatively related with positive affect and b) positively associated with negative affect. In contrast, Hypothesis 2 investigated whether the expression of feminine personality states is a) positively associated with positive affect and b) negatively with negative affect.

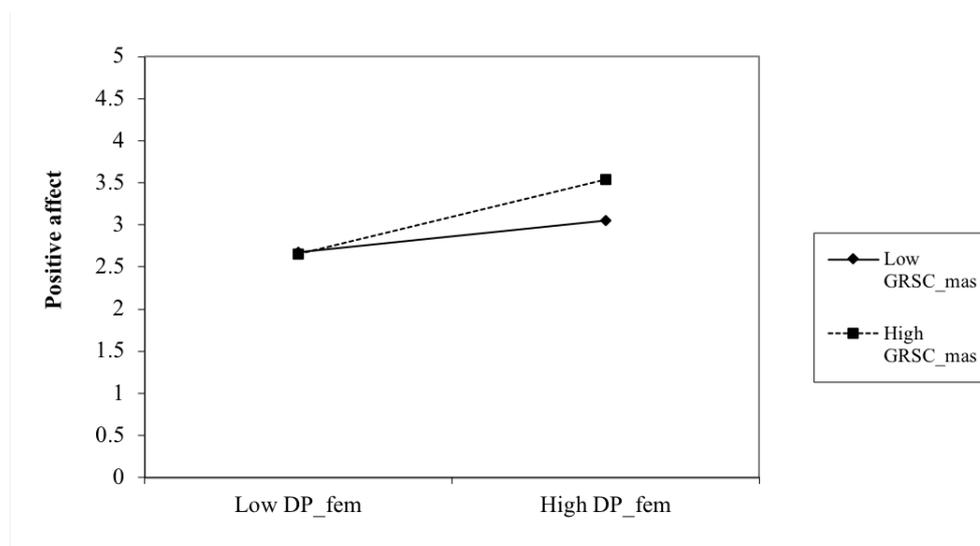
In Table 2, the relationship between the expression of masculine personality states and positive affect is demonstrated. model fit index shows moderate significant improvement between model 1 and model 2 ($\Delta -2\text{Log Likelihood} = 13.94$, $\Delta\text{df} = 1$, $p = 0.001$). The results suggest that there is a significant positive relationship between the expression of masculine personality states and positive affect ($Est = 0.41$, $p = 0.001$). Furthermore, results in Table 4 show a slight improvement in model fit between model 1 and model 2 ($\Delta -2\text{Log Likelihood} = 3.38$, $\Delta\text{df} = 1$, $p = 0.1$), but no significant relationship between the expression of masculine personality states and negative affect. Even though, as expected, there is a slight positive interaction between the expression of masculine personality states and negative affect ($Est = .16$). With that said, Hypothesis 1 stating that the expression of masculine personality states is a) negatively associated with positive affect and b) positively associated with negative affect, was rejected.

As for the Hypothesis 2, Table 3 demonstrates a significant positive relationship between the expression of feminine personality states and positive affect ($Est = 0.60$, $p = 0.001$). In regards to negative affect, Table 5 shows no significant relationship between the expression of feminine personality states and negative affect. Nevertheless, there is a slight negative correlation between the two variables ($Est = -.07$). Model fit index shows a slight improvement of model 2 over model 1. Based on these results, Hypothesis 2 was partially supported. Specifically, we proved that there is a significant positive relationship between the expression of feminine personality states and positive affect (Hypothesis 2a was supported), but there was no significant relationship between the expression of feminine personality states and negative affect (Hypothesis 2b was rejected).

Hypothesis 3 and 4 proposed that the moderator gender role self-concept would have an impact on the relationships proposed in Hypothesis 1 and 2. In order to test for the moderation effect further predictors were entered in model 3, namely gender role self-concept (i.e., female gender role self-concept and male gender role self-concept). The results showed that there was a significant moderation effect of male gender role self-concept on the

relationship between the expression of feminine personality states and positive affect ($Est = .67, p = 0.05$). The results are presented in Table 3 under the column Model 3b. However, there was no significant moderation effect of female gender role self-concept on the above mentioned relationship (Model 3a). As for the model fit, there was a significant improvement of model 3 over model 2 ($\Delta -2\text{Log Likelihood} = 39.19, \Delta df = 2, p = 0.01$). Therefore, Hypothesis 3 was partially supported as gender role self-concept did have a moderation effect on the relationship between the expression of a) feminine personality states and positive affect, but not on the relationship between the expression of b) masculine personality states and positive affect. Nevertheless, contrary to our hypotheses, the positive relationship between the expression of feminine personality states and positive affect was stronger when a male gender role self-concept was more masculine. The interaction has been graphed below in Figure 3 for visual representation of the relationships.

Figure 3. Moderation effect of masculine gender role self-concept on the relationship between the expression of feminine personality states and positive affect.



Hypothesis 4 stated that gender role self-concept would moderate the relationship between the expression of a) feminine and b) masculine personality states and negative affect. The results show no significant moderation effect between the expression of feminine and masculine personality states and negative affect (Table 3). Therefore, Hypothesis 4 was rejected. However, there was a significant positive relationship between the female gender role self-concept and negative affect ($Est = 2.13, p = 0.05$).

Discussion

This study intended to investigate the effect of personality of female leaders on positive and negative affect, as well as further investigating the moderation role of gender role self-concept on this relationship. The main results found were that the expression of feminine versus masculine personality states does have an impact on females' well-being. Specifically, the expression of both – feminine and masculine – personality states are positively associated with positive affect. These findings came as a surprise since one would assume that only congruent behaviour (being a female and expressing feminine personality states) would lead to a positive affect (Mussen, 1969). However, this study suggests that even when female leaders express masculine personality states it leads to a positive affect. Gender role conflict, caused by the incongruity between gender role and the expression of personality states, in this case does not negatively impact subjective well-being, as suggested by many researchers (Glazebrook & Munjas, 1986; Harrison, 1978; Light, 1984; Pleck & Sawyer, 1974; Sekaran, 1985; O'Neil, 1981). One explanation for this could be that due to the entry of women into paid labour, they have changed to accommodate new roles demanded to succeed. Women are becoming more masculine and this shift will continue into the future (Diekmann & Eagly, 2000). Previous research showed that sex differences have started to disappear, especially in relation to leadership. The characteristics and values that were once attributed only to men are now becoming also the characteristics and values of women. The values that women place on job qualities such as freedom, challenge, leadership, prestige, and power (Konrad, Ritchie, Lied, & Corrigan, 2000), the amount of risky behaviour in which women engage (Byrnes, Miller, & Schafer, 1999) as well as career aspirations have become more similar to those of men (Astin, Parrott, Korn, & Sax, 1997). As women are becoming more masculine, yet not decreasing in feminine qualities (Diekmann & Eagly, 2000), one could assume that the expression of both masculine and feminine personality states will lead to an increase in positive affect. In addition, the results indicating a positive relationship between the expression of both feminine and masculine personality states and positive affect, further supports Bem's (1974) androgyny model of mental health. The model states that the combination of masculine and feminine traits best predicts well-being, whereas individuals who are not conventionally sex-typed display better mental flexibility than conventionally sex-typed individuals (Bem, 1974).

Further results of this study support the above mentioned findings as they suggest that the male gender role self-concept moderates the relationship between the expression of feminine personality states and positive affect. The positive relationship is stronger when

female leaders express more feminine personality states, even though they identify themselves as more masculine. According to Twenge (1997) women have not only started to change the values and the behaviour, but they have also started to identify themselves as more assertive, dominant, and masculine. This shows that women might identify themselves as male, whilst acting according to their gender, and the interaction between the two will lead to an increase in positive affect. One explanation for this could be that, even though, female leaders identify themselves as more masculine, to the outside world they are acting according to their gender role. Therefore, they are not violating the female gender role and may be more socially accepted, thereby leading to higher positive affect (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Another explanation for this could also be that in general masculinity is associated with lack of depression and high general adjustment, which is aligned with the masculinity model (Whitley, 1984). The masculinity model, explaining the relationship between sex-role orientation and psychological well-being, proposes that psychological well-being is a function of the extent to which one has a masculine sex-role orientation, irrespective of one's gender (Whitley, 1984).

Lastly, the results suggest that when female gender role self-concept was added to the model together with the expression of masculine personality states it was positively related to negative affect. One could assume that when female leaders identify themselves as feminine, yet they express masculine personality states they show incongruent behaviour. According to the congruency model proposed by Whitley (1984), only the congruent behaviour leads to an increase in positive affect. However, when there is incongruent behaviour this might create an internal clash, resulting in negative affect. The results also support previous research by Chusmir and Koberg (1988) demonstrating a positive relationship between gender role conflict, created by inconsistency between internal values and the external demands imposed by society, and experienced stress (Chusmir & Koberg, 1988). Another explanation could be that, due to gender role inconsistent behaviour, female leaders are exposed to prejudice and negative reactions (Eagly & Karau, 2002), which might result into negative affect.

Theoretical implications

The study at hand contributes to the existing literature in several ways. Firstly, the present study further supports previous findings from Bem (1974) that the combination of both masculine and feminine personality states best predicts well-being (i.e., androgyny model). It also extends the previous knowledge on masculinity model (Bem, 1974) as the results showed that masculine gender role self-concept, when interacting with the expression

of feminine personality states lead to an increase in positive affect. All in all, the results indicate that sex differences are slowly disappearing and that women are taking over masculine personality states (Konrad, Ritchie, Lied, & Corrigan, 2000; Byrnes, Miller, & Schafer, 1999; Astin, Parrott, Korn, & Sax, 1997), without decreasing in feminine qualities.

Another contribution to the existing literature is also the use of situational analysis and the investigation of the micro perspective of the constructs. Whilst the macro perspective focuses only on general tendencies and processes assessed with concurrent and longitudinal assessments, the micro perspective focuses on the situational processes with much shorter time frame by using an experience sampling design. The experience sampling method is a phenomenological approach, where the primary objects of the study are an individual's own thoughts and perceptions of events. It is a strategy used for gathering information of daily life as it occurs (Ohly et al., 2010). In our study, the daily questionnaires have been based on a specific conflict related situation, where female leaders had to act in a certain way and thus express different feminine versus masculine characteristics. Previous studies investigating the consequences of gender role conflict have been mainly cross-sectional studies (Chusmir & Koberg, 1988), where the investigator measured the outcome and the exposures in the study at the same time (Setia, 2016). In this study, we conducted a longitudinal study (i.e., diary study), measuring the outcome over a longer period of time. According to Zirkel, Garcia, & Murphy (2015) the advantage of such a study is that participants report events and experiences in context and in the moment, which minimises the potential for post rationalisation. In addition, diary study offers the ability to study intraindividual change and processes, placing thoughts, feelings, and behaviour in highly specific contexts (Zirkel, Garcia, & Murphy, 2015).

Thirdly, not many researchers have looked at the interaction between gender role self-concept and the expression of masculine and feminine personality states, with the addition of its joint effect on well-being. Chusmir and Koberg (1988) investigated the relationship between gender role conflict and well-being (i.e., stress and role strain) as well as the combination effects of gender and sex role orientation on gender role conflict. The results showed that, in fact, gender role conflict leads to increased stress and role strain, but there was no significant impact of gender and sex role orientation on gender role conflict. In the same study it was also reported that women are exposed to higher gender role conflict than men (Chusmir & Koberg, 1988). We extended this study by looking at the moderation effect of sex role orientation (i.e., gender role self-concept) on the relationship between the expression of masculine versus feminine personality states and subjective well-being.

Additionally, a study by Wolfram, Mohr and Borchert (2009) looked at the relationship between gender role conflict, gender role self-concept and well-being, however, their sample was male population. In contrast, this study specifically investigated the relationship between the above mentioned constructs on female population.

Practical implications

The findings from this research also lead to various practical implications. A study by McKinsey & Company (2008) demonstrated that companies with women in senior positions score higher on their organizational performance criteria not only because of the complementarity and diversity of behaviours but also because of their leadership style. For that reason, understanding the consequences of female leaders' personality expressions on their well-being might help organizations to create a work environment where women can thrive. It would be beneficial for organizations to implement initiatives that attract, support, motivate, retain, and reward female leaders to achieve their potential (KPMG, 2015). This is not only the right way to do it, but a strategic business approach to improving organization's performance via functional diversity and leadership style (Noland, Moran, & Kotschwar, 2016).

Our findings suggest that organizations should try to establish a diverse corporate culture, where each and every employee, whether female or male, contributes to a firm's success with their own sets of skills and characteristics. More specifically, females should be able to express their true self (communal traits – e.g., affection, compassion), and not be forced to take on masculine personality states (agentic traits – e.g., assertiveness, forcefulness). So rather than training female leaders how to take on a specific leadership style, create a corporate climate where subordinates and other employees will accept female leaders and thus create a psychological safety climate¹ for female leaders to express congruent behaviour.

In fact, previous studies showed that there are some leadership styles related more to agentic norms associated with the male gender role and some related more to communal norms associated with the female gender role. Specifically, the behaviour of female leaders, compared to that of male leaders, may be more interpersonally oriented, democratic, and transformational. Whereas the behaviour of male leaders may be more task-oriented,

¹ Psychological safety climate is a shared belief held by teammates that the team is safe for interpersonal risk taking (James et al., 2008).

autocratic, and transactional (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001). In the past, leaders based their authority mainly on their access to political, economic, or military power (Lipman-Blumen, 1996). On the contrary, nowadays good leadership encourages teamwork and collaboration and emphasizes the ability to empower, support, and engage workers (Hammer & Champy, 1994). More to say, these new approaches of leadership propose a reduction in hierarchy and place the leader role more in the role of a coach or teacher (Eagly & Carli, 2003). Many of the above mentioned characteristics of a good leader are in fact associated with females and communion (Johnson, Murphy, Zewdie & Reichard, 2008). All this to say that females should feel safe to express their true self and not be judged by society.

As our findings suggest though, the expression of masculine personality states also leads to an increase in positive affect for female leaders. This shows that female leaders can possess and also express both feminine and masculine personality states, the expression of which, both lead to positive affect. Even though researchers have shown already in 1974 that individuals might be “androgynous”, meaning that they might be both masculine and feminine (Bem, 1974), the belief about strict gender roles is still present. As mentioned above, the definition of an effective leader is already changing (Hammer & Champy, 1994), but in order for female leaders to be fully accepted, organisations have to educate employees to accept diversity and be open for change. The perception of an effective leaders has been for a long time associated with masculinity, for that reason it is senseless to assume that the change will happen instantaneously. Nevertheless, creating a culture of change and providing the resources to cope with the change will lead to a higher readiness for change (Drzensky, Egold & Van Dick, 2012).

Limitations and Future Research

Despite the above mentioned contributions, the study is not without its limitations. One of the biggest limitations preventing to generalize the findings can be seen in the small sample size ($N = 64$). Accordingly, the results of this study should be treated with caution as the power to detect an effect decreases with a small sample size (Maxwell, Kelley, & Rausch, 2008). In order to investigate the discovered trends as well as to reassess some of the hypothesized relationships which were not found to be significant, a larger sample size is necessary.

Another limitation was the study design itself. Even though the compliance and drop-out rates are always an issue in intensive assessment designs such as experience sampling studies (Ohly, et al., 2010), an improvement in the structure of the study could limit this issue.

In our study, participants had to fill in three questionnaires per day for five consecutive days. Having the time frame of only two hours to fill in each questionnaire led to a lot of missing data. Since there was a lot of missing data, mainly due to overload at work and too much stress, it lowered the reliability and validity of the results. Whilst it is understandable that participants might have had a busy schedule and could not always answer the questionnaires within two hours, more answers would greatly increase the value of my results. Not only would the results be more valid and reliable, but also it would give us the possibility to analyse cross-lagged effects in order to understand the causality and not only the correlation between the observed variables (Rogosa, 1980). Additionally, having three questionnaires per day with the same question about the leadership related situation lowered the possibility for an actual leadership situation to even occur in such a short time frame. The choice of the number of assessment points is always a difficult issue, but researchers could in the future assess leadership behaviour on a daily basis (e.g., one questionnaire at the end of the day). With that, female leaders might be exposed to more leadership related situations and could answer the questions more accurately.

Regarding the scales of measurements, it is possible that self-reported biases played a role in the way participant's answered the questions, due to the personal nature of the questions on participant's personality expression. These kinds of biases are likely to augment potential conclusions, and give a less realistic perspective on the topic of study (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, and Podsakoff, 2003) and thus lead to a common method variance. In order to lower the chance for a common method variance, researchers could make use of innovative methodological approaches, such as the validation of self-ratings with ratings by significant others (i.e., subordinates). Furthermore, the study suggests that there are only two types of personality expressions, masculine or feminine – neglecting the importance of androgyny. Androgyny is defined as the combination of masculine and feminine characteristics, where a person might be both assertive and yielding, both instrumental and expressive – depending on the situational appropriateness of these behaviours (Bem, 1974). Adding androgyny into the research framework might for this reason broaden the results and shed a new light on the relationship between personality and well-being relating to female leadership.

An additional area of future research that could be of interest, is extending research on the reasons why the expression of masculine versus feminine personality states lead to a positive or negative affect. As proposed by Eagly and Karau (2002), women in leadership positions are exposed to two types of prejudice which lead to (a) less favourable attitudes toward female than male leaders, (b) greater difficulty for women in attaining leadership

roles, and (c) greater difficulty for women in being recognized as effective in these roles. According to this, one could assume that the negative reactions of people due to prejudice towards female leaders, could mediate the relationship between the expression of feminine versus masculine personality states and well-being. This would contribute to the existing literature (Eagly & Karau, 2002) by investigating how negative reactions and lower possibility for women to achieve success in leadership roles impact their well-being. Studying this in more detail could lead to interesting findings and help organizations to understand how to create a psychological safety climate where female leaders can reach their full potential and contribute to organization's success.

Conclusion

Representation of women in leadership roles across industries is not a new issue. One explanation for the difficulties women experience in reaching and maintaining leadership positions is that the same behaviours exhibited by men and women are perceived differently because of gender roles. Thus there is a dilemma with regard to what is expected from female leaders, as feminine characteristics are less consistent with societal perceptions of successful leaders, hence women tend to be perceived as less fit for a leadership position. As a result, women face a double bind (Eagly & Koenig, 2014).

Overall, the present study contributes to past research by investigating the relationship between the expression of feminine versus masculine personality states and well-being, as well as the moderation effect of gender role self-concept. The results showed that the expression of both feminine and masculine personality states were positively associated with positive affect, which indicates that the difference between the gender roles are disappearing and that both feminine and masculine personality states best predict subjective well-being (Whitley, 1984). What is more, the results also support past literature that women are, especially in leadership context, becoming more similar to men (Konrad, Ritchie, Lied, & Corrigall, 2000; Byrnes, Miller, & Schafer, 1999; Astin, Parrott, Korn, & Sax, 1997), not only in the way they behave, but also how they identify themselves (Twenge, 1997). In fact, the moderation effect showed that the relationship between the expression of feminine personality states and positive affect is stronger when masculine gender role self-concept is high. Additionally, the relationship between the expression of masculine personality states and negative affect is weaker when feminine gender role self-concept is low. The results could be explained by the androgyny model of mental health (Bem, 1974) stating that individuals who are not conventionally sex-typed display better mental flexibility.

Even though the definition of an effective leader is already changing (Hammer & Champy, 1994), there still exists a plethora of unanswered questions on why female leaders, in comparison to male leaders, face a barrier to success. By providing evidence of the positive effects of the expression of masculine and feminine personality states on well-being, the present study has opened the door for future research into the need for diversity in the workplace. Understanding the consequences of female leaders' personality expressions on their well-being might further help organizations to create a work environment where women can thrive.

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