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# **Leadership Self-Views, Employability, and Career Success**

by

Ning MA

A dissertation submitted to Durham University Business School with the requirement for  
the degree of Doctor of Business Administration

Durham, United Kingdom

February 2026

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I am solely responsible for any errors or omissions that remain.

## Abstract

This thesis examines how leadership self-views - leader identity and leader self-efficacy - influence career outcomes among Chinese mid-career MBA participants and alumni through three independent studies. Using a cross-sectional design in Study 1 (N = 182), it was found that both self-views are positively and significantly associated with career outcomes, with leader self-efficacy showing stronger effects ( $R^2$  up to 28%). Employability fully mediates leader identity's effects and partially mediates leader self-efficacy's effects. Study 2 (N = 121) adopted a time-lagged design with leader identity and leader self-efficacy measured twice before and six months after the MBA education. Leader identity increased by 14.3 % and leader self-efficacy by 5.6 %. Cross-lagged SEM analyses showed that leader identity was stable and increased subsequent self-efficacy, whereas self-efficacy exhibited weaker stability. At Time 2, both leadership self-view constructs are positively related to the both career outcomes via employability. Study 3 (N = 81) again uses a cross-sectional design with alumni participants. The findings replicated the patterns and showed full mediation for both leadership self-views. Moderation evidence varied considerably across the three studies. The moderation effects of motivation to lead (both aggregate and subscales) and gender are tested in all three studies, showing mixed results. For job tenure and work centrality, that are tested only in Study 3, job tenure was found to strengthen the self-efficacy path only, while work centrality does not show any statistically significant moderation effect. Collectively, the findings establish self-perceived employability as an important mediating mechanism linking leadership self-views to positive career development outcomes. The results also point to MBA programs as effective identity workspaces. The study informs the design of leadership developmental interventions that simultaneously build leader identity, leader self-efficacy,

and employability to enhance mid-career professionals' satisfaction and success in both educational and organizational contexts.



## **Chapter One Introduction**

### **1.1 Research Background**

Effective leadership and leadership skills development are the top priorities for all types of organizations and firms worldwide (Day et al., 2014) with organizational leadership being considered more and more as a critical success differentiator (Gentry et al., 2014). Firms and organizations continuously seek the best talent and embark on different leadership development programs for enhanced leadership effectiveness (Amagoh, 2009). Despite increasing leadership training budget, companies and organizations still report a lack of effective leaders and leadership capabilities in their employees (Schwartz et al., 2014). This challenge is particularly strong in the Chinese business environment, which is characterized by high uncertainty, intense market competition, and increasing globalization after decades of rapid economic growth.

The evolving business landscape has also witnessed the changing career nature from job security to employability. The traditional psychological contract of lifetime employment is replaced by the concept of employability, which refers to an individual's capabilities to continuously grow and adjust based on the market situation, and maintain their attractiveness to employers (Fugate, Kinicki, & Ashforth, 2004). As a result, mid-career professionals proactively cultivate their human capital to signal their value in the labor market for employability. Many choose to pursue graduate management education in business schools, specifically Master of Business Administration (MBA) programs, not just to acquire knowledge, but as a strategic step to enhance their professional standing and career prospects (Streb, 2006). In addressing this developmental need, it is important to distinguish the leadership self-views examined in this study, specifically identity and

efficacy (Day & Dragoni, 2014), from self-leadership, which refers to a distinct set of behavioral self-regulation strategies rather than the internal self-concept (Harari et al., 2021).

Leadership development is a broad term that includes almost every form of growth, covering all development stages that help, promote, and enhance an individual's leadership potential. It includes formal, structured, as well as informal, and unstructured learning activities, and life experiences across an individual's entire lifespan (Huber, 2002). Leadership training has been empirically proven to successfully drive within-person leader identity change for participants of different ages (Middleton et al., 2019). Formal and structured leadership courses can help participants better understand their strengths and weaknesses, and eventually enhance self-views (Liu et al., 2020). Leader self-views entail leadership self-efficacy, self-awareness, and leader identity (Day & Dragoni, 2014). According to Day & Dragoni (2014), leader-self views and leadership knowledge, skill, and abilities (KSAs) are important proximal leadership developmental indicators that lead to distal outcomes, including integrating multiple capabilities and competencies to navigate complex and challenging leadership tasks.

Leader identity in organizations is gaining greater importance (Epitropaki et al., 2017). Identifying with the leader role is critical for an individual to sustain the motivation to lead and to embrace leadership developmental opportunities (Lord & Hall, 2005). According to Bass & Bass (2009), active leaders assume major responsibilities, and there is a positive relationship between leader behaviors, including direction, change behavior, task orientation, participation, consideration, and relationship orientation. Variations in leader identity could explain differences in leadership behaviors (Rus et al.,

2010). Identity workplaces are contexts where individuals may work on their identities in a supportive environment. They are social settings that are purposefully designed to support the growth and maintenance of leaders' identities (Ibarra et al., 2014; Petriglieri & Petriglieri, 2010). Petriglieri and Petriglieri (2010) assert that because of the increased fluidity and instability of modern corporate environments, there is a need for different settings where managers can actively participate in establishing and preserving their professional identities. And business schools are becoming more widely acknowledged as significant identity workplaces.

## **1.2 Research Motivation**

Global business schools consistently highlight leadership development and better career prospects as defining elements of their value propositions. With a structured and supportive environment, they function as identity workspaces where participants step back from routine, navigate career transitions, experiment with new leader identities, and ultimately consolidate a clearer and more confident sense of who they are becoming (Petriglieri & Petriglieri, 2010). As corporate careers grow increasingly fluid and unstable, such alternative settings become essential for managers to actively shape and sustain their professional identities.

Having worked within the graduate business school sector for many years, I have witnessed thousands of mid-career professionals enrolled in MBA programs with the explicit goal of transforming themselves into future leaders. Marketing materials and curriculum learning goals frequently promise this transformation, yet the mechanism of how this development occurs—and whether it translates into tangible career outcomes—often relies more on anecdotal evidence than empirical verification.

The primary motivation for this thesis is to find empirical evidence to support business school promises for enhancement of both leadership and career prospects. While business schools excel at teaching the cognitive aspects of management through courses including Strategy, Finance, Marketing, Operations, etc., the internal psychological transformation of the students specifically the shift in how they view themselves as leaders (leader identity) and their confidence in that role (leader self-efficacy) is not well understood. In addition, understanding how these enhanced leadership self-views help to translate into better career development indicators also necessitate careful exploration. This study seeks to bridge the gap between the promise of leadership development and the proof of its impact on employability and career success.

### **1.3 Research Context**

The study has been conducted in Shanghai, China, with the majority of the participants recruited from the part-time Finance MBA program at an independent graduate business school. Jointly established by the Chinese government and the European Union in 1994, the school is considered one of the top schools in Asia and the most prestigious and selective business school in the country. The school has seven degree programs with a total annual enrollment of 1,000, and an executive education program with annual participants of about 20,000.

The part-time FMBA cohort represents a unique demographic of high-potential mid-career talent. With a mission to develop future leaders who can navigate finance and industrial organizations, the program is designed for those who are in the transition period from middle to senior level. Participants in the program have an average age of 34 upon enrollment and possess on average 10 years working experience and 5 years of

managerial experiences. They hold full-time positions in the finance industry or finance-related positions in non-finance industries. The research context has provided a rigorous education setting to examine the evolution of leader identity and leader self-efficacy and their relationships with career advancement indicators.

#### **1.4 Research Gaps**

Although there is extensive literature on leadership and leadership development, there are some research gaps in understanding how leadership self-views evolve and influence career trajectories, particularly within the context of management education in emerging markets.

First, there is a lack of time-lagged evidence in leadership development. Although theoretical frameworks identify leader identity and self-efficacy as proximal indicators of development (Day & Dragoni, 2014), there is a scarcity of empirical research that tracks how these leadership self-views evolve within structured business education settings. There also lacks understanding regarding the time required for these outcomes to develop. Existing research has explicitly called for more longitudinal inquiry to understand these developmental trajectories rather than relying solely on cross-sectional snapshots (Vogel et al., 2020).

Second, more integrative research on multiple constructs would be valuable. Caza, Vough, and Puranik (2018) stated that much organization research focuses only on identities. They called for more work examining the interplay of multiple identities and their effects on the identity process. A recent review further noted that leader identity research would benefit from greater theoretical integration and from positioning leader identity within larger empirical models (Hammond et al., 2025). This thesis investigates

the relationship among multiple constructs, specifically leader identity, leader self-efficacy, motivation to lead, and their connection to distal career outcomes (Chan & Drasgow, 2001).

Third, middle-level leadership remains a significantly under-researched domain. A review of empirical leadership studies revealed that only a small fraction (approximately 7%) focused on middle-level leadership, compared to the vast majority focusing on top-level or lower-level management (DeChurch et al., 2010). A critical gap exists in understanding the functional nature of leadership at this level, specifically regarding how high-influence individual contributors construct their leader identities during critical career transitions (Morgeson et al., 2010).

Finally, the majority of leadership scholarship is grounded in Western contexts, primarily focusing on Western populations. A recent scoping review found that existing leadership scholarship is predominantly focused on middle-class white men (Orsini & Sunderman, 2024). There is a significant gap in understanding these processes within diverse cultural contexts, particularly in China. Chinese executives face distinct emotional and professional challenges resulting from decades of rapid economic growth (Han & Liang, 2015), yet their leadership development trajectories remain under-explored compared to their counterparts in developed economies.

## **1.5 Research Questions**

To address these identified gaps, the thesis aims to address the following research questions:

1. How effective is a structured leadership development program, such as the MBA, in helping to improve participants' leadership self-views?

2. To what extent do leadership self-views contribute to improved career outcomes?
3. How do individual differences and contextual variables moderate the direct and indirect relationships between leadership self-views and career outcomes?

Altogether, seven hypotheses have been developed based on the literature review to address these research questions.

The research consists of three separate studies with a combination of cross-sectional and time-lagged data collected over 14 months from mid-career professionals who are either enrolled part-time finance MBA students or graduates. Besides the change of leader identity and leader self-efficacy over time after participation in the MBA program, the study also evaluated the mediating role of employability and the moderation effects of multiple constructs, including motivation to lead, work centrality, job tenure, and gender. The study aims to expand the empirical literature on leader identity development and to measure the effectiveness of business school as an identity workplace (Petriglieri and Petriglieri, 2010). By combining leadership-related factors with employability and career satisfaction indices, the research also broadens the research on middle-level leader development in both business school and corporate training contexts.

### **1.6 Expected Contributions**

The thesis is expected to expand the current research on leadership development with a career perspective in the Chinese context. The foundation of modern careers and leadership revolves around being conscious of oneself, others, and the surrounding environment (Parker & Carroll, 2009). In addition, the study will also contribute to leader identity research from the dimensions below.

First, with a combination of time-lagged and cross-sectional design, the thesis would enrich empirical identity research to unveil how leader identity evolves in a structured business education setting. There are limited empirical studies, especially time-lagged research related to self-views and leadership development (Day, 2000; Day & Harrison, 2007; Lord & Hall, 2005). Based on Day & Dragoni's (2014) multi-level leadership development framework, leader identity and leader efficacy are the proximal leadership development indicators at the individual level. The study is expected to provide empirical evidence for the theoretical framework. In addition, in the bibliometric review of the leadership development field, Vogel et al. (2021) pointed out that there is a lack of an empirical understanding of the time required for an individual to develop desired outcomes, including knowledge, skills, abilities, as well as leader self-efficacy and competencies (Vogel 2021). The time-lagged design of study 2 in the current research has provided some empirical evidence on the improvement of leader identity and leader self-efficacy in a six-month period after the MBA study.

Second, the study is expected to enrich empirical identity research with multiple constructs. In the comprehensive review about identity work, Caza, Vough, & Puranik (2018) call for more integrative research that examines the interplay of multiple identities and their effects on identity process. In the current study, a detailed analysis is planned to identify the relationship among multiple constructs, including motivation to lead from three dimensions – affective, non-calculative, and social normative, leader self-efficacy, leader identity, as well as employability and career success. Existing empirical studies on leader identity development only cover limited constructs. For example, Day & Sin (2011) measured the impact of goal orientation and leader development trajectories.

Middleton, Walker, and Reichard (2018) used a one-item leader identity measure to improve the response rate to track the change of leader identity of 39 director-level organizational leaders over a 5-month leadership development program with 12 times 299 data points. Though the reliability and convergent validity of the one-item measure were assessed with a random sample of 439 out of 35,000 leaders from an online database with a test-retest strong positive correlation between time 1 and time 2 data ( $r = .68, p < .001$ ), and the one-item data were collected from Time 1 and Time 2 ( $r = .64, p < .001$ ) (Middleton et al., 2019). The current study is expected to enrich the empirical research with a full set of measures from established literature. In the meta-analysis of the predictors of both subjective and objective career success, Ng et al. (2005) called for more research to identify a broader and more diverse range of predictors. The study is also expected to enrich theoretical models that predict various dimensions of career success and the moderating effect of gender in the relationship between predictor variables, including leader identity, leader self-efficacy, and career success as the outcome variable (T. W. H. Ng et al., 2005). Besides exploring the impact of leadership development on employability (Parker & Carroll, 2009), the study will also deepen our understanding of the impact of job tenure, work centrality, and gender on the relationship between employability and subjective career success (Heijden et al., 2009).

Third, the study is expected to advance mid-level leadership research. Mid-level leadership is an under-researched domain. A literature review with 1,161 empirical leadership studies linking leadership with outcomes in 11 top journals for 25 years from 1985 to 2009 reviewed that only 7.25% of the studies focused on middle-level leadership, while 34.43% were about top-level, 16.74% were about lower-level, while 24% of the

empirical studies did not clarify the level of leadership (DeChurch et al., 2010). Top-level leaders are those who report directly to the board of directors, lower-level managers supervise and support employees at the lowest level, and middle-level leaders are those who fulfill their goals by coordinating with other units within the organization while managing their subordinate groups (DeChurch et al., 2010). All three studies in the current research will gather data from mid-career part-time MBA students and alumni who hold full-time middle-level manager positions. With an average age of 34 upon enrollment, most of the participants are in the process of developing from middle-level to top-level positions. Empirical findings from the study participants would enrich the literature on the leadership development of middle-level managers.

Fourth, the study would broaden the geographic coverage of identity work research to China with seasoned business professionals, addressing the need for more diverse cultural contexts (Caza et al., 2018). In a scoping review of the leadership identity development and meaning making with 100 journal articles, Orsini and Sunderman (2024) found that the existing leadership scholarship is mostly about middle-class white men. There is a significant research gap in understanding the process of marginalized social identities, which include race, gender, and nationality (Orsini & Sunderman, 2024). Some of the current empirical studies on identity development have young student samples. For example, in Miscenko, Guenter, and Day's (2017) study, the participants were 98 Dutch postgraduate students with an average age of 23.4 and 1.5 years of working experience before enrolling in the program. Day & Sin (2011) recruited first-year undergraduate students from a university in the Pacific Rim in the longitudinal test of leader identity development. Compared with their counterparts from developed

economies, executives from China face more emotional challenges as a result of over 30 years of double-digit economic growth (Han & Liang, 2015). It would be interesting to uncover the leader development trajectory of Chinese executives with participants of the study who are established high-caliber talent in China's labor market.

Finally, from a practical perspective, the study has systematically tracked the leader identity and leader self-efficacy change in the business education context. Students in graduate business school are in their leader development trajectory (Lawrence et al., 2018). MBA has an established reputation for developing future leaders (Garcia, 2009) and bridging the gap in participants' leadership development cycle (Lawrence et al., 2018). Besides, an MBA would also help with graduates' career advancement with both tangible and intangible advancement (Baruch, 2009). Petriglieri and Petriglieri (2010) consider business schools as identity workspaces that offer a nurturing setting in which people can participate in the social, emotional, and cognitive processes required to develop and solidify their leader identities. With a time-lagged research design, the study has incorporated the pre- and post-study measurement related to students' proximal leadership development indices, combining with career outcome measures, which has addressed the limitation related to leadership development research with part-time MBA students as the participants (Gao et al., 2011). The empirical findings will help to provide evidence of how participants' leader identity and leader efficacy have evolved at different points along the study journey in the business school context as the identity workplace, and how the change in leader identity and leader efficacy is related to self-perceived career success and employability. The inclusion of participants' traits constructs and demographics, such as motivation to lead, work centrality, job tenure, and gender, would

potentially enhance the generalizability of the findings, which benefit both academic institutions and various organizations in candidate selection and leadership curriculum development, and training initiatives.

## **1.7 Thesis Structure**

This thesis contains six chapters. They follow a logical flow from the research background to the final conclusions.

Chapter One is Introduction. This chapter sets the scene. It highlights the shortage of leadership talent in China. It discusses the shift from job security to employability. The chapter outlines the motivation for the research. It identifies gaps in current studies, especially regarding middle-level managers. Finally, it lists the specific research questions.

Chapter Two is Literature Review. This chapter reviews existing research. It covers leader development and identity. It defines the key concepts of leader identity and leader self-efficacy. The chapter distinguishes these self-views from self-leadership. It also reviews literature on employability and career success.

Chapter Three covers Theoretical Framework and Hypotheses Development. This chapter builds the study's theoretical base. It uses Day and Dragoni's Multilevel Framework as the main lens. It integrates Social Cognitive Theory and Identity Theory. The Heuristic Model of Employability connects these concepts to career outcomes. The chapter concludes by proposing seven specific hypotheses.

Chapter Four is Research Design and Methodology. This chapter details the methods used. It explains the postpositivist philosophical worldview. It describes the research design, which uses both cross-sectional and time-lagged data. The chapter

describes the sampling strategy, targeting mid-career MBA students. It also covers the survey instruments and data analysis techniques.

Chapter Five is dedicated to Research Findings. This chapter presents results from three separate studies. Study 1 reports on cross-sectional data from graduating students. Study 2 uses a time-lagged design to track changes over six months. Study 3 extends the research to a broader alumni group. This chapter reports data validity, including CFA and T-tests, and tests the hypotheses.

Chapter Six is Discussions and Conclusion. The final chapter interprets the findings. It discusses how leader identity and self-efficacy influence career outcomes. It explains the mediating role of employability. The chapter reviews the effects of moderators like gender and tenure. Finally, it offers practical advice for educators and suggests directions for future research.

## **Chapter Two: Literature Review**

This chapter reviews literature on leader and leadership development, leader self-views (leader identity and leader self-efficacy), leadership development readiness, and employability and career success. Drawing primarily on identity-based perspectives and social cognitive theory, the chapter develops hypotheses concerning (a) changes in leader self-views during MBA participation and (b) the associations between leader self-views, employability, and career outcomes. Employability is theorized as a key mechanism linking leadership self-views to career success, while individual differences are examined as boundary conditions. The chapter concludes with a summary of the literature, establishing the foundation for the theoretical framework introduced in Chapter Three.

### **2.1 Leader and Leadership Development**

According to Day and Dragoni (2014), leader development and leadership development are different in terms of focus, objectives, and levels of analysis. Leader development happens at the individual level, with an aim to enhance personal capacity through the cultivation of competencies, such as self-awareness, leader self-efficacy, and leader identity. Leadership development is defined as the extension of the collective capacity of an organization in leadership processes, including setting directions, formulating alignment, and upholding commitment through relationships and social processes. In this approach, leadership is considered a shared phenomenon shaped by interactions among team members rather than the capabilities of a single individual (Day & Dragoni, 2014). (Day, 2000)(Mumford et al., 2000)

Leader development is a dynamic process in that a leader's self-views interact with the context and experiences towards the acquisition of leadership capabilities and honing of leadership potential (Liu et al., 2020). It reflects an individual model of leadership, has a human capital focus, and is underpinned by an enhancement of critical personal skills, including identity, self-regulation, self-awareness, self-motivation, and an improvement of intrapersonal competencies (Day, 2000; McDermott et al., 2011). McCauley and Velsor (2004) consider leader development part of leadership development. It refers to the expansion of an individual's capacity and effectiveness in engaging in leadership roles and processes (Day, 2000; Day & Dragoni, 2014; McCauley & Velsor, 2004). A leader's career stage is found to influence the skill required and leader development (Riggio & Mumford, 2011). Leadership development is considered a relational model of leadership with a focus on social capital. Leadership development is a progressive and systematic process (Mumford et al., 2000) and happens in different circumstances (Day, 2000). It is grounded on the improvement of core interpersonal competencies and social skills, including conflict management and social awareness (Day, 2000; Day & Dragoni, 2014).

### 2.1.1 Multilevel Leadership Development Framework

Day and Dragoni (2014) proposed a multilevel framework of leadership development processes and outcomes (See Table 2.1). At the individual leader development level, individual capabilities could be enhanced through individual experience or interventions. The proximal developmental indicators at this level include leadership self-efficacy, self-awareness, leader identity, and leadership knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSA). With continued practice and support, the distal outcomes at the

individual level will emerge, including meaning-making structures, processes, and dynamic skills and abstractions. At the team level, the leadership development of collective capabilities could be cultivated through interventions and collective experiences with proximal developmental indicators, including shared mindset, knowledge of team members' expertise, psychological safety, and team learning. Through intensive interpersonal interactions, collective leadership capacity will be developed as distal collective outcomes (Day & Dragoni, 2014).

Table 2.1 Multilevel Framework of Leadership Development Processes and Outcomes

<b>Developmental Level</b>	<b>Proximal Indicators</b>	<b>Distal Indicators</b>
Individual	Leadership Self-efficacy; Self-awareness, Leader Identity, Leadership KSAs	Dynamic skills and abstractions, meaning-making structures and processes;
Team	Psychological safety, Knowledge of team members' expertise, shared mindset, and team learning.	Collective leadership capability

*Note: Adapted from Day & Dragoni (2014).*

### 2.1.2 Leader Development Levels

Lord and Hall (2005) proposed another important theoretical model of leadership development. They categorized leaders into three levels based on knowledge: novice, intermediate, and expert. There exist qualitative changes in both knowledge and process, accompanied by skill development from novice level to intermediate and expert level (Chi et al., 1981). Leaders with different skill levels show differences in knowledge use, content, and access. In terms of knowledge use, novice-level leaders rely heavily on working memory to process and come up with novel responses that connect generic knowledge with context. Intermediate-level leaders use more of the connectionist networks with fewer uniquely created solutions, demonstrating integration with the meta-

cognition processes. While expert-level leaders would collaborate more with others and rely to a greater degree on the understanding of the situation. In terms of knowledge content, novice-level leaders have vague leadership theories and heuristics, resulting in generic problem-solving and leadership behaviors. Intermediate-level leaders have developed domain-specific knowledge content with more targeted problem-solving and leadership behaviors. Expert-level leaders have accumulated principle-level knowledge and possess a deeper understanding of others and underlying principles. In terms of knowledge access, novice-level leaders, in general, are cued by surface-level features of the problem; they view themselves as the leader with a primary focus on individual-level identities. Intermediate-level leaders, besides all the characteristics of novice leaders, could match the social context with patterns in connectionist networks. They start to possess the metacognitive capacity and can adjust their behaviors better based on feedback received. On top of the features of both novice and intermediate leaders, expert-level leaders' knowledge access could also be cued by a principal understanding of the context and others in terms of emotions, values, and identities (Lord & Hall, 2005).

Table 2.2 Identity Level of Leaders with Different Skill Levels

<b>Skill Level</b>	<b>Identity Level</b>
Novice	Individual identity, sensitive to social feedback, concerned about being recognized as a leader by others
Intermediate	Shift to have a context view to have collective or relationship identities.
Expert	alternative value-based identities based on abstract principles

*Note: Adapted from Lord & Hall (2005).*

Successful integration of a leader's identity could effectively predict leadership effectiveness (Day & Sin, 2011). And it is critical to unveil differences in leader identity between individuals (Rehbock et al., 2022). Leaders at different levels vary in identities

besides the differences in skill domains in terms of task, emotional, social, meta-monitoring, and value orientations. Novice leaders pay more attention to individual identities and the identities of their followers. They are concerned with being recognized and accepted as leaders by others and are quite sensitive to social feedback, with the drive to differentiate themselves from other potential leaders. The social process helps to validate the novice leader's self-view of being a leader. Positive social feedback would motivate novice leaders to pursue more leadership behaviors with a strengthened leader identity, while negative social feedback would undermine the individual's self-view as a leader. With the development of meta-monitoring and self-monitoring skills, an intermediate-level leader would shift to having a context view to have collective or relationship identities. Expert-level leaders would demonstrate a contingent capability to promote and enact alternative identities with the accumulation of additional experiences. They normally hold value-based identities based on abstract principles (Lord & Hall, 2005).

### 2.1.3 Longitudinal Development of Leadership

Leader development is a continuous process across a person's entire lifespan (Liu et al., 2020). It is a lifelong journey that an individual makes, meaning and translates experiences which will then help the individual to improve his/her understanding of self and progressive leader development (Avolio, 2004; Russell, 2005).

Liu, Venkatesh, Murphy, and Riggio (2021) presented a leader development framework exploring significant developmental experiences across the entire lifespan. Defining from a developmental psychology perspective, a person's life span is divided into 6 stages: preschool (0-6 years), childhood (6-12 years), adolescence (12-18 years),

and 3 adulthood periods – emerging adulthood (18-30 years), adulthood (30-60 years), and late adulthood (past 60 years) (Murphy & Johnson, 2011). People have different genetic predispositions and foundational traits for the propensity to emerge and to further develop as a leader (Zaccaro et al., 2018). Important work and life experiences, especially developmental events, are powerful and important triggers for leader development (DeRue & Wellman, 2009). Through a life narrative approach, Ligon, Hunter, and Mumford (2008) analyzed biographies of 120 prominent 20<sup>th</sup>-century leaders and examined the correlation between each leader's early life developmental events and their respective leadership styles. Findings indicated type and content of developmental events were linked with the respective leader's leadership style, from charismatic, ideological, to pragmatic, as well as with socialized or personalized orientation (Ligon et al., 2008). At each of the 6 developmental stages across a person's lifespan, critical developmental experiences vary. Leadership courses, leading in activities, internships, and first jobs are important developmental experiences in early adulthood, while leader development programs, the developmental challenge at work, marriage and parenthood, and purpose-seeking activities are critical leader developmental experiences in adulthood, which are also the purpose-driven stage. At the final late adulthood legacy-making stage, leadership succession, leadership coaching, and retirement are important developmental activities (Liu et al., 2020).

#### 2.1.4 Leader and Leadership in the Asian Context

Recent research highlights the significant impact of contextual factors on leadership and its outcomes, emphasizing the need for theories that address the unique dynamics within different cultural contexts, such as Asia and China (Bruning & Tung,

2013; Dorfman et al., 1997; Gao et al., 2011; Jones, 2006; Oc, 2018). According to Bruning and Tung (2013), in an editorial discussing five papers on leadership development and global talent management in the Asian context, including firm control, identification of managerial competencies, and leadership development approaches, the overall view is that convergent practices are more necessary in the face of globalization, as companies must maintain global competitiveness by adopting the best available practices and principles. However, the continued divergence of practices among different countries highlights the need for a polycontextual approach, allowing for the appropriate adaptation and application of best practices developed in one context to another setting (Bruning & Tung, 2013; Glinow et al., 2004). Furthermore, rapid economic growth in Asia has resulted in a managerial talent shortage, with a mere 11% of human capital executives in Asia successfully identifying and accelerating leadership talent (Bruning & Tung, 2013). In a study examining leadership across cultures, Dorfman et al. (1997) explore the universality and cultural specificity of leadership behaviors, focusing on North America and Asia. The authors emphasize the need for culturally relevant leadership development. While supportive, contingent reward, and charismatic leadership behaviors are universally effective, others, such as directive, participative, and contingent punishment behaviors, require cultural adaptation (Dorfman et al., 1997). Besides, the anthropological perspective on leadership development highlights the role of cultural and historical contexts, viewing leadership development programs as ritual processes that address social and economic conflicts (Jones, 2006). According to Jones (2006), leadership development in China is characterized by social stability, harmony, hierarchy, and collectivism. While Chinese leadership development programs may adopt some

Western business models, they are likely to remain distinctively Chinese, shaped by cultural and historical factors. Zhang, Chen, Chen, and Ang (2014) examine the unique characteristics of leadership development in China. As a result of rapid economic growth in the country, the business environment is characterized by high uncertainty, market competition, and evolving government policies. According to Zhang et al. (2014), the Chinese leadership research can be categorized into three streams: direct applications of Western theories, contextual adaptations, and indigenous theorizing, such as paternalistic leadership. Besides, the leadership practices approaches are increasingly affected by the younger generations' changing values, which are more individualistic and influenced by Western culture (Z. Zhang et al., 2014).

Chinese business leaders have played a pivotal role in the country's economic growth, necessitating an understanding of leadership that integrates both indigenous theories and adaptations of Western models (Z. Zhang et al., 2014). Studies reveal that leadership effectiveness is not only influenced by individual traits but also by organizational contexts, including culture, goals, processes, and structure (Porter & McLaughlin, 2006). Moreover, leadership in China has evolved alongside the transformation of firms and the institutional environment. Leaders have shifted from relying on political connections (*guanxi*) to adopting more professional and globally oriented approaches, especially as Chinese firms have expanded internationally (Z. Zhang et al., 2014). van Dick and Kerschreiter (2016) offer a thorough summary of the social identity approach to leadership in different cultural contexts, including China. According to the authors, leaders who are viewed as representing their group's identity—that is, leaders who exemplify the ideal of leadership—are better at winning over followers and

promoting favourable organizational results. This is especially true in collectivistic societies like China, where social and organizational dynamics are heavily influenced by group identity. The study also emphasizes how crucial it is for leaders to manage their groups' identities, which involves promoting group goals, actively forming group identities, and emphasising group identities in everyday organisational operations (Dick & Kerschreite, 2016). The findings suggest that leadership strategies grounded in social identity theory are likely to be especially impactful in the Chinese cultural context, where collective identity is highly valued.

## **2.2 Identity and Leadership Development**

Identity plays a crucial role in leader development as it is believed to drive individuals to pursue developmental experiences and opportunities to practice essential leadership behaviors (Miscenko et al., 2017). Stryker and Burke (2000) reviewed the evolution of identity theory, presenting two complementary strands that have developed over time. The first strand, prominently associated with Stryker, emphasizes the linkage between social structures and identities, exploring how societal frameworks shape individual identities and subsequently influence social behaviors. This structural perspective posits that identities are deeply rooted in the roles individuals occupy within their social networks, with the concept of identity salience being pivotal. Identity salience refers to the probability of an identity being activated across various situations, heavily influenced by the degree of commitment to particular roles and relationships (S. Stryker & Burke, 2000). On the other hand, Burke's strand of identity theory concentrates on the internal process of self-verification, wherein individuals strive to confirm their identities through their actions and interactions. This cognitive approach highlights the dynamic

nature of identity processes, highlighting how identities guide behavior to achieve self-verification, which in turn reinforces social structures. Burke's framework involves key components such as identity standards, situational perceptions, and a comparator mechanism that aligns behavior with identity standards to achieve self-verification (S. Stryker & Burke, 2000). Stryker and Burke (2000) also effectively integrate these two strands, arguing that social structures and self-verification processes are interdependent. Social structures influence the internal dynamics of self-verification, while successful self-verification reinforces and sustains these structures. This integrative approach provides a comprehensive understanding of the reciprocal relationship between self and society (S. Stryker & Burke, 2000). Besides identity salience, Stryker and Serpe (1982) also introduced the concept of commitment, which refers to the degree to which a person's social relationships are dependent on occupying specific roles. Using data from the 1978 Indianapolis Area Project, Stryker and Serpe (1982) measure variables such as religious commitment, identity salience, and time spent in religious activities. The study finds strong support for their theoretical framework, demonstrating that higher commitment and identity salience are significantly associated with increased role-related behavior (Sheldon Stryker & Serpe, 1982).

Ibarra, Wittman, Petriglieri, & Day (2014) summarize leadership implications for the three identity theories, namely identity theory, social identity theory, and social construction theory. Identity theory highlights the importance of role-taking and social validation in leader identity formation. In this framework, the perception of oneself as a leader is reinforced through social interactions and the enactment of leadership roles, creating a feedback loop that strengthens leader identity over time. This aligns with Lord

and Hall's (2005) concept that leadership development is a proactive process requiring motivation and interest from the potential leader. It involves sustained effort over months and years, integrating cognitive, emotional, and social skills with a deep understanding of self and others. Social Identity Theory emphasizes group membership, suggesting that leaders are seen as prototypical members who embody group values and norms, thus gaining influence (Hogg, 2001). This theory frames leadership as an emergent property of group dynamics rather than individual traits. Leaders gain influence by representing the identity of the group and being perceived as embodying its values and norms, thereby becoming a focal point for group identity and cohesion (Ibarra et al., 2014). DeRue & Ashford (2010) propose a theory on the social construction of leadership identities within organizations. They assert that leadership identity is co-constructed through a dynamic process of claiming and granting leader and follower identities. This reciprocal role adoption leads to the internalization of these identities, which are relationally recognized and collectively endorsed within the organizational context (DeRue & Ashford, 2010). Leader identity, together with leadership self-efficacy, self-awareness, and leadership knowledge, skills, and abilities, are proximal individual leadership development indicators (Day & Dragoni, 2014). Leader identity is the sub-component of an individual's identity associated with being a leader or the degree to which one thinks of him/herself as being a leader (Day & Harrison, 2007). In a multilevel review of the leadership and followership identity process, Epitropaki, Kark, Mainemelis, and Lord (2017) defined leader identity as "a sub-component of one's working self-concept that includes leadership schemas, leadership experiences, and future representations of oneself as a leader" (p. 107). Changes in leader identity are connected with changes in

self-perceived leadership effectiveness (Miscenko et al., 2017). An individual needs to engage actively in identity construction or identity work so that leader identity becomes a salient part of his/her working self-concept (Epitropaki et al., 2017). With the progression of leadership performance from novice to intermediate and expert levels, the change in one's leadership skills is reflected in the underlying changes in the associated knowledge structure and information processing capabilities (Lord & Hall, 2005). Day and Harrison (2007) argued that a multilevel leadership development perspective could be established on identity or self. It is important to develop a more inclusive concept of self in leadership development (Day & Harrison, 2007). Leaders at different skill levels vary in their leader identities with different levels of inclusiveness from individual to collective at different developmental stages (Lord & Hall, 2005).

A potential leader will need to be proactive to seek leadership development opportunities; therefore, the individual's desire to be a leader and the motivation to lead are critical in the leadership development process (Chan & Drasgow, 2001). Self-knowledge is a critical function in leadership development. The individual needs to incorporate the leadership role into his/her self-identity to sustain the long-term complex leadership development and practice process (Lord & Hall, 2005). Identity is considered an important motivational and directional source that determines the efforts a leader is willing to make voluntarily in developmental situations (Lord & Hall, 2005). In some cases, there are some risks associated with the leadership attempt. Over the leadership development process, leadership skills and knowledge are integrated closely with the individual's self-concept development as a leader (Lord & Hall, 2005). People develop identities through social roles and personal identities in a group. Social and personal

factors determine how an individual views him/herself as a leader (Day & Dragoni, 2014).

A successful leadership development program will actively reduce identity uncertainty and effectively manage identity tensions (Epitropaki et al., 2017). For example, Day & Sin (2011) conducted a longitudinal study with 1,315 first-year undergraduate students aged on average 20.17 across two consecutive terms from a required course focusing on leadership and team building in a Pacific Rim university. There were 4 data collection points. Students' ratings of their goal orientation and leader identity were collected in 1<sup>st</sup> time period, while leader identity measures were collected repetitively in the 2<sup>nd</sup> and the 4<sup>th</sup> time periods. Participants' leadership effectiveness ratings were given by their respective team advisors and were collected at all four time periods. The findings indicated significant between-person differences in leadership ratings at the initial levels and in the development trajectories both linearly and quadratically. Besides, learning orientation positively predicted ( $\beta = 0.056$ ) the initial leadership, but negatively ( $\beta = -0.042, p < 0.05$ ) with the linear trajectories of leadership rating, while significantly predicted ( $\beta = 0.051, p < 0.05$ ) the quadratic leadership trajectories ratings (Day & Sin, 2011).

With longitudinal data from 7 measurement points across a 7-week period from 98 postgraduate students aged on average 23.4 from a Dutch business school, Miscenko, Guenter, and Day (2017) adopted a latent change score analysis and latent growth curve modeling approach and identified a J-shaped curvilinear trajectory in the participants' leader identity development. The study also revealed that changes in leadership skills were significantly related to the following changes in leader identity (Miscenko et al.,

2017). Riyadi, Asakarunia, Wijaya, and Riantoputra (2019) examine how leadership self-efficacy, leader group prototypicality, leader endorsement, and leader group-oriented behavior contribute to positive leader identity among 80 leader-follower pairs in Indonesian food and beverage companies. Their findings indicate that leadership self-efficacy and leader group-oriented behavior significantly enhance positive leader identity, even for non-prototypical leaders. There is a strong positive relationship between leadership self-efficacy and positive leader identity. Leaders who believe in their abilities tend to evaluate their leader identity more positively. Leader group-oriented behavior significantly moderates the relationship between leader group prototypicality and positive leader identity. Leaders who demonstrate a strong orientation towards group welfare can enhance their positive leader identity, even if they are not seen as prototypical. (Riyadi et al., 2019). Research indicates that leadership development programs positively impact leader identity by fostering self-awareness and aligning personal values with leadership roles (Day & Harrison, 2007). In a study with 240 cadets aged on average 15.34 in the summer Royal Canadian Air Cadet program themed leadership development, Kowk, Shen, and Brown (2020) examined the trajectories of leader identity and efficacy development across the 6-week time frame. Learning goal orientation (LGO) and motivation to learn (MTL) were the independent variables indicating participants' development readiness and need. There were 4 data collection points. LGO and MTL measures were collected at week 1 in the first data collection point, while leader identity and leader efficacy measures were collected at all four data collection points at weeks 1, 2, 4, and 6. Results confirmed a positive and linear leader efficacy development trajectory and a curvilinear leader identity development trajectory. Participants demonstrated

different leader efficacy and leader identity developmental trajectories during the leadership training program. Those who were lower in LGO showed a positive and linear leader identity development trajectory, while those who were higher in LGO showed a curvilinear trajectory in leader identity development (Kwok et al., 2020).

### 2.2.1 Leaders' Identity Work

Leader identity is a sub-component of one's identity related to being a leader or how one perceives oneself in a leadership role. This identity evolves through experiences, reflections, and interactions within various contexts (Day & Harrison, 2007). Identity work is the process an individual engages in constructing, adapting, maintaining, reinforcing, or adjusting identities. It is a multiparty process that involves the individual's efforts to project a certain image, along with the extent to which others affirm or challenge that image (Sveningsson & Alvesson, 2003). Identity topics are addressed at different levels: organizational, social, professional, and individual (Sveningsson & Alvesson, 2003). Sometimes, organizational and social identities support the development of individual identities (Humphreys & Brown, 2002). In many professional and life situations, change, fragmentation, and contradictions are prominent and call for reactions to actively search for and deal with identity (Sveningsson & Alvesson, 2003). Leader identity encompasses dimensions such as meaning, strength, integration, and level, with strength being central to how individuals align themselves with leadership roles (M. Hammond et al., 2017). Leader's identity work includes both conscious and unconscious development, construction, and maintenance of a leader's identity (Petriglieri & Stein, 2012). The development of a leader identity involves both cognitive and emotional processes, as individuals internalize leadership roles and

integrate them into their self-concept (DeRue & Ashford, 2010). Besides, it also includes how one's perception as a leader is recognized and validated by others (DeRue & Ashford, 2010). Identity is considered central for motivation, meaning, loyalty, commitment, decision and behavioral action, leadership, interpersonal dynamics, and organizational collaboration. And identity work plays a critical role in leader development through enabling individuals to internalize a leader identity, which is the key driver of their thoughts, motivation, and behavior. Viewing oneself as a leader boosts the motivation to lead, engagement in leadership activities, and the pursuit of leadership roles. It also facilitates the co-construction of leader and follower roles, which is critical for building effective leader–follower relationships (Sveningsson & Alvesson, 2003). According to the Social Identity Theory (SIT), the self-concept is made up of a personal identity, which includes individual characteristics such as physical attributes, abilities, psychological traits, and interests, and a social identity, which includes notable group classifications (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). An individual's social identity may be derived from various sources, including the organization they belong to, their work group, department, union, lunch circle, age group, and accelerated career-path group (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). An individual's social identity is derived from their membership in various social groups and shapes their self-concept (Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Similarly, a leader's identity is shaped by their membership in the group of leaders and their role as a leader (Zaccaro, Rittman, & Marks, 2001). Research has shown that leaders' social identities can influence their leadership style and behavior (Zaccaro et al., 2001). For example, a leader who identifies strongly with their group may prioritize group harmony and cohesion, while a leader who sees themselves as an individual may be more focused

on their own goals and objectives (Zaccaro et al., 2002). Haslam et al. (2022) connect leader identity with social identity through a dual-identity framework. Under this framework, leadership is both a personal and group process, where leaders must balance their personal identity as leaders with the social identity they share with their followers. This dual-identity framework suggests that effective leadership involves both a well-developed personal understanding of oneself as a leader and the ability to represent and advance a collective social identity. Effective leaders seem to naturally blend their personal leadership self-image with their group's shared identity, using their individual leadership style to strengthen group cohesion and motivation. Leader and group identities actually shape each other through ongoing interactions and shared experiences (Haslam et al., 2022).

Individual differences in leadership are well-researched in the literature (Lord & Hall, 1992; Zaccaro et al., 2018). Differences in foundational traits and leadership capacities shape and influence leadership behaviors and outcomes (Zaccaro et al., 2018). An individual's perception of leadership greatly influences the self-development process (X. Jiang et al., 2021). In addition, leadership self-views signify an individual's self-assurance in their capacity to assume responsibilities and collaborate with others in order to formulate and attain visions and objectives. The process of envisioning attainable goals and strategically planning the means to achieve them demonstrates a heightened understanding of the significance of team cohesion. This cohesive approach effectively harnesses diverse knowledge and skills to accomplish objectives. Leadership self-views promote the notion that individuals consistently seek to improve their lives through engaging in meaningful work and pursuing progressive careers. This mindset is closely

linked to employability, as individuals who possess leadership qualities are more likely to actively develop the necessary skills and qualities to enhance their employability (Tiraieyari & Hamid, 2015).

### 2.2.2 Identity Work and Leadership Development Trajectories

Identity development is very important for the intermediate stage of leadership development from cognitive, emotional, and motivational dimensions (Lord & Hall, 2005). In a comprehensive review, Caza, Vough, and Puranik (2018) explore the concept of identity work within occupational and organizational contexts. Identity work is defined as the “cognitive, discursive, physical, and behavioral activities that individuals undertake with the goal of forming, repairing, maintaining, strengthening, revising, or rejecting collective, role, and personal self-meanings within the boundaries of their social contexts” (p.7). Identity work is dynamic, complex, and multidimensional. Individuals often possess multiple, interconnected identities, and changes in one identity can influence the entire self-system. Different dimensions of identity, such as race and gender, also intersect and impact the process of identity work (Caza et al., 2018). Identity work includes both identification and dis-identification. Through the identification process, an individual establishes the concept of who he/she is, while with the dis-identification process, an individual would refuse the identity associated with a certain role (Ashforth, 2001). Identity work is also temporal; an individual's present identity work is influenced by their reflections on past identities and their aspirations for the future (Caza 2018). Caza et al. (2018) organize identity work into three core domains: collective identities (e.g., organizational or occupational affiliations), role identities (e.g., leader, follower, mentor), and personal identities (e.g., traits and values). These identity types are

not mutually exclusive; rather, they intersect and often produce tensions that must be navigated by individuals. For example, a newly appointed leader may struggle to integrate the expectations of a formal leadership role with their enduring personal identity as a peer or team player. Identity work is thus a key mechanism through which individuals negotiate such tensions (Caza et al., 2018).

Leader identity development is not a linear process but one that involves continuous adaptation and negotiation (S. Smith et al., 2021). In their comprehensive chapter on leadership and identity, Ibarra, Wittman, Petriglieri, and Day (2014) explore the crucial role identity plays in understanding leadership dynamics. Leadership is increasingly understood as an identity process, involving internalizing a leadership identity via social interactions and introspection. In this process, one's identity as a leader is negotiated and validated both internally and externally through interactions with others. As people engage in identity work, which entails developing, modifying, and consolidating their self-concept as leaders in response to their experiences and the input they receive from their social environment, their leadership identity is not static; rather, it changes over time (Ibarra et al., 2014). With the development of leadership identities, an individual would be more motivated to make new leadership attempts, creating new opportunities for further leadership skills and identity enhancement (Lord & Hall, 2005). Leader and leadership development is a multi-level, complex processes. (Day & Harrison, 2007). Wallace, Torres, and Zaccaro (2021) presented a comprehensive and integrated leader and leadership development outcome framework at an individual and collective level. At the individual level, the first-order learning outcomes include the acquisition of skills and competencies that support leading, while the second-order

learning outcomes entail leadership maturation, as reflected by enhanced leadership mindsets, identities, and conceptualizations (Wallace et al., 2021). A failure in the attempt to enhance leader identity salience at the individual level would undermine an individual's efforts to acquire a leader identity on the collective level (Epitropaki et al., 2017).

A leader would develop a more inclusive and complex understanding and perception of leadership with practice and experience (Day & Harrison, 2007). Smith et al. (2020) explore how IT professionals integrate and reconcile their professional and leader identities over time. The study utilized a longitudinal qualitative design, collecting data through semi-structured interviews and reflective diaries from 17 IT professionals transitioning to hybrid roles. Formal training and education play a crucial role in shaping and enhancing a leader's identity. The study utilized a longitudinal qualitative design, collecting data through semi-structured interviews and reflective diaries from 17 IT professionals shifting to hybrid roles. Based on the study, the development of leader identity is influenced by the individual's career path and previous experiences. Those with a traditional route into IT, characterized by formal education and technical work experience, often find it challenging to fully embrace a leader identity. In contrast, individuals who entered the IT profession through non-traditional routes, or who have less commitment to technical skills, may find it easier to integrate the leader role (S. Smith et al., 2021). Smith et al. (2020) emphasize the importance of identity work, which involves various strategies to manage the coexistence of professional and leader identities. Three main forms of identity work are highlighted: integration, differentiation, and networking. Integration involves merging aspects of the professional and leader

roles, allowing IT professionals to frame their leadership responsibilities in terms that align with their professional values. Differentiation focuses on setting boundaries and maintaining a distinct professional identity while performing leadership tasks.

Networking, on the other hand, involves leveraging social connections and role models to support the development of a leader identity.

Leadership development programs provide structured opportunities for self-reflection, feedback, and practice, which are essential for refining leader identity (Komives et al., 2009). Components like 360-degree feedback, coaching, and action learning projects challenge participants to reflect on their leadership capabilities and align their self-perception with their leadership roles (Miscenko & Day, 2016).

A strong leader identity enhances employability and career success by promoting leadership behaviors and increasing visibility as a leader (DeRue & Ashford, 2010). As a strong leader identity enhances one's confidence, communication skills, and ability to navigate complex organizational environments, making them more attractive to potential employers (Miscenko & Day, 2016). Individuals with a well-developed leader identity are better equipped to demonstrate leadership competencies, which are crucial for career advancement and employability (Epitropaki et al., 2017).

### 2.2.3 Leadership Training and Identity Workspaces

Leadership training and development is one of the strategic priorities for companies and organizations (Amagoh, 2009; Lacerenza et al., 2017). Despite the ever-increasing budget allocated for leadership training, companies are still facing a lack of leaders and leadership capabilities in their employees (Schwartz et al., 2014). The effectiveness and utility of leadership development initiatives are in question (Lacerenza

et al., 2017) to prepare leaders with the necessary skills and capabilities to succeed (Schwartz et al., 2014). Amagoh (2009) argues that a change of mindset, personnel development, business and leadership skill improvement, and global focus are the key elements of leadership experience. And the critical success factor of the leadership development process lies in participants' reflection on the learning experiences for the knowledge and skill transfer to the work context (Amagoh, 2009).

Several meta-analyses on the effectiveness of managerial and leadership training interventions have demonstrated a moderate effect of leadership training on some important job performance outcomes (Avolio et al., 2009; Burke & Day, 1986; Lacerenza et al., 2017). Lacerenza, Reyes, Marlow, Joseph, and Salas (2017) conducted a meta-analysis regarding the effectiveness of leadership training programs and the conditions that would facilitate the success of the developmental programs. The analysis covered 335 independent samples from 1951 to 2014 and included 15 leadership training program effectiveness moderators. The Kirkpatrick (1959) framework was used to evaluate the training effectiveness and outcomes at four levels: reaction, learning, transfer, and results. Reaction refers to participants' subjective evaluation of the training program, normally through a post-training survey. Learning is about the skills and knowledge that have been grasped by the participant, which could be measured through a written assessment or assessment-oriented role plays. A transfer is about the application of knowledge or skills learning in the training program in the working context. While results are about the measurement of the overall training impacts in financial and morale terms (ALLIGER & JANAK, 1989; Kirkpatrick et al., 1998; Reio et al., 2017; Smidt et al., 2009). Results indicated that overall the training programs were significantly positive in leadership

development ( $\delta = .76$ ), and the effects for the four levels were .63, .73, .82, and .72 for reaction, learning, transfer, and results respectively, with the highest effect size for transfer ( $\delta = .82$ ) while the lowest effect size for reaction ( $\delta = .62$ ).

Leadership training has been empirically proven to successfully drive within-person leader identity changes for participants of different ages. Middleton, Walker, and Reichard (2018) tracked the change of leader identity of 39 director-level organizational leaders over a 5-month leadership development program with 12 times of 299 data points. Data indicated a positive and significant linear leader identity growth trajectory during the leadership development program, and the growth rates, on average, slowed down over time (Middleton et al., 2019). It is worth noting that managers perform various tasks apart from participating in leadership training, and the results that are being measured, including job performance and career satisfaction, are influenced by multiple factors (Martin et al., 2021). Therefore, it is challenging to pinpoint specific causal factors and accurately determine the percentage of variation in outcomes that is directly caused by leadership training (Martin et al., 2021).

Identity workplaces are establishments that offer a holding environment for people's identity work (Ibarra et al., 2014; Petriglieri & Petriglieri, 2010). Petriglieri & Petriglieri (2010) propose that business schools are becoming well-known identity workspaces because of the growing fluidity and instability of modern corporate environments, which calls for the need for alternative locations where managers can participate in identity work. Identity workplaces are social environments designed to support the formation and upkeep of leaders' identities. According to Ibarra et al. (2014), these environments offer a nurturing atmosphere for people to participate in identity

work, which encompasses the mental, emotional, and social procedures required to develop and solidify a leader's identity. Identity workspaces provide social defenses, conscious communities, and essential rites of passage to support people in their identity work. These components support people in redefining or stabilizing their identities, which is important in dynamic and uncertain work settings. By offering locations for managers to think, experiment, and develop their identities, business schools act as identity workspaces. Business schools are crucial for identity work since firms are moving away from long-term, secure employment and towards short-term, instrumental partnerships (Petriglieri & Petriglieri, 2010). Business schools' social defenses offer structured curricula and narratives that assist people in managing the uncertainty and anxiety associated with their professional lives. People are shielded from the psychological strain that comes with identity changes by these defenses. To help reduce feelings of uncertainty and anxiety, management courses, for instance, frequently incorporate case studies and frameworks that provide a sense of control and predictability. Participants can explore new facets of their professional identities in a secure and encouraging setting by participating in these organized learning experiences (Petriglieri & Petriglieri, 2010). The supportive business school communities create robust, encouraging networks between students and graduates. These networks offer emotional support and a sense of belonging, both of which are essential for identity work. Members of these groups assist people in validating and improving their self-concepts by providing social comparison, role modelling, and feedback. Besides, these communities foster long-lasting relationships that help people throughout their careers. Examples of these relationships are those with classmates and alumni networks. These relationships go

beyond the program's completion. According to Petriglieri & Petriglieri (2010), this continuous support is essential for preserving and developing one's professional identity in the face of shifting organizational environments. Programs at business schools frequently incorporate components that act as rites of passage, assisting students in moving between several phases of their professional lives. Events recognized by society as rites of passage help people make big changes in their lives. These could include graduation ceremonies, orientation programs, and other significant occasions that signal the passage through various phases of the academic journey in the context of business schools. These transitional events offer regulated chances for people to consider their prior experiences, try out new personas, and eventually incorporate new facets of who they are. A person's new professional identity is reinforced, and their dedication to their chosen career path is strengthened by the sense of accomplishment and acknowledgment that these ceremonies bring (Petriglieri & Petriglieri, 2010).

### **2.3 Key Constructs: Leadership Development Readiness**

Developmental readiness and developmental need are the factors that determine an individual's potential benefits from a leadership training program. Readiness means an open mind to change, while developmental need means more room to change (Kwok et al., 2020). Developmental readiness could explain the level of effectiveness of certain leadership development interventions on both the individual leader and the organizational context (Avolio & Hannah, 2008). Through a series of longitudinal studies with emerging leaders, Avolio & Hannah (2008) concluded that developmental efficacy, learning goal orientation, self-awareness and clarity, leader complexity, and metacognitive ability are all factors that interact with each other and contribute to an individual's levels of

developmental readiness. Based on a quasi-experimental study aiming to investigate the relationship between social normative MTL, leader role identity (LRI), and leadership training effectiveness, Waldman, Galvin, and Walumbwa (2012) further argued that both MTL and leader role identity (LRI) should be included in assessing an individual's leader developmental readiness.

### 2.3.1 Distinguishing Leadership Self-Views from Self-Leadership

This study is based on the multilevel framework of leadership development processes proposed by Day and Dragoni (2014) and focuses on the individual development outcomes. According to the framework, at individual level, the proximal indicators of leadership development are internal psychological states reflecting the person's evolving self-views. Specifically, this thesis examines leader identity, which refers to the internalization of leadership role, and leader self-efficacy, which reflects the self-confidence in one's capacity to lead. The combined self-views of leader identity and leader self-efficacy represent a transformation in how the individual sees themselves in relation to the leadership role.

Self-leadership is a dynamic toolkit of strategies used to regulate performance, rather than a static view of the self. According to Harari et al. (2021), self-leadership is as a process in which people deliberately guide and motivate themselves, rather than relying on external leaders, in order to shape their thoughts, feelings, and actions at work in ways they view as beneficial. It involves creating and sustaining self-direction and self-motivation using specific self-regulation strategies, such as setting and monitoring one's own goals, rewarding or correcting oneself, cultivating helpful thinking patterns, and designing work so that it is inherently more satisfying, (Harari et al., 2021) .

Leadership self-views are distinct from self-leadership, as they address underlying psychological self-concept. While self-leadership strategies address the mechanisms of self-regulation. Although self-leadership is positively associated with self-efficacy, they remain distinct constructs (Harari et al., 2021). Therefore, to understand the identity-based transformation within the business school environment, this study concentrates exclusively on the proximal self-views described by Day and Dragoni (2014), rather than the acquisition of self-management tactics.

### 2.3.2 Leader Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy refers to an individual's judgment of how well he/she can handle a certain situation or task with a suitable course of action (Bandura, 1982). Self-efficacy influences an individual's actions, thought patterns, and emotional arousal (Bandura, 1982). Bandura's (1997) theory identifies four primary sources of self-efficacy: mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, social persuasion, and physiological states. Different empirical research supports and expands on these sources. Mastery experiences are considered the most powerful source of self-efficacy. Van Dintner, Dochy, and Segers (2011) conducted a review of 39 empirical studies focusing on higher education across Europe. They found that students' self-efficacy significantly increases when they successfully engage in practical, authentic tasks that align with their developmental level. The study highlights the importance of educational programs designed to incorporate challenging but achievable tasks to build self-efficacy (Dintner et al., 2011). Vicarious Experiences by observing others complete tasks successfully can strengthen an individual's self-efficacy, especially when the observer perceives the model as similar to themselves. Gist (1989) explored this phenomenon within a sample of U.S. managers.

They demonstrated that training interventions incorporating modelling and feedback significantly enhanced managerial self-efficacy, which in turn improved creativity and problem-solving abilities (Gist, 1989). Social persuasion, particularly through feedback and encouragement, plays a critical role in developing self-efficacy. Van Dinther et al. (2011) also emphasized the role of positive reinforcement from educators and mentors in boosting students' self-efficacy. Their findings suggest that credible sources providing constructive feedback can effectively enhance self-efficacy in educational settings (Dinther et al., 2011). Finally, regarding physiological and emotional states, an individual's interpretation of their physiological and emotional states can influence their self-efficacy. Bandura (1997) discusses how stress, anxiety, and mood states impact self-efficacy, noting that positive emotional regulation can enhance self-efficacy, while negative emotions can diminish it.

It is also important to distinguish this psychological state from self-leadership, which refers to a set of behavioral and cognitive self-regulation strategies rather than the underlying belief in one's capability (Harari et al., 2021). Leader efficacy is a leader's belief in his/her capabilities to self-regulate thoughts, motivation, and resources for appropriate courses of action required for sustainable performance in leadership roles and contexts (Hannah et al., 2008a, 2012). Effective leadership requires the leader's social influences in motivating, directing, and organizing others' actions (McCormick, 2001). McCormick (2001) argued that self-efficacy explains an individual's performance through self-confidence. It is an individual's confidence in their ability to effectively lead and guide others, based on their knowledge, skills, and abilities (Hannah et al., 2008b). Leader efficacy is one of the proximal leadership development indicators at the individual

level, together with self-awareness, leader identity, and leadership knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSA) (Lord & Hall, 2005). According to Hannah et al. (2009), self-efficacy, along with expectancies, self-attributions, and self-esteem, is part of dynamic self-regulatory systems embedded in leaders' self-constructs. These constructs, rich in positive traits and values, help leaders respond effectively to situational demands. Leaders with strong self-efficacy are better equipped to influence followers positively and navigate organizational complexities. Their well-developed self-constructs allow them to draw on a broad range of attributes, enhancing their adaptability and resilience. This creates a positive feedback loop where effective leadership behaviors foster positive responses from followers, further reinforcing the leader's self-efficacy (Hannah et al., 2009). Chan and Drasgow (2001) supplemented the view that leadership self-efficacy impacts MTL by enhancing the confidence of potential leaders in their ability to lead effectively. People are therefore inspired to participate in leadership activities, assume leadership positions, and devote time to leadership development as a result of their increased confidence. Chan and Drasgow (2001) highlight that social cognitive theory—in particular, Bandura's (1986, 1997) work—lays the foundation for this link by proposing that self-efficacy beliefs are important factors that influence motivated behaviour.

Leader efficacy has been empirically tested as a mediator between various constructs, including personality traits, leadership effectiveness, and motivation to lead (Ng et al., 2008; Schyns et al., 2020). Ng, Ang, and Chan (2008) examined the relationship between personality traits and leader effectiveness through the lens of leadership self-efficacy (LSE). Their study, conducted with 394 military leaders in Singapore, found that LSE mediates the effects of neuroticism, extraversion, and

conscientiousness on leader effectiveness. However, the strength of this mediation is influenced by job demands and job autonomy, with LSE playing a more significant role under conditions of low job demands and high job autonomy (K.-Y. Ng et al., 2008). Schyns, Kiefer, and Foti (2020) found leadership self-efficacy to be a mediating factor between the congruence of implicit leadership theories (ILT) and implicit self-theories (IST) and motivation to lead. The study revealed that individuals exhibit greater motivation to lead when there is high congruence between their ILT and IST. This congruence, particularly in dimensions such as dynamism and integrity, enhances leadership self-efficacy, which in turn boosts motivation to lead. Individuals who perceive themselves as higher in key leadership characteristics compared to typical leaders report increased leadership self-efficacy. This heightened self-efficacy subsequently leads to a stronger motivation to assume leadership roles (Schyns et al., 2020).

Empirical studies also demonstrate that self-efficacy and leader self-efficacy are critical determinants of success across various domains, including education, leadership, and workplace performance (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998; Ballout, 2009; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2008; Locke et al., 1984; Lyons & Bandura, 2019). Stajkovic and Luthans (1998) conducted a comprehensive meta-analysis to examine the relationship between self-efficacy and work-related performance, synthesizing data from 114 studies encompassing 21,616 participants. The analysis revealed a significant positive correlation ( $r = 0.38$ ) between self-efficacy and performance, indicating that individuals with higher self-efficacy tend to exhibit better work performance. The study also found that this relationship is moderated by task complexity, with stronger effects observed for less

complex tasks, and by the study setting, where laboratory simulations showed stronger correlations compared to real-world settings. These findings suggest that enhancing self-efficacy can be particularly effective in improving performance, especially in simpler tasks and controlled environments (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998). Leithwood and Jantzi (2008) studied the impact of leader efficacy on student learning outcomes. Using a large-scale survey of school leaders, they found that leader efficacy—leaders’ beliefs in their ability to positively influence school outcomes—significantly contributes to implementing school improvement strategies, which in turn affects student learning. The study emphasizes that leader efficacy is shaped by professional development, leadership experiences, and supportive school environments (Leithwood & Jantzi, 2008). Locke, Frederick, Lee, and Bobko (1984) explored how self-efficacy interacts with goals and task strategies to influence task performance. Their study found that self-efficacy not only affects the setting of challenging goals but also the commitment to these goals, leading to improved task performance (Locke et al., 1984). Lyons and Bandura (2019) emphasized the role of self-efficacy as a core component of employee success. Their research, conducted with a focus on self-regulated learning and strategic feedback, suggests that managers can enhance employee self-efficacy by guiding goal-setting and providing constructive feedback, thereby fostering a positive cycle of performance and self-efficacy growth (Lyons & Bandura, 2019).

Self-efficacy has also been proven to be associated with both subjective and objective career success (Abele & Spurk, 2009; Ballout, 2009; Lent & Brown, 2006b). Ballout (2009) analyzed how self-efficacy can influence the relationship between career commitment and career success with a sample of 180 Lebanese employees working in

different banks. The results showed that self-efficacy moderates the relationship between career commitment and both objective (e.g., salary) and subjective (e.g., job satisfaction) measures of career success. Employees with higher self-efficacy were more likely to achieve career success, suggesting that self-efficacy amplifies the effects of career-related behaviors (Ballout, 2009). Abele and Spurk (2009) explore the long-term effects of occupational self-efficacy and career-advancement goals on both objective (salary, hierarchical status) and subjective (career satisfaction) career success over a seven-year period. Their study, which tracked 734 highly educated professionals from Germany, following them from graduation through the first seven years of their careers, found that higher self-efficacy at career entry significantly predicted greater salary, status, and career satisfaction later on. While ambitious career-advancement goals also led to higher salaries and status, they were surprisingly linked to lower career satisfaction after seven years. These findings align with the broader literature suggesting that self-efficacy fosters a positive self-perception and resilience, leading to higher levels of satisfaction with career progress (Lent et al., 2006).

### 2.3.3 Motivation to Lead (MTL)

Motivation is a foundational concept in developmental psychology (Riggio & Mumford, 2011). Motivation to Lead (MTL) refers to an individual's drive to assume leadership roles, responsibilities, or further leadership developmental training (Chan & Drasgow, 2001). It is considered a core component of the leadership process (Badura et al., 2020). MTL is critical in the effectiveness and emergence of leaders (Riggio & Mumford, 2011) and affects an individual's intensity of efforts in leading and the level of persistence as a leader (Chan & Drasgow, 2001). MTL could help to address the

questions related to who is mostly attracted to leadership positions and if those who are driven to pursue leadership roles would eventually become more effective leaders (Badura et al., 2020). Individuals who enjoy leading others are more likely to be fully engaged in developmental programs and hold a more internalized leader identity (Middleton et al., 2019). According to Chan and Drasgow (2001), MTL has three dimensions: affective, social normative, and non-calculative. The affective dimension is about the positive feeling from leading others, it is the intrinsic motivation and tendency to take charge of leading responsibilities. The social normative dimension emphasizes leading as a duty, privilege, and honor that is valuable to organizations. And non-calculative dimension stresses the potential sacrifice of personal interests that are associated with leading. (Chan & Drasgow, 2001; D. A. Waldman et al., 2013).

Goals that are connected with intrinsic motivations have greater meaning and value (Lyons & Bandura, 2019). MTL could effectively predict informal and formal leadership emergence, transformational/transactional leadership behaviors, and leadership effectiveness (Hendricks & Payne, 2007; Hong et al., 2011; Kark & Dijk, 2007; Luria & Berson, 2013). Luria and Berson (2013) explore how intrinsic and extrinsic leadership motives influence informal and formal leadership emergence. Using a sample of military cadets, they found that intrinsic motivation (e.g., enjoyment of leading) is more predictive of informal leadership emergence, while extrinsic motivation (e.g., rewards, recognition) is linked to formal leadership roles. The study suggests that understanding the underlying motives for leadership can help predict and develop leadership potential in various contexts. Kark and Van Dijk (2007) explore how regulatory focus (promotion vs. prevention focus) affects motivation to lead and follow. Promotion-focused individuals,

driven by growth and achievement, are more likely to seek leadership roles. In contrast, prevention-focused individuals, motivated by security and responsibility, may prefer follower roles. The study suggests that regulatory focus can predict leadership and followership behaviors. Individuals with a higher level of MTL have been empirically proven to benefit more from leadership training as they consider the training as the possibility to improve their competencies for future career opportunities (Stiehl et al., 2015). Stiehl et al.'s (2015) study findings from a longitudinal study of 132 managers in Switzerland indicate that individuals with high MTL gain more from leadership training, developing more competencies, and demonstrating improved leadership behavior. Organizational support also plays a significant role in enhancing training effectiveness. Waldman, Galvin, and Walumbwa (2012) carried out a quasi-experimental study with 252 business students enrolled in an undergraduate program in a major US public university and examined the relationship between the development of social normative MTL, leader role identity (LRI), and a behavior-modeling leadership course focusing on transformational leadership. Utilizing a quasi-experimental design, students enrolled in a leadership course emphasizing transformational leadership were compared to those in an introduction to management course. Results indicated significant increases in both social-normative MTL and LRI in the leadership course, highlighting the importance of pedagogical strategies that incorporate behavior modeling to foster leadership qualities. (D. A. Waldman et al., 2013). Chan and Drasgow (2001) conducted a large-scale longitudinal study with samples from Singapore and the US. The participants from Singapore included 1,594 male military recruits, aged an average 20.3, and 274 junior college students, with an age range from 16 to 19. The participants from the US were

293 undergraduate students from the introductory psychology course in a large midwestern US university. With data collected from paper and pencil surveys as well as the two Singapore military datasets regarding the leadership potential of the recruits, the analysis revealed that MTL could effectively predict leadership potential and provide incremental validity on top of other traditional measures (Chan & Drasgow, 2001). In the study, Chan and Drasgow (2001) propose a comprehensive theoretical framework for understanding the antecedents of the motivation to lead (MTL), introducing the concept of MTL as an individual difference that influences leadership behaviors. A critical element of their framework is the role of leadership self-efficacy as a proximal antecedent to MTL. They argue that leadership self-efficacy, defined as an individual's belief in their capability to successfully execute leadership roles and tasks, directly influences one's motivation to assume and persist in leadership roles. Badura et al. (2020) present a meta-analysis and model integrating distal (personality traits, values) and proximal (self-efficacy, attitudes) predictors of MTL. The study reveals that personality traits such as conscientiousness and extraversion, along with leadership self-efficacy, significantly influence MTL. The model provides a comprehensive framework for understanding how various factors contribute to leadership motivation (Badura et al., 2020). Hong, Catano, and Liao (2011) explored how emotional intelligence (EI) and motivation to lead (MTL) predict who emerges as a leader in group settings. The study consists of two parts: the first involving leaderless group discussions and the second involving long-term class projects. The results indicate that individuals with high affective-identity MTL tend to become leaders in short-term, unstructured settings, while those with high social-normative MTL assume leadership roles in long-term, structured

projects. Emotional intelligence, particularly the effective use of emotions, enhances MTL and indirectly contributes to leader emergence. The study concludes that MTL is a crucial proximal predictor of leader emergence, driven by personal identity, social norms, and altruism, and that EI plays a significant role in this process (Hong et al., 2011).

There are different uses of the three subdimensions of MTL measurement, either separately (Hannah et al., 2012; Hendricks & Payne, 2007) or with a composite score integrating the three subdimensions (Luria & Berson, 2013). Through the meta-analysis of motivation to lead with 100 primary studies covering 29,323 participants, Badura et al. (2020) found that the three subdimensions of MTL had different antecedents and correlated with each other only moderately, suggesting that the three subdimensions should be operationalized separately, instead of being used as a composite construct.

In a longitudinal study examining the relationship between MTL and leader emergence with a sample of 309 Canadian undergraduate students (female 222, male 87, Mean age=21.0, SD age=3.17), Hong, Catano, and Liao (2010) found that female participants scored lower than their male counterparts in social MTL ( $b=-0.15, p < 0.05$ ) and affective normative MTL ( $b=-0.24, p < 0.05$ ). In the Distal-Proximal model of motivation and leadership, MTL is proposed to mediate between distal individual differences constructs and leader emergence, leadership behaviors, and subsequently leadership effectiveness (Badura et al., 2020).

## **2.4 Employability and Career Success**

### **2.4.1 Job Market Signaling and Employability**

Over the past few decades, the labor market has undergone significant transformations. Specifically, long-term employment within a single organization has

become less common, and careers have become more fluid and uncertain, transcending traditional boundaries (Presti & Pluviano, 2015). The traditional contract between employers and employees, which offered job security in exchange for steady work, has become obsolete (Bagshaw, 1996). In today's fast-paced business environment, job security is neither attainable nor beneficial, as it restricts opportunities for growth and development (Bagshaw, 1996). As a result, individuals are now required to proactively take control of their career development and actively enhance their prospects in the labor market (Presti & Pluviano, 2015). In the labor market, workers are sorted into different firms and organizations. Learning about the capabilities of the workers over time is an important part of the sorting process for both the workers and the hiring firms and organizations (Kahn, 2013). There is asymmetric information in the job market when incumbent employers and workers themselves know more about the quality of the workers than the potential hiring firms and organizations (Greenwald, 1986; Kahn, 2013; Stiglitz & Weiss, 1983). Inefficiencies could arise with a mismatch between the worker and job assignment and misaligned investment in human capital (Kahn, 2013; M. Waldman, 1984). Guarantees could help to bridge asymmetric information, and high-quality education is a good indicator of a potential employee's capabilities in the job market (Akerlof, 1970). In his seminal paper on job market signaling, Spence (1973) argued that education conveys a signal of unobservable information about the incumbent to the employer. Education is a productivity signal or observable characteristic in the job market that could be manipulated by the individual (Spence, 1973; M. Waldman, 2016). As the informed agent in the job market, an individual would have the incentive to make observable and costly efforts to signal credibly the private information about their

abilities to the potential employer, as the uninformed agent to improve their employability and market outcome (Lofgren et al., 2002; Spence, 1973). It is of great significance to shift from traditional job security to fostering employability through continuous training and development (Bagshaw, 1996). For high-caliber talents, education is a valuable lifetime signal in the job market (Streb, 2006). MBA education has a more signaling effect as compared with other graduate programs. Participants with work experience enroll in MBA programs to send system-wide signals revealing their abilities when their work record is not sufficient in the signaling effect (Streb, 2006). High-caliber talents will have lower signaling costs as education enhances their lifetime earnings (Spence, 2002). Hence, enrolling in an MBA program is a self-selection process: only those who believe they are highly capable have a big incentive to pursue an MBA as a signal in the job market (Streb, 2006). Despite an escalated criticism about the relevance of the MBA core curriculum in developing graduates' critical competences required for managerial positions, the MBA is valuable not just for learning, but also for the social capital gathered through an alumni network, as well as for the signaling effect as a graduate from an MBA program (Tan & Ko, 2018). Mihail & Elefterie (2006) conducted an exploratory study with 68 Greek MBA graduates regarding the perceived impact of MBA education on employability and career progression. Through an analysis of graduates' perceptions and attitudes, the study results suggest that pursuing an MBA degree has a favorable influence on skills, employability, and compensation. However, the impact on career advancement is comparatively more moderate (Mihail & Elefterie, 2006). A significant majority of 74 percent of respondents strongly believe that obtaining an MBA degree has played a crucial role in securing new employment opportunities with

better working conditions following graduation. This sentiment is reinforced by the relatively high evaluation score of 3.82, indicating the perceived impact of MBA studies on graduates' ability to successfully find employment post-graduation (Cheng, 2000). Furthermore, it is evident that these graduates not only find new jobs but also effectively negotiate for more promising positions with their new employers. Young managers in particular perceive that holding an MBA degree plays a relatively important role in entering new work environments that offer increased responsibilities (3.79), greater opportunities for initiatives (3.44), and challenging project assignments (3.85).

Employability refers to an individual's capacity to get and sustain employment, as well as adapt to changes in the job market when required (Fugate, Kinicki, & Ashforth, 2004). In an uncertain environment where life-long employment is no longer secured, the key objective of an individual is to maintain his/her attractiveness and competitiveness in the labor market (Fugate et al., 2004; Rothwell & Arnold, 2007). Employability is a complex concept that encompasses various aspects such as occupational identity, personal adaptability, and social and human capital. Developing strong career skills is crucial for achieving success in one's professional life, as it significantly improves an individual's ability to efficiently navigate the job market (Fugate et al., 2004). Heijde and Van der Heijden (2006) conceptualized employability as a competence-based construct, identifying five key dimensions: occupational expertise, anticipation and optimization, personal flexibility, corporate sense, and balance. These competencies are essential for sustaining employability and achieving career success in a dynamic job market (Heijde & Heijden, 2006). Presti & Pluviano (2015) presented a heuristic model of employability, which provides a complete structure to understand the complicated

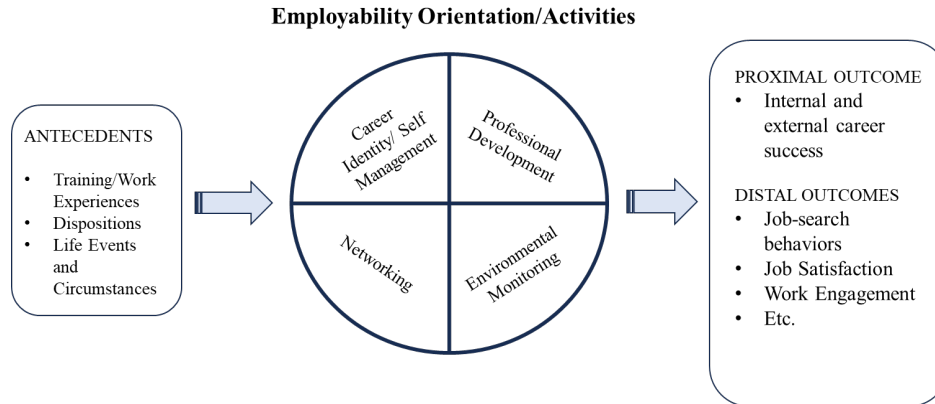
character of employability and how it influences career success. According to this approach, employability is formed by a combination of individual circumstances, personal factors, and external forces. These elements together determine an individual's employability orientation and activities, therefore influencing professional success and other distal results. Employability, in this context, is considered a multi-dimensional concept that people can grow over time through proactive career management, ongoing education, and adaptation. Individual elements at the core of the concept comprise employability skills and traits, human capital, and social capital, as well as other elements. Employability skills are a broad spectrum of human attributes, including social skills, responsibility, proactivity, self-motivation, initiative, and transferable abilities, including problem-solving and teamwork. While social capital is the resources one's social networks provide—such as information, influence, and support—human capital is the educational attainment and job-specific abilities that improve success in particular roles (Presti & Pluviano, 2015). The approach distinguishes three primary groups of antecedents influencing employability: training and work experience; dispositions; and life events and circumstances. Together with job-specific human capital, training, and work experience support general human capital, including cognitive skills and educational achievement. Personal qualities and attributes that help employability include dispositions—that is, resilience, adaptability, and a proactive attitude. Events and circumstances in life—including major personal milestones and situational elements—can either improve or hinder employability (Presti & Pluviano, 2015). Represented as a compass, the model's major component emphasizes four fundamental employability dimensions: career identity and self-management, professional development, networking,

and environmental monitoring. Self-management and career identity are about a person's capacity to make sense of past performance and match it with future job goals.

Emphasizing self-assessment and strategic career planning, this component stresses the know-why and know-where professional competencies. Relating to knowledge-based career competency, professional development stresses ongoing learning and skill development to improve existing and future career chances, involving the acquisition of job-specific skills and knowledge. Building and preserving ties with important stakeholders to assist professional advancement—that is, the know-whom career competency corresponds—helps to emphasize the value of social capital. Environmental monitoring is the ongoing observation and study of outside events influencing one's profession (Presti & Pluviano, 2015).

The model differentiates between proximal and distal outcomes of employability. Proximal outcomes include internal and external career success, such as promotions, salary increases, and job satisfaction. Employability enhances an individual's ability to achieve these outcomes by providing the necessary skills and competencies. Distal outcomes include job-search behaviors and job satisfaction, along with factors that enhance an individual's market value, such as higher wages and increased job opportunities, as well as overall job satisfaction, work engagement, and other long-term career behaviors and attitudes (Presti & Pluviano, 2015).

Figure 2.1 Adapted Heuristic Model of Employability



*Note: Adapted from Presti & Pluviano (2015).*

The heuristic model proposes a method of quantifying employability using a multiplication-based approach, with the following formula:  $\text{Employability} = \text{Career Identity/Self-Management} \times \text{Professional Development} \times \text{Networking} \times \text{Environmental Monitoring}$ . This formula implies that a deficiency in any one dimension can significantly diminish overall employability. On the other hand, achieving high scores in all aspects results in a strong employability profile, which improves one's chances of career success. The model highlights the significance of achieving a well-rounded development in all aspects in order to optimize employability. The approach emphasizes the importance of ongoing career identity development, professional growth, networking, and environmental awareness for individuals to improve their employability. For organizations and educational institutions, the model proposes prioritizing activities that promote these qualities, such as training programs and support services, to enhance career outcomes for employees and participants. The heuristic model suggests that employability functions as an individual's personal asset that is cultivated via continuous

learning and adaptation. Employability is influenced by various elements, including personal attributes like personality traits, motivation, and self-efficacy, as well as environmental factors like socioeconomic status, education, and past job experiences. These elements collectively influence an individual's capacity and inclination to participate in their employability enhancement. The model emphasizes the importance of a proactive approach to career development, where individuals actively engage in activities such as networking and continuous learning that enhance their employability. The perspective that focuses on the process emphasizes the importance of continuously developing skills and being adaptable to changes in the labor market conditions (Presti & Pluviano, 2015).

Management education and employability have been empirically studied in the East Asia context (Mohapatra & Mishra, 2017; Waters, 2007). Employability empowers workers to adapt to rapidly evolving job demands (Heijden et al., 2009). Nawaz and Reddy (2013) reviewed the role of employability skills in management education, highlighting the need for integrating leadership training into curricula. With Indian educational institutions as the research context, the study emphasizes that developing leadership self-views among students can bridge the gap between industry needs and graduate capabilities, thereby enhancing employability (Nawaz & Reddy, 2013). Through a qualitative study with in-depth interviews with 50 immigrant and/or international students in Canada and 28 returnee young graduate working professionals in Hong Kong, Walters (2007) argued that an MBA was considered a vital supplement to undergraduate education to maintain employability with position advantage and to continually upgrade skills. Zhang and Nesbit (2018) conducted a qualitative study with 16 HR managers aged

on average 37.3 years old from multinational (n=8), local (n=6), and joint venture (n=2) companies in Beijing, Shanghai, and Chengdu, China, regarding the value and perception of MBA. Results indicated that an MBA degree is perceived to have improved value for all five dimensions of the human capital model, namely scholastic, social, cultural, inner-value, and market value capital (Y. E. Zhang & Nesbit, 2018). In a study about skills and knowledge transfer of MBA education, Cheng (2000) analyzed a sample consisting of 268 participants who had completed part-time MBA programs in Hong Kong within a period of one to five years. Among the various factors examined, the predictors that emerged as significantly influential for MBA graduates' perceived transfer of knowledge and skills were their motivation to learn, the presence of a continuous-learning culture, and the perceived utility of the MBA course. By enhancing the efficacy of MBA programs, graduates can augment their managerial competencies, leading to enhanced organizational performance and increased employability (Cheng, 2000).

Several empirical studies have examined employability as the mediating or dependent variable on self-efficacy, leadership qualities, and perceived career success (Ahmed et al., 2019; Elseyy et al., 2022; Tiraieyari & Hamid, 2015). Tiraieyari & Hamid (2015) conducted a study with 711 randomly selected undergraduate students from five public universities in Malaysia, investigating the relationship between employability orientations, leadership qualities, and career self-efficacy. Leadership qualities and professional self-efficacy were the independent factors, while employability orientation was the dependent variable. The study findings revealed a positive association between career self-efficacy, leadership self-views, and employability orientation. The variables taken into consideration in this study accounted for 43.1% of the variance in

employability orientation, according to multiple linear regression (MLR) analysis. Remarkably, employability orientation was found to be better predicted by leadership qualities (Tiraieyari & Hamid, 2015). Elsey et al. (2022) examined the role of employability as a mediator between psychological capital (PsyCap) and career success among occupational psychology professionals. They found that employability fully mediates the relationship between PsyCap and career success, highlighting the importance of employability in achieving career outcomes. PsyCap, which includes self-efficacy, optimism, resilience, and hope, enhances employability, thereby leading to greater career success (Elsey et al., 2022). In a study with 233 participants employed in the banking, insurance, and healthcare sectors in the southern region of Punjab, Pakistan, Ahmed, Nawaz, and Rasheed (2019) found that there was a positive correlation between an individual's perception of employability and the extent of their self-efficacy in their role and the self-esteem they derived from their organization. The study involved 233 participants who worked in the banking, insurance, and healthcare sectors in the southern region of Punjab, Pakistan. The relationship between self-efficacy, self-esteem, and perceived job success has been found to be mediated by employability. According to several additional studies, career success and employability are positively correlated (Heijden et al., 2009). Heijde and Heijden (2006) used hierarchical regression analysis to show the predictive validity of employability on career success. According to their research, employability—which is defined by competencies like occupational expertise, anticipation and optimization, personal flexibility, corporate sense, and balance—has a substantial impact on career success measures that are both subjective (such as job satisfaction and career satisfaction) and objective (such as income and the number of

promotions received) (Heijde & Heijden, 2006). Similarly, Heijden et al. (2009) found that employability has a positive correlation with career success, especially for older workers. This is because employability improves an individual's capacity to adjust to changes in employment and utilize their wealth of work experience.

#### 2.4.2 Career Satisfaction and Career Success

Career satisfaction and subjective career success are important constructs in career development research, reflecting the extent to which individuals feel fulfilled and perceive themselves as successful in their professional lives (Lent & Brown, 2006a). Career satisfaction is often linked to the achievement of personal career goals and alignment with individual values (Ng et al., 2005). Career success is an outcome of an individual's career experiences and can be conceptualized as the attainment of favorable occupational outcomes throughout an individual's employment trajectory (Arthur et al., 2005). It entails both objective and subjective criteria (Shockley et al., 2016). Individuals possess a diversity of career aspirations, and often hold varying degrees of importance regarding factors such as income, job security, work location, social status, opportunities for advancement, access to educational opportunities, and the balance between work and personal and familial obligations (Arthur et al., 2005). Objective career success is measured by directly observable criteria, such as salary increase and the number of promotions (Shockley et al., 2016) and is reflective of a shared societal understanding rather than a distinct individual understanding (Arthur et al., 2005). Subjective career success reflects an individual's internal evaluations and judgments of career progress, which might not necessarily be associated with objective criteria and could not be measured by observable factors (T. W. H. Ng et al., 2005; Shockley et al., 2016).

Objective and subjective career success are found to be positively correlated are empirically distinct from each other (T. W. H. Ng et al., 2005). Empirical evidence has indicated that individuals' personal perceptions of their careers do not always align with external objective indicators (Heijden et al., 2009).

The current unstable and rapidly changing business environment, caused by globalization and technological advances, has led employers to seek out and hire employees who possess general skills that can be applied in any situation, to ensure their success in this dynamic landscape (Ballout, 2009). Research has shown a movement away from the traditional career path, characterized by upward mobility and job stability, towards a more transactional approach that is horizontal, mobile, and short-term in nature (McDonald et al., 2005). This shift has been described as a new employment contract in which individuals are primarily responsible for managing and advancing their own careers (Maguire, 2002). Employment opportunities are expected to have an impact on both subjective and objective career success (Arthur et al., 2005).

To effectively manage the psychological contract between employees and employers in protean careers, individuals need to possess and cultivate certain personal skills and competencies, including a commitment to continuous learning, autonomy, tolerance for ambiguity and uncertainty, self-awareness, and self-efficacy (Ballout, 2009). In response to the shift towards shorter employment relationships, employees have adopted new career strategies and behaviors that help them advance their own career success (Ballout, 2009). Individuals who possess effective information-seeking and career planning skills are more inclined to exhibit a willingness and dedication to invest

in skill enhancement and knowledge acquisition, thus facilitating career advancement and long-term employability (Tiraieyari & Hamid, 2015).

Career satisfaction is influenced by a continuous interaction between personal factors and contextual supports or barriers (Lent & Brown, 2006b). There are different studies about the predictors of both subjective and objective career success, including demographic, human capital, motivational, and organizational factors and personal traits (Abele & Spurk, 2009; Aryee et al., 1994; Judge et al., 1995; T. W. H. Ng et al., 2005). These findings suggest that the factors contributing to objective career success often differ substantially from those influencing subjectively defined success (Judge et al., 1995). In a meta-analysis on the predictors of subjective and objective career success covering 140 journal articles published before 2003, Ng, Eby, Sorensen, and Feldman (2005) examined four distinct groups of factors: human capital, organizational support, sociodemographic status, and enduring individual traits. The dependent variables for assessing objective career success were salary level and promotion, while career satisfaction represented subjective career success. The findings revealed that numerous predictors were associated with both objective and subjective career success. Human capital and sociodemographic factors, as a collective, exhibited stronger associations with objective career success, while organizational sponsorship and enduring individual traits were generally more strongly linked to subjective career success. Several relationships were moderated by gender and the timing of the study. Ng & Feldman (2014) conducted a meta-analysis on subjective career success covering 216 articles published between 1984 and 2014 with a total sample number of 94,090. Dispositional traits, social networks, motivation, and organizational and job support were found to be the major

hurdles that undermine employees' subjective career success. While background-related factors, including gender and skill level, were not statistically significantly associated with subjective career success (T. W. H. Ng & Feldman, 2014). Judge et. al (1995) investigated the extent to which various factors, including demographics, human capital, motivation, organizational aspects, and industry/region variables, could predict executive career success. The concept of career success encompasses both objective elements (such as pay and advancement) and subjective elements (including job satisfaction and career satisfaction). The results obtained from a sample of 1,388 executives in the United States indicated that demographic, human capital, motivational, and organizational factors accounted for a significant portion of the variance in objective career success and career satisfaction. Notably, the findings highlighted the predictive value of educational level, quality, prestige, and degree type for financial success. In contrast, job satisfaction was primarily influenced by motivational and organizational factors (Judge et al., 1995).

There was a study examining the relationship between race, job performance evaluations, organizational experiences, and career outcomes with 828 manager and their supervisors, from three companies in the communications, electronics, and banking industries in the Eastern US. Success in career, progress in meeting career goals, income, advancement, and skill development goals were factors measured for career satisfaction (Greenhaus et al., 1990). In a study examining the relationship between a lifelong learning mindset and career success with undergraduate co-op and graduates from accounting and finance programs in a Canadian university, the number of promotions was used to measure objective career success. Subjective career success was measured by three indicators: job satisfaction, job-related self-efficacy, and work engagement. Results indicated that a

lifelong learning mindset fosters both subjective and objective career success (Drewery et al., 2020) Keller & Semmer (2013) examined the longitudinal development of job control and Core Self-Evaluations (CSE) and their association with job satisfaction among a sample of 1145 young employees in Switzerland over five years. A multivariate latent growth modeling approach revealed that both the initial levels (intercepts) and growth rates (slopes) of job control and CSE were significantly related to each other, indicating a concurrent development of these factors during early careers. Notably, job satisfaction after five years was best predicted by the growth rates of job control ( $\beta = .31, p < .001$ ) and CSE ( $\beta = .34, p < .01$ ), highlighting the influential role of these factors in shaping long-term job satisfaction (Keller & Semmer, 2013). Abele and Spurk (2009) conducted a longitudinal study in Germany to explore the effects of occupational self-efficacy and career-advancement goals on both objective and subjective career success. The study followed 734 highly educated, full-time employed professionals over seven years, beginning from their graduation. Salary and hierarchical position defined objective career success; subjective career success was assessed by career satisfaction. The results showed that occupational self-efficacy favorably affected salary and career satisfaction, indicating that individuals with higher self-efficacy beliefs tend to achieve greater financial success and feel more satisfied with their careers. On the other hand, career-advancement goals were found to favorably influence hierarchical status but adversely influence professional satisfaction over time, implying that high career aspirations may lead to lower satisfaction, potentially due to unmet expectations (Abele & Spurk, 2009).

## **2.5 Leadership self-views, Employability and Career Success**

The interconnectedness between employability and career success has been empirically studied in different contexts. Niu et al. (2019) investigate the relationship between self-perceived employability and subjective career success among 85 graduates of a Workforce Education and Development (WED) program in a midwestern U.S. state university. The study took a quantitative approach, using the employability scales developed by Rothwell and Arnold (2007). The result indicates that subjective career success is significantly correlated with self-perceived employability, particularly internal employability. The study also shows that gender and GPA significantly influence perceived employability and career success, with women and those with lower GPAs reporting less confidence. Additionally, work experience and employment status while studying positively correlate with employability perceptions (Niu et al., 2019). Pool and Qualter (2013) conducted a study in the United Kingdom to investigate the relationships between emotional self-efficacy, graduate employability, and career satisfaction. The study revealed that emotional self-efficacy, defined as an individual's belief in their capacity to effectively handle emotional skills, significantly influences graduate employability. Additionally, they find that graduate employability mediates the relationship between emotional self-efficacy and career satisfaction. The study employs structural equation modeling with data from 306 working graduates, revealing that emotional self-efficacy is a crucial predictor of both employability and career satisfaction (pool & Qualter, 2013).

Hoedemakers, Vanderstukken, and Stoffers (2023) conducted a comprehensive study that examined the impact of various leadership qualities on employees'

employability in diverse sectors such as education, healthcare, and small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs). They found that transformational leadership, characterized by attributes such as individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation, is particularly effective in enhancing employability. This effect is mediated by the quality of the leader-employee relationship, indicating that leaders who foster a strong leader identity and supportive relationships can significantly impact employees' career development (Hoedemakers et al., 2023). Ahmed, Nawaz, and Rasheed (2019) explored the relationships between self-efficacy, self-esteem, and career success among employees in the banking, insurance, and health sectors in southern Punjab, Pakistan. They found that a strong leader identity, manifested through high self-efficacy and self-esteem, positively influences perceived employability and career success. This suggests that leaders who see themselves as competent and confident are more likely to navigate career challenges successfully (Ahmed et al., 2019). Tiraieyari and Abdul (2015) explore the impact of career self-efficacy and leadership attributes on employability orientation among Malaysian university students. Using data from 711 undergraduates across five public universities, the study finds that both career self-efficacy and leadership self-views positively correlate with employability orientation. However, leadership self-views emerged as a stronger predictor of employability. The research highlights the importance of developing leadership skills alongside career self-efficacy to enhance employability, suggesting that educational institutions should integrate leadership training into their curricula to better prepare students for the job market (Tiraieyari & Hamid, 2015). Parker and Carroll (2009) further support the integration of career and leadership development. In their study involving participants in a leadership development program, they found

that considering career perspectives alongside leadership training can enhance the personal meaning-making and relational capabilities of emerging leaders. This approach fosters a holistic development that prepares individuals for career success (Parker & Carroll, 2009).

## **2.6 Individual Differences and Contextual Factors**

The fields of organizational behavior and human resource management have paid great attention to the impact of various moderators, such as gender, work centrality, age, and job tenure, on the relationship between leader identity, leader self-efficacy, employability, career satisfaction, and subjective career success. According to various empirical studies, gender is a significant determinant of career path, how leaders are perceived, and the trajectories to achieving career success in various contexts and industries (Bharti & Rangnekar, 2019; Melamed, 1995; Orser & Leck, 2010; Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014). Work centrality, which refers to the importance of work in an individual's life, has a major moderating effect on employee outcomes. It influences their level of engagement with their work and their view of career satisfaction (Bagger & Li, 2012; Hu et al., 2021; Volery & Tarabashkina, 2021). Age and job tenure are significant factors that influence how employees perceive career success and satisfaction as time goes on (Ng & Feldman, 2010a, 2013; Riza et al., 2016; Wright & Bonett, 2002). These moderators taken together provide a complex dynamics inside organizational environments, adult education and leadership training institutions, stressing the need for tailored solutions to support different groups of employees and participants.

### 2.6.1 Gender

The role of gender in organizational settings and career development has been extensively studied in the field of vocational behavior and human resource management. Gender shapes many facets of career development, including leadership perceptions, career planning, career success outcomes, and the paths people take to reach success (Bharti & Rangnekar, 2019; Jung & Takeuchi, 2016; Melamed, 1995; Orser & Leck, 2010; Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014).

Paustian-Underdahl, Walker, and Woehr (2014) performed a meta-analysis evaluating gender variations in leadership impressions in different settings. While men were evaluated higher in business and military environments, women were assessed more favorably in several sectors, like education and social services, although the overall significant gender difference in perceived leadership effectiveness was not significant. Contextual factors such as organizational culture, industry, and hierarchical level were identified as important moderators of these perceptions. This implies that some organizational environments have strong, ingrained gender preconceptions that affect the evaluation of leadership effectiveness (Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014). In the meta-analysis on gender and leadership style, Eagly and Johnson (1990) examined a total of 162 studies across organizational, laboratory, and assessment settings with both self-reported and observer-rated measures. They found modest but consistent gender-related differences in leadership style. Women were more likely to use democratic and participative approaches across studies, while men showed a greater tendency toward autocratic or directive styles. These differences were less evident in field studies conducted within organizational settings than in laboratory or assessment contexts. This

suggests that organizational roles and expectations reduce stereotypical patterns. In addition, self-ratings of leadership style appeared more gender-stereotypic than evaluations made by subordinates or peers (Eagly & Johnson, 1990). Bharti and Rangnekar (2019) investigated how gender can moderate the association between optimism and career planning. According to their study, males benefit more from optimism than women, even if it influences career planning for both genders. Social conventions and gender role ideologies that shape career expectations and planning behavior help to explain this variation. Particularly for women who can encounter extra social and organizational obstacles, the results emphasize the importance of gender-specific interventions to improve career planning (Bharti & Rangnekar, 2019). Empirical research has also looked at how gender moderates job success and satisfaction. Melamed (1995) evaluated a gender-specific career success model based on British staff member data. Whereas men's success is more impacted by personality qualities and macro-societal opportunity structures (e.g., regional and industrial economic state), women's career success is more strongly driven by job-relevant human capital features (e.g., education, mental capacity). Furthermore, whilst men's career performance is not much influenced by home environment elements like marital status or parenthood, women's career success is hampered by them. These results emphasize the need to take gender-specific paths to career success into account and to tackle the particular difficulties experienced by women in the workforce (Melamed, 1995). Orser and Leck (2010) investigated how gender affects outcomes of career success, with a focus on pay, professional development, and perceived success. According to the research, men often cite better results in their careers than women. This discrepancy is caused in part by

factors including gender discrimination, difficulties with work-life balance, and variations in networking chances. To provide more fair career paths for men and women, Orser and Leck (2010) propose that models of career development must consider systematic gender disparities and sector-specific (Orser & Leck, 2010).

Carli and Eagly (2011) observed that despite major advances in education and workforce participation, women continue to be underrepresented in top executive and political leadership roles. This underrepresentation limits both advancement opportunities and perceptions of career success. In the meantime, the authors found no major gender differences in ambition for leadership, career commitment, or earnings aspirations. This suggests that the gap in outcomes is not driven by a lack of motivation among women. Context and evaluation processes are the key explanations for persistent gender gaps in leadership outcomes. Women continue to shoulder a larger share of domestic responsibilities, face stereotypes questioning their authority, and encounter biased performance evaluations, all of which can weaken the connection between their leadership self-views and career progression. While men often score higher on dominance and assertiveness, these traits do not always align with modern expectations for effective leadership, which increasingly emphasize collaboration and transformational behaviors (Carli & Eagly, 2012).

When evaluating subjective career success, Ng et al. (2005) found in the meta-analysis of the predictors of both subjective and objective career success that education had a greater influence on career satisfaction among women than it did on men. Women's perception of career satisfaction and fulfilment may be more enhanced by their capacity to invest in self-improvement activities, including education and skill development (T.

W. H. Ng et al., 2005) This observation might suggest that women tend to have lower career expectations than men (Judge et al., 1995). In a longitudinal study aimed to examine the impact of occupational self-efficacy and career-advancement goals on both objective and subjective career success involving 734 highly educated professionals from Germany, Abele and Spurk (2009) followed the study participants from graduation through the first seven years of their careers. The research also examined gender differences in career outcomes. While there were no significant gender differences in career-advancement goals, women reported slightly lower levels of occupational self-efficacy compared to men. Despite this, both men and women achieved similar levels of hierarchical status and career satisfaction after seven years, indicating no significant gender differences in these aspects. However, women consistently earned less than their male counterparts, even after controlling for factors such as discipline and working hours (Abele & Spurk, 2009).

### 2.6.2 Work Centrality

Work centrality is the personal view of work as a major part of life. Considered as a stable belief system, it is least influenced by temporary changes in the work environment (Paullay et al., 1994). Work centrality is the degree of importance of work in the life of a person. Job happiness and work behavior are much influenced by work centrality, sometimes known as job centrality (Ziegler & Schlett, 2016).

Work centrality shapes people's impressions of their job, interaction with their tasks, and relationship with their organizational surroundings. It is not only a reflection of one's attitude towards work but also a determinant of how employees interact with many organizational phenomena, including job satisfaction, turnover intentions, innovative

work behavior, and well-being, among others (Amah, 2009; Bagger & Li, 2012; Bal & Kooij, 2011; Bretz & Judge, 1994; Diefendorff et al., 2002; Hu et al., 2021; L. Jiang & Johnson, 2017; Tziner et al., 2014; Volery & Tarabashkina, 2021). Work centrality often serves as a crucial moderator in the complicated interaction among personal beliefs, workplace environment, and employee results is work centrality. Its moderating effect is especially clear in how different organizational elements affect employees' attitudes and behaviors, therefore determining the general efficiency and welfare in the workplace. Mannheim, Baruch, and Tal (1997) investigated within the Israeli high-tech sector the antecedents and outcomes associated with work centrality. The study revealed a positive, if non-significantly, correlation between performance and work centrality. One important finding from this study was the way job happiness was positioned as an antecedent rather than a result of work centrality (Mannheim et al., 1997). Bagger and Li (2012) explored how work centrality moderates the relationship between job insecurity and job satisfaction. They found that under employment uncertainty, people with a high degree of work centrality had varying degrees of job satisfaction and turnover intentions than those with lesser centrality (Bagger & Li, 2012). Volery and Tarabashkina (2021) discovered that work centrality moderates the relationship between employee creativity and Innovative Work Behavior (IWB). Specifically, the study found that individuals who regard work as a central life component are more likely to engage in innovative behaviors when they also score high on creativity measures (Volery & Tarabashkina, 2021). Hu et al. (2018) studied the moderating effect of work centrality on the relationship between qualitative job insecurity and subjective well-being in the Chinese context. Their results imply that the negative effects of job uncertainty on subjective well-being are less evident

for those who regard work as the main focus of their life, therefore adding still another level of complexity to how work centrality influences employee attitudes and behavior (Hu et al., 2021). Jiang and Johnson (2017) provided insight into how work centrality moderates the relationship between positive work reflection and affective commitment. The study indicates that for individuals with lower work centrality, the relationship between meaningful work and affective commitment is stronger, suggesting the importance of meaningful work in driving commitment for those who do not view work as central to their lives (L. Jiang & Johnson, 2017). Tziner et al. (2014) demonstrated that work centrality moderates the relationship between attachment styles and turnover intentions. Specifically, the study found that work centrality could influence how attachment styles translate into actual turnover behaviors, with certain attachment styles leading to higher turnover intentions among those with low work centrality (Tziner et al., 2014). Diefendorff and colleagues (2002) focused on a diverse workforce to understand how the role of personal values, including work centrality, impacts employee reactions and behaviors. The study revealed that work centrality is a significant predictor of various job attitudes and behaviors. Individuals with higher work centrality are likely to experience a heightened sense of job satisfaction and personal accomplishment (Diefendorff et al., 2002). In a study conducted by Bal and Kooij (2011), the population involved employees in a Dutch healthcare organization, representing a sector known for its intense emotional and physical demands on individuals. The authors found that psychological contract types significantly mediate the relationship between work centrality and various job attitudes, including work engagement, job satisfaction, and turnover intention. Notably, these mediating effects were stronger among older workers,

highlighting age as a moderating factor in the relationship between work centrality and job attitudes. This study offers important new perspectives on how the perceived responsibilities and entitlements from work (psychological contracts), together with the value of work in one's life, influence important employment attitudes and how these dynamics change with age (Bal & Kooij, 2011).

Work centrality is a major moderator that influences the interaction between organizational and personal elements with regard to important employee outcomes. These results together show the important part job centrality plays in organizational behavior, influencing employee attitudes and behavior in concert with several personal and environmental elements. They underline how closely work centrality is connected with several important job-related results, including job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and career planning. Crucially, these interactions are influenced by other elements like age, which highlights the complex character of job centrality in organizational environments.

### 2.6.3 Age and Job Tenure

Age and job tenure are substantial time factors in organizational behavior research, frequently serving as moderators in the relationship between a variety of work-related factors and outcomes. There are mixed research findings that suggest the potential for stagnation or decreased motivation over time, as well as the beneficial aspects of accumulated experience.

Age is a critical moderator that affects the development of leadership, job performance, and career satisfaction. Dobrow Riza, Ganzach, and Liu (2016) conducted research that demonstrates a positive correlation between age and job satisfaction,

suggesting that older employees are more content with their employment. The longitudinal study, which involved 21,670 participants over a 40-year period, demonstrated that job satisfaction increases with age, indicating that older employees experience greater fulfilment and contentment in their occupations (Riza et al., 2016). Bal, De Lange, Jansen, and Van Der Velde (2008) conducted a meta-analysis to investigate the impact of age on the relationship between job attitudes and psychological contract breaches. Their research demonstrated that the influence of contract breaches on job attitudes, including trust, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment, is moderated by age. Specifically, when psychological contracts were violated, younger employees exhibited more severe negative reactions in terms of trust and commitment. Conversely, senior employees demonstrated a more substantial decline in job satisfaction subsequent to the occurrence of breaches. This suggests that age influences how employees perceive and react to breaches in psychological contracts, highlighting the need for age-specific strategies in managing employee relationships and expectations (Bal et al., 2008). Bal and Kooij (2011) investigated the correlations between job attitudes, psychological contracts, and work centrality, with age serving as a moderating variable. Their research demonstrated that senior employees who exhibit a high degree of work centrality are more inclined to establish relational psychological contracts, which results in increased job satisfaction and organizational commitment. This emphasizes the significance of taking into account life stage and career phase when evaluating career satisfaction, as senior employees frequently possess distinct expectations and experiences from their younger colleagues (Bal & Kooij, 2011). In a meta-analysis by Ng and Feldman (2010), which examined 65 studies and included

23,000 employees, it was determined that age was positively correlated with organizational commitment and job satisfaction. The analysis suggested that older workers tend to have more favorable job dispositions as a result of their increased job stability and work experience. This favorable correlation implies that employees strengthen their emotional attachment to their organization and experience increased satisfaction with their professional accomplishments as they mature (T. W. H. Ng & Feldman, 2010b). In an empirical analysis of the factor structure and verifying a career success model of employability using 303 pairs of employees and supervisors study samples from a major Dutch construction material industry, age is found to have a moderating effect (Heijden et al., 2009). The results of Multi-Group Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) revealed that objective career success outcomes were substantially correlated with self-reported and supervisor-rated employability for younger individuals. On the other hand, self-rated employability was linked with career promotions for those over forty, whereas supervisor assessments exhibited a negative correlation with general promotions (Heijden et al., 2009). Furthermore, Kalleberg and Loscocco (1983) showed a favourable correlation between age and job satisfaction. Their research clarified that variations in work values and job rewards mostly account for variances in job satisfaction among age groups. Older employees often value employment stability and internal rewards more highly than others, which helps to explain their greater degree of contentment. This result emphasises the need to match employment rewards with the values of various age groups to increase career satisfaction (Kalleberg & Loscocco, 1983).

Job tenure, defined as the length of time an individual has been employed in their current organization or role, greatly influences career satisfaction, job performance, and leadership development (Ahmad et al., 2021; English et al., 2010; Hunt & Saul, 1975; Z. Jiang et al., 2018; Lee & Wilbur, 1985; T. W. H. Ng & Feldman, 2010a, 2013; Shirom et al., 2008; Wright & Bonett, 2002). Utilising a combined sample size of 249,841, Ng & Feldman (2013) investigated the connection between organisational tenure and job behaviours across 350 empirical studies. Their results showed, with a complex curvilinear effect, that tenure influences in-role performance and citizenship behaviour. Job performance, and by extension career satisfaction, initially improves with tenure but may plateau or decline over time. This suggests that although learning and adaptability might make the first years in a career more satisfying, longer tenure without new challenges can cause stagnation and lower satisfaction (T. W. H. Ng & Feldman, 2013). Ahmad, Ambad, Mohd, and Lajuni (2021) explored the moderation effect of job tenure on the relationship between psychological empowerment and employee performance within the Malaysian public sector. They found that psychological empowerment positively impacts employee performance, with job tenure enhancing this relationship. Longer-tenured employees exhibited stronger positive effects of empowerment on performance, suggesting that by offering more stability and organisational understanding, tenure can increase career happiness. This is especially pertinent for the growth of leaders since seasoned workers may act as unofficial leaders and mentors, guiding less experienced colleagues over their tenure (Ahmad et al., 2021). Wright and Bonett (2002) conducted a meta-analysis on the moderating effects of employee tenure on the relationship between organizational commitment and job performance. Their results

showed that tenure has a nonlinear moderating effect; the commitment-performance link is greater for new hires and decreases with rising tenure. This implies that whereas the performance and happiness of new hires are directly related to their organisational commitment, this link lessens as workers grow more seasoned in their positions. This suggests the need for constant involvement and development chances for leadership development in order to sustain high satisfaction degrees throughout time (Wright & Bonett, 2002). In a UK financial institution, Woods et al. (2018) looks at how organisational tenure could help to moderate the relationship between personality traits (more especially conscientiousness and openness) and innovative work behaviour (IWB). Their hierarchical regression study of 146 workers showed that tenure controls how conscientiousness and openness affect creative work behavior. Particularly, very diligent workers lost creativity over time, while highly open workers produced more ideas over time. Longer-term employees also started to become less creative. This relationship emphasizes how intricately tenure, personality, and age interact to shape employee behavior—a necessary process for producing adaptive and creative leaders (Woods et al., 2018).

Several studies have looked at how age and work tenure interact to affect career satisfaction, job performance, and leadership development. Examining the associations between age, education, work duration, salary, job characteristics, and job satisfaction, Lee and Wilbur (1985) performed a multivariate study. Their results showed that job satisfaction is favourably correlated with age and employment tenure. Education, income, and job characteristics help to mitigate the link. Higher education and income improve job satisfaction, particularly for older workers, suggesting that both age and tenure are

rather important in determining career satisfaction (Lee & Wilbur, 1985). In a sample of 5,800 white-collar professionals, Hunt and Saul (1975) looked at the relationships among age, tenure, and job satisfaction. Age and tenure both positively correlate with job satisfaction. But the strength of the link differs by gender. For men, age correlates more strongly with job satisfaction; for women, tenure is more important. This study emphasises the intricacy of the link between age, tenure, and career satisfaction and the importance of gender-sensitive methods in career development and satisfaction initiatives (Hunt & Saul, 1975). Jiang, Hu, and Wang (2017) investigated how job self-efficacy and tenure might moderate the association between career adaptability and job content plateau. Their studies showed that for low job self-efficacy and long-tenured workers, especially, career adaptability lowers job content plateau more successfully. This implies that, typically connected with professional happiness and advancement, tenure and self-efficacy are quite important in how employees view and handle job stagnation. Encouragement of career adaptability and self-efficacy is essential for developing leaders who can negotiate career plateaus and keep on developing in their positions (Z. Jiang et al., 2018).

Examining moderators, including gender, work centrality, age, and job tenure, helps to better understand their significant roles in the interaction between different organizational elements and results, including leadership development, job performance, and career satisfaction. These elements affect not only how people navigate their careers but also how they perceive and achieve success.

## 2.7 Summary

This literature review has examined the complex relationships between leader identity, leadership development, employability, and career success. Leadership development encompasses both individual leader development and collective leadership development. Leader development focuses on personal competencies such as self-awareness, self-efficacy, and leader identity, whereas leadership development emphasizes broader, collective processes like alignment, direction setting, and relationship building (Day & Dragoni, 2014). Day and Dragoni's (2014) multilevel framework distinguishes the proximal and distal outcomes of leadership development. The proximal leadership development indicators include leader identity, leader self-efficacy, and leadership knowledge, skills, and abilities, while the distal outcomes include dynamic skills and abstraction capabilities. Leader identity is at the core of this development process, as it has a significant impact on an individual's motivation to pursue leadership opportunities and sustain developmental efforts over time (Lord & Hall, 2005; Epitropaki et al., 2017).

Identity work is the critical process in leader development. It is the "cognitive, discursive, physical, and behavioral activities" through which individuals form, maintain, reinforce, or revise their self-conceptions as leaders (Caza et al., 2018, p. 7). The temporal nature of identity work means that an individual's present identity construction is influenced by his/her past experiences and future aspirations, creating a continuous developmental trajectory (Caza et al., 2018). Through processes of identification and dis-identification, individuals establish and internalize their self-concept as a leader, while rejecting identities associated with certain roles (Ibarra et al., 2014; DeRue & Ashford, 2010). When an individual engages in leader identity work, he/she would become more

motivated to make leadership attempts, take on new leadership challenges, thus creating additional opportunities for further skill enhancement and identity development (Lord & Hall, 2005).

Business schools function as identity workspaces with structured social support, conscious learning and development communities, and carefully designed transformative experiences that foster identity formation and maintenance (Petriglieri & Petriglieri, 2010). Leadership training programs have been empirically proven to drive within-person leader identity change (Middleton et al., 2019), with trajectories often following curvilinear patterns influenced by factors such as learning goal orientation and motivation to learn (Kwok et al., 2020; Miscenko et al., 2017).

Employability is an individual's capacity to secure and maintain meaningful work while adapting to the changing job market demand (Fugate et al., 2004; Rothwell & Arnold, 2007). The heuristic model of employability provides a comprehensive framework that connects leadership self-views with career development outcomes through four interdependent dimensions: career identity/self-management, networking, professional development, and environmental monitoring (Presti and Pluviano, 2015). Based on the model, key antecedents that shape employability development include training and work experience that build human capital, personal dispositions like resilience and adaptability, and life circumstances that either enhance or constrain employability. In the meantime, the proximal and distal outcomes of employability are, respectively, objective and subjective career success, satisfaction, and work engagement (Presti & Pluviano, 2015). Empirical research has demonstrated that employability has a mediating effect between leadership self-views, such as leader self-efficacy, leader

identity, and career success outcomes, including both objective indicators like salary and promotions, and subjective measures such as career satisfaction (Ahmed et al., 2019; Tiraieyari & Hamid, 2015). Several moderating factors, including gender, work centrality, age, and job tenure, influence these relationships (Bharti & Rangnekar, 2019; Bagger & Li, 2012; Ng & Feldman, 2013). These relationships are shaped by contextual factors including gender, work centrality, age, and job tenure, emphasizing how individual differences influence career trajectories (Bharti & Rangnekar, 2019; Bagger & Li, 2012; Ng & Feldman, 2013).

## **Chapter Three: Theoretical Framework and Hypotheses Development**

The comprehensive literature review has provided the theoretical foundation for the current study, which tracks Chinese mid-career professionals' leader development indicators over time and examines the relationship between leadership self-views, including leader identity, leader self-efficacy, and career development-related measures. Conducted in a business setting, the study aims to enrich empirical understanding of leader identity development and to measure the effectiveness of business schools as identity workspaces. Besides, the research is also expected to broaden leader identity research by incorporating career-related constructs, including employability, career satisfaction, and subjective career success.

### **3.1. Theoretical Framework**

This research relies on Day and Dragoni's (2014) Multilevel Leadership Development Framework. This framework distinguishes between immediate psychological changes and later career outcomes. The study also integrates Social Cognitive Theory (Bandura, 1997) and Identity Theory (Stryker & Burke, 2000) to explain leader development. Finally, the Heuristic Model of Employability acts as the bridge connecting internal growth to external career success.

#### **3.1.1 The Organizing Lens: Day and Dragoni's Multilevel Framework**

Day and Dragoni (2014) distinguish between leader development and leadership development. Leader development focuses on expanding individual human capital. In contrast, leadership development builds collective social capital. This inquiry sits within the individual domain. The framework suggests that educational interventions, like an MBA, do not immediately yield organizational dividends. Instead, their primary function

is to cultivate proximal developmental indicators. These indicators are Leader Identity and Leader Self-Efficacy. They act as psychological resources or seeds for growth. Therefore, Employability and Career Success are viewed as "distal" outcomes. They are rooted in the strength of these proximal resources.

### 3.1.2 Social Cognitive Theory and Leader Self-Efficacy

Social Cognitive Theory (SCT) explains the growth of Leader Self-Efficacy (Bandura, 1997). SCT views human agency as an interaction between personal factors, behavior, and the environment. It treats self-efficacy as a dynamic capacity rather than a static trait. It is highly responsive to environmental stimuli. Mastery experiences and "social persuasion" are central to this development. Smith and Woodworth (2012) argue that management education provides "enactive mastery." This occurs through simulations and complex problem-solving. These experiences reinforce a student's belief in their capabilities. Faculty critiques and peer feedback add social persuasion. Consequently, the MBA environment recalibrates internal belief systems. This instigates the proactive behaviors needed for career advancement.

### 3.1.3 Identity Theory and Business Schools as Identity Workspaces

SCT accounts for the confidence to execute a role. Identity Theory addresses the internalization of the role itself (Stryker & Burke, 2000). This perspective views the self as a hierarchy of identities. These are defined by their relative salience and commitment. Petriglieri and Petriglieri (2010) describe business schools as Identity Workspaces. These are holding environments where students can experiment with a "leader" identity. They can solidify this identity relative to other self-concepts, such as being a functional specialist. Educational interventions act as catalysts (I. H. Smith & Woodworth, 2012).

They enable individuals to define the social category of leadership. Through this, individuals claim membership within that category. DeRue and Ashford (2010) describe this as a recursive process of "claiming and granting." The program acts as a social laboratory. Participants enact leadership and receive validation from their cohort. As a result, the identity shifts from a trial to an internalized reality.

#### 3.1.4 The Heuristic Model of Employability as the Linking Mechanism

Heuristic Model of Employability mediates the translation of internal resources into market realities (Presti & Pluviano, 2015). This model moves beyond defining employability as simple employment status. It redefines it as a psycho-social construct. It consists of career identity, adaptability, and human capital. In this model, individual dispositions, including leader identity and self-efficacy, are positioned as antecedents, which lead a heightened employability orientation. This manifests as superior self-management and environmental monitoring (Fugate et al., 2004). Employability thus functions as a behavioral bridge. It converts the psychological capital from the MBA into tangible metrics of Subjective Career Success.

#### 3.1.5 Integrating the Framework: Moderators and Individual Differences

Converting psychological resources into career success is not a uniform process. It depends on specific boundary conditions. Work Centrality measures the importance assigned to work in one's life. It operates as an amplifier (Paullay et al., 1994). It intensifies the link between identity and outcomes. Motivation to Lead (MTL) serves as an intrinsic engine. It governs the intensity of effort invested in leadership roles (Chan & Drasgow, 2001). The model also respects the temporal dimension of careers by including Job Tenure (Ng & Feldman, 2013). Finally, it acknowledges sociological constraints.

Gender often dictates differential evaluation pathways in leadership contexts (Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014).

### 3.1.6 Theoretical Integration and Link to Research Questions

This research integrates multiple theoretical perspectives to construct a cohesive framework that directly addresses the three research questions proposed in Chapter One.

Research Question 1 about the effectiveness of structured leadership development program, such as the MBA, in helping to improve participants' leadership self-views.

Day and Dragoni's (2014) framework answers this by defining leader identity and self-efficacy as proximal leadership development outcomes. These are the immediate psychological changes that occur during training. Identity Theory explains why these changes happen. It positions the business school as an identity workspace (Petriglieri & Petriglieri, 2010). Here, students can experiment with and construct a leader identity in a safe environment. Social Cognitive Theory adds to this. It suggests that the MBA curriculum provides "mastery experiences" (Bandura, 1997). These experiences build the confidence, or self-efficacy, that are necessary to assume leadership responsibilities.

Together, these theories explain the mechanism of change measured in Study 2.

Research Question 2 asks: To what extent do leadership self-views contribute to improved career outcomes? The Heuristic Model of Employability connects internal self-views to external career success (Presti & Pluviano, 2015). It serves as the bridge in this study. Day and Dragoni's framework separates proximal indicators from distal outcomes like career success. However, it does not fully explain the process between them. The Heuristic Model fills this gap. Based on the model, strong leader identity and efficacy increase the employability orientation, which then drives the behaviors that lead to

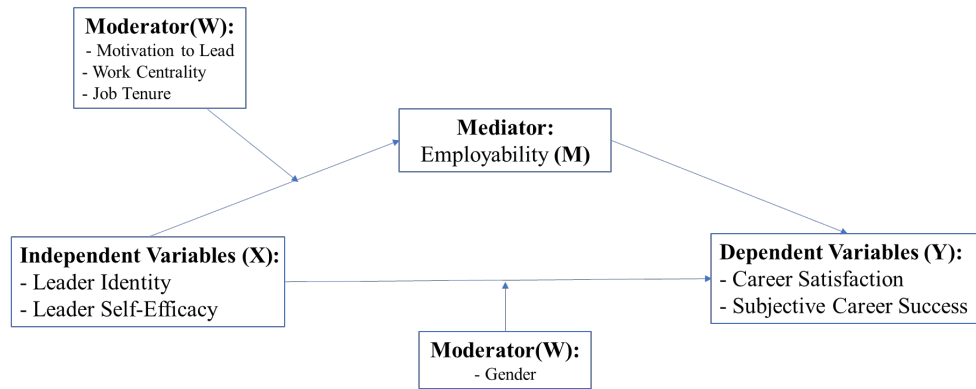
subjective career success and satisfaction. This theoretical link supports the mediation hypotheses (H4 and H5) tested across all three studies.

Research Question 3 asks: How do individual differences and contextual variables moderate the direct and indirect relationships between leadership self-views and career outcomes? The theoretical framework acknowledges that development does not happen in a vacuum. It integrates boundary conditions to explain these variations. Motivation to Lead (MTL) is theorized as the intrinsic engine that determines effort intensity (Chan & Drasgow, 2001). Role Congruity Theory suggests that Gender influences how leadership claims are granted or rejected by others (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Finally, the concept of career tenure acknowledges that identity consolidation takes time (Day & Harrison, 2007). These theories justify why the study tests moderation effects for gender, tenure, and motivation in Studies 1, 2, and 3.

### **3.2 Conceptual Framework**

The conceptual framework, as shown in Figure 3.1 below, illustrates the hypothesized relationships between all the constructs. Leader identity and leader self-efficacy are independent variables (X) while career satisfaction and subjective career success are dependent variables (Y). This relationship is mediated by employability (M) and moderated by two distinct sets of variables: motivation to lead, work centrality, and job tenure as one set (W) between leader identity, leader self-efficacy and employability, and gender as another moderator between leader identity, leader self-efficacy and the two career development indicators – career satisfaction and subjective career success (W).

Figure 3.1 The Conceptual Framework



The framework is built based on related literature that an individual's leadership self-views, as reflected through leader identity and leader self-efficacy, may influence his/her career satisfaction and subjective career success both directly and indirectly. The indirect relationship happens through perceived employability, as it is hypothesized that individuals who strongly identify themselves as leaders and are confident in their leadership abilities will have higher level of self-perceived employability, which in turn leads to enhanced career satisfaction and subjective career success. The framework also takes into consideration potential gender differences in these relationships.

### 3.3 Hypotheses Development

#### 3.3.1 Leadership Development through MBA Programs

Leadership training and development are strategic priorities for organizations worldwide (Amagoh, 2009; Lacerenza et al., 2017). Despite increasing budgets allocated for leadership training, companies still face shortages of leadership capabilities (Schwartz et al., 2014). Several meta-analyses have consistently demonstrated meaningful effects of leadership training on important job performance outcomes (Avolio et al., 2009; Burke &

Day, 1986; Lacerenza et al., 2017). Leadership training has been empirically proven to successfully drive measurable within-person leader identity change for participants across different age groups (Middleton et al., 2019).

Business schools function as identity workspaces with conscious learning and development communities, structured social support, and carefully designed transformative experiences. These safe and dynamic environments enable participants to engage in professional identity work that fosters identity formation and maintenance (Petriglieri & Petriglieri, 2010). Leadership development programs positively impact leader identity by fostering self-awareness and aligning personal values with leadership roles (Day & Harrison, 2007). Master of Business Administration (MBA) education is specifically designed to prepare graduates for managerial and leadership positions (Baruch, 2001) with enhanced career prospects for participants as a result of improved leadership capabilities and human capital (Marino, 2019).

Based on the literature, the first hypothesis is developed as follows:

***H1:*** Participation in the MBA program will positively influence participants' (a) leader identity and (b) leader self-efficacy.

### 3.3.2 Leader Identity and Career Outcomes

Leader identity, defined as "a sub-component of one's working self-concept that includes leadership schemas, leadership experiences, and future representations of oneself as a leader" (Epitropaki et al., 2017, p. 107), plays a crucial role in leadership development. Changes in leader identity are connected with changes in self-perceived leadership effectiveness (Miscenko et al., 2017). Individuals who internalize a leadership role with a strong leader identity are more likely to take leadership initiative and be recognized for their leadership competencies, which would significantly boost their

employability and career growth (DeRue & Ashford, 2010). A well-developed leader identity also helps people showcase essential leadership skills, which are increasingly critical for advancing employability in today's competitive job market (Epitropaki et al., 2017). An individual's career path and previous experiences have an impact on his/her leader identity development. Those who fully embrace a leader identity would find it easier to navigate career transitions (Smith et al., 2020).

These findings support the following hypothesis:

**H2:** Leader identity will positively influence (a) self-perceived employability, (b) subjective career success, and (c) career satisfaction.

### 3.3.3 Leader Self-Efficacy and Career Outcomes

Leader self-efficacy is defined as an individual's belief in his/her capabilities to self-regulate thoughts, motivation, and resources for appropriate courses of action required for sustainable performance in leadership roles (Hannah et al., 2008, 2012). It is a critical determinant of success across various contexts. Self-efficacy influences an individual's behaviors, thought patterns, and emotional arousal (Bandura, 1982). Self-efficacy has been proven to be associated with both subjective and objective career success (Abele & Spurk, 2009; Ballout, 2009; Lent & Brown, 2006b). Ballout (2009) found that self-efficacy moderates the relationship between career commitment and both objective and subjective measures of career success. Abele and Spurk (2009) showed that higher self-efficacy at career entry significantly predicted greater salary, status, and career satisfaction at later career stages. Leader efficacy has been empirically tested as a mediator between various constructs, including personality traits, leadership effectiveness, and motivation to lead (Ng et al., 2008; Schyns et al., 2020).

Therefore, the following hypothesis is proposed:

**H3:** Leader self-efficacy will positively influence (a) self-perceived employability, (b) subjective career success, and (c) career satisfaction.

### 3.3.4 The Mediating Role of Employability

Employability refers to an individual's capacity to secure and sustain employment, as well as adapt to the evolving job market demand (Fugate et al., 2004). In an uncertain environment where life-long employment is no longer secured, it is important for a working individual to maintain attractiveness and competitiveness in the labor market (Fugate et al., 2004; Rothwell & Arnold, 2007). The heuristic model of employability connects leadership self-views and career development outcomes through four interdependent dimensions: career identity/self-management, networking, professional development, and environmental monitoring (Presti and Pluviano, 2015). Based on the model, one of the key antecedents that shape employability development is personal dispositions and qualities, including self-efficacy, as well as training that builds human capital. In the meantime, the proximal and distal outcomes of employability are, respectively, objective and subjective career success, satisfaction, as well as work engagement (Presti & Pluviano, 2015). Several empirical studies have examined employability as a mediating variable between leader identity, leader self-efficacy, leadership qualities, and objective and subjective measurements of career success (Ahmed et al., 2019; Elsey et al., 2022; Tiraieyari & Hamid, 2015; Heijde and Heijden, 2006).

Based on the literature, it is hypothesized that:

**H4:** Leader identity will have an indirect effect on (a) career satisfaction and (b) subjective career success via employability.

**H5:** Leader self-efficacy will have an indirect effect on (a) career satisfaction and (b) subjective career success via employability.

### 3.3.5 The Moderating Role of Individual Differences

Work centrality is the degree of importance of work in a person's life (Paullay et al., 1994). It shapes people's views towards their job, interaction with their tasks, and relationship with their organizational environments (Ziegler & Schlett, 2016). Research shows that work centrality often functions as an important moderator in the complex interaction among personal beliefs, workplace environment, and work-related outcomes, including work engagement, well-being, and job satisfaction (Mannheim et al., 1997; Bagger & Li, 2012; Volery & Tarabashkina, 2021).

Motivation to Lead (MTL) refers to an individual's drive to assume leadership roles, responsibilities, or to embark on further leadership developmental training (Chan & Drasgow, 2001). MTL is critical in the effectiveness and emergence of leaders (Riggio & Mumford, 2011). It affects an individual's intensity of efforts in leading and the level of persistence as a leader. Empirical research has found that individuals with higher levels of MTL benefit more from leadership training as they consider the training an opportunity to improve their competencies for future career opportunities (Stiehl et al., 2015).

Job tenure is the duration of time an individual has spent in their current organization or role. Empirical studies indicate that job tenure greatly influences career satisfaction, job performance, and leadership development (Ahmad et al., 2021; Wright & Bonett, 2002). Ng and Feldman (2013) found that job performance follows a curvilinear trajectory with tenure: initial improvement as employees gain expertise, followed by potential plateauing or decline over extended periods. Wright and Bonett (2002) observed a negative correlation between job tenure and commitment's influence on job

performance. Ahmad et al. (2021) found that longer-tenured employees more effectively translate psychological empowerment into performance gains. These varied findings indicate that tenure doesn't simply strengthen or weaken career relationships. Instead, it transforms how leadership qualities convert into career advantages at different career stages. From an identity-based perspective, DeRue and Ashford (2010) argue that leader–follower relationships develop through iterative, reciprocal cycles of claiming and granting leader and follower identities, which are then internalized, recognized in role relationships, and collectively endorsed in the broader organizational context over time. Longer tenure likely provides more opportunities for such repeated claiming–granting interactions, allowing leadership self-views to become more fully enacted in day-to-day work and more strongly recognized and reinforced within the organization. Day and Harrison (2007) conceptualize leadership development as involving the construction of individual, relational, and collective leadership identities at different hierarchical levels and across managerial transitions (e.g., from individual contributor to general manager). Building on this view, we might expect that time spent in roles (i.e., tenure) could be relevant for how such identities are formed and consolidated, which may in turn support career development-related outcomes.

Based on the above, I propose the following hypotheses:

**H6a:** The indirect effects of (a) leader identity and (b) leader efficacy on subjective career success and career satisfaction via employability will be moderated by work centrality. Specifically, the indirect effect will be stronger when work centrality is high.

**H6b:** The indirect effects of (a) leader identity and (b) leader efficacy on subjective career success and career satisfaction via employability will be moderated by motivation to lead. Specifically, the indirect effect will be stronger when the motivation to lead is high.

**H6c:** The indirect effects of (a) leader identity and (b) leader efficacy on subjective career success and career satisfaction via employability will be moderated by job tenure. Specifically, the indirect effect will be stronger when job tenure is longer.

Research indicates gender differences in the impact of individual characteristics on leadership and various career development dimensions. Role congruity theory (Eagly & Karau, 2002) provides a theoretical foundation for understanding gender as a moderator in individual's reactions to leadership and leadership outcomes. Leadership roles are typically defined in predominantly agentic, masculine terms, whereas the female gender role is defined in predominantly communal terms, creating perceived incongruity for women between leadership expectations and gender role expectations. This incongruity leads to less favorable attitudes toward female than male leaders, greater difficulty for women in attaining leadership roles, and greater difficulty for women in being recognized as effective in these roles. Paustian-Underdahl et al. (2014) identified that men received more favorable leadership evaluations in business and military environments, while women were rated more positively in education and social services. Career success models similarly diverge, with Melamed (1995) demonstrating that women's advancement depends more heavily on formal human capital factors, while men's success correlates more strongly with personality traits and economic conditions. Specifically, Bharti and Rangnekar (2019) found that males benefit more from psychological attributes like optimism in career planning compared to women. And according to Orser & Leck (2010), despite of similar qualifications, men tend to report better career outcomes than women. DeRue and Ashford's (2010) identity-based model further suggests that leadership outcomes depend on a social process in which individuals claim leader identities and others grant or deny them, and in which these identities are

then collectively endorsed in the broader context. Because leader and follower identities become stronger and more stable when they are collectively endorsed as part of the group “leaders” or “followers,” gendered expectations about who is seen as “leader-like” may systematically affect whose leader claims are granted and reinforced over time. Taken together, these findings suggest that the direct influence of leadership self-views on career outcomes may differ between genders.

Based on the literature, the following hypothesis is proposed:

***H7:*** Gender will moderate the direct relationships between leadership self-views (a) leader identity, (b) leader self-efficacy) and career outcomes, including career satisfaction and subjective career success, such that these relationships will be stronger for men than for women.

## Chapter Four: Research Design and Methodology

### 4.1 Philosophical Worldviews

Worldviews are “general philosophical orientation about the world and the nature of research that a researcher brings to a study” (p. 43, Creswell & Creswell, 2018). The four widely discussed worldviews in the literature are postpositivism, transformative, constructivism, and pragmatism (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

Table 4.1.1 Four Philosophical Worldviews

<b>Worldviews</b>	<b>Features</b>	<b>Research approach</b>
Post positivism	Focuses on the laws and theories that govern the world, tries to verify the theory and causal relationship with numerical measures;	Quantitative
Constructivism	Believes in differences in individuals who construct the meaning of the world with their own interpretations; aims to generate a theory with research data	Qualitative
Transformative	Power and justice orientation focuses on social inequalities; it includes a change agenda.	Qualitative
Pragmatism	Focus on actions, situations, and consequences, a problem-centered approach	Mixed method approach

*Note: Adjusted from Creswell & Creswell (2018).*

The postpositivist worldview, or sometimes the scientific method, represents a deterministic philosophy that causes determine outcomes or effects. The Postpositivist approach addresses the need to assess the underlying factors that contribute to certain outcomes based on numeric measures. According to a postpositivist, the world is governed by certain laws and theories that need to be verified or tested. A postpositivist scientific method normally starts with a theory, then verifies the theory with data, makes necessary revisions, and carries out additional tests (Creswell & Creswell, 2018)

The constructivist worldview believes that individuals construct their own understanding of the world, and they develop the subjective meaning of their lives, experiences, and situations that are varied and multiple. Researchers with a constructivist worldview would normally adopt a qualitative approach and look into details of what people say and do in the context they are situated, and interpret the meaning participants have about the world. The historical and cultural backgrounds of the research participants are both very important in shaping their understanding of the world. In the meantime, the personal, cultural, and historical background of the researcher also has an impact on how they position themselves in the study and how they interpret the research findings (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

The transformative worldview pays special attention to the marginalized population in society who do not fit into the structural theories and laws under postpositivist assumptions. It has a power and justice orientation and focuses on social inequalities. Based on the transformative worldview, the constructivist approach does not go deep enough with concrete actions to help marginalized people. A transformative research approach normally addresses specific social issues and includes an action for reform and a political agenda that might change the lives of the research participants and the researcher, both professionally and personally (Creswell & Creswell, 2018)

The pragmatic worldview focuses on actions, situations, and consequences. Pragmatist researchers are not committed to any reality or school of philosophy and are free to choose any techniques, methods, and procedures that are most appropriate for their research needs and purposes. The pragmatic worldview is the philosophy underpinning mixed-method studies (Creswell & Creswell, 2018).

The postpositivist worldview is adopted in the current study with a quantitative research approach. According to Creswell & Creswell (2018), the quantitative approach is the best to identify factors that contribute to an outcome, define the effectiveness of an intervention, understand causal relationships between variables, and test an explanation or theory. With the objective to measure the change of leadership related indicators and their relationship with selected career development constructs using samples of the mid-career working professionals in the business school context, the thesis is going to collect quantitative data regarding participants' leader identity and multiple other constructs including self-perceived employability, career satisfaction, subjective career success, motivation to lead (MTL), leader self-efficacy, to verify the hypothesis that participants leader identity would evolve positively at different times of the management education study, and an enhanced leader identity will lead to a higher level of self-perceived employability and career success. Moderation and mediation analyses are to be conducted with multiple constructs, including employability, motivation to lead, job tenure, work centrality, and gender.

## **4.2 Research Design**

Altogether, three quantitative studies have been conducted with both cross-sectional and time-lagged data to define causal, mediation, and moderation relationships between the key constructs. The four surveys included in the three studies were administered to three different study populations, spanning about 16 months. Studies 1 and 3 used a cross-sectional design to investigate the relationships between leader identity, leader self-efficacy, employability, and career satisfaction, and the moderating effects of gender, motivation to lead, job tenure, and work centrality. The two studies

collect data simultaneously at one point in time, which makes it easier to evaluate the relationships between various variables without establishing causality (Kesmodel, 2018). Study 2 uses a time-lagged design to complement study 1 and three with key constructs, leader identity, and leader self-efficacy collected at two different time points across six months. Longitudinal studies offer the advantage of observing changes in individual participants, tracking the influence of exposures on outcomes, and establishing the temporal sequence of events (Caruana et al., 2015). With participants' leader identity and leader self-efficacy changes tracked over time, Study 2 provides a more comprehensive picture of how the associations between the variables change over time and enabling more robust conclusions to be drawn about causality. A 7-point Likert scale has been used across all four surveys. Table 4.2.1 provides an overview of the hypotheses tested across three studies, including the key constructs and the corresponding studies.

Hypothesis H1 examines the impact of participation in an MBA program on leader identity and leader self-efficacy, respectively, measured at two different time points over six months in Study 2. Hypotheses H2, explored in all the three studies, investigate the relationships between leader identity, self-perceived employability, subjective career success, and career satisfaction. Similarly, Hypotheses H3, examined in Studies 1, 2, and 3, focus on the influence of leader self-efficacy on employability and career outcomes. Hypotheses H4 to H5 propose employability as a mediator in the relationships between self-efficacy, leader identity, and career outcomes and are tested in all the three studies. Hypothesis H6a considers work centrality as a moderator and is tested in Study 3. Hypothesis H6b examines motivation to lead as a moderator across the three studies. Hypothesis H6c considers job tenure as a moderator and is tested in Study 3. Finally,

Hypothesis H7 investigates the moderating effect of gender on the relationships between leader identity, leader self-efficacy, and career satisfaction and success, and is addressed in Studies 1, 2, and 3.

Table 4.2.1 Overview of Hypotheses, Key Constructs, and Corresponding Studies

Hypothesis	Key Constructs	Corresponding Studies
H1	Leader identity Time 1 and Time 2 leader self-efficacy at Time 1 and Time 2	Study 2
H2	Leader identity, Employability, Subjective career success, Career satisfaction	Studies 1, 2, and 3
H3	Leader self-efficacy, Employability, Subjective career success, Career satisfaction	Studies 1, 2, and 3
H4	Leader identity, Employability, Career satisfaction, Subjective career success	Studies 1, 2, and 3
H5	Leader self-efficacy, Employability, Subjective career success, Career satisfaction	Studies 1, 2, and 3
H6a	Work centrality, Leader identity, Leader self- efficacy, Employability, Subjective career success, Career satisfaction	Study 3
H6b	Motivation to lead, Leader identity, Leader self- efficacy, Employability, Subjective career success, Career satisfaction	Studies 1, 2, and 3
H6c	Job tenure, Leader identity, Leader self-efficacy, Employability, Subjective career success, Career satisfaction	Study 3
H7	Gender, leader identity, Leader self-efficacy, career satisfaction, subjective career success	Studies 1, 2, and 3

The research designs used in this thesis have limitations in supporting causal claims. Studies 1 and 3 relied on cross-sectional data collected at a single point in time. As a result, the analyses can identify associations between variables, but they cannot establish temporal ordering or determine causality. Study 2 complement the results with time lagged data collected at two time points six months apart, which shows the sequence

of different variables. However, it does not involve random assignments to different groups. Participants in Study 2 were all MBA students, so we cannot be certain whether the changes observed were due to the MBA program or to other life events happening at the same time.

Because of these design choices, the findings show patterns and relationships rather than proven cause-and-effect. When this thesis uses words like "influence" or "predict," these describe statistical relationships based on theory, not experimentally proven causation. To make stronger causal claims, future research would need random assignment and control groups.

### **4.3 Participants and Sampling**

The nonprobability purposive sampling technique, which targets specific and predefined survey participants, was adopted (Pettus-Davis et al., 2011). The survey population is part-time students and alumni from an independent business school based in Shanghai, China. Being the top-ranked school in the region, the school has successfully attracted high-caliber business professionals since its establishment in 1994. Participants in studies 1 and 2 are enrolled students in the part-time Finance MBA program, and participants in study 3 are alumni from the different programs. With an average age of about 34 upon enrollment, students in the part-time Finance MBA programs are mid-career professionals who work in various sectors of the finance industry and those who work in finance-related functions in other industries. The part-time Finance MBA program has a mission of “developing future leaders in the finance industry” and is considered one of the best finance MBA programs in the country. The program charges a premium tuition fee of about RMB578,000 (about 64,000 pounds) for the 2022 intake,

and the students admitted to the program are mostly promising middle-level managers from elite companies with an average working experience of about 10 years and an average managerial experience of 5 years. Based on the incoming students' survey, developing leadership skills remains to be one of the top three motivations for joining the program. Students from other programs in the school have different age range upon enrollment, with 29 for full-time MBA students, 39 for Executive MBA and Global EMBA students, and 40 for Hospitality EMBA students. Alumni from different programs are expected to be at different levels of leadership development.

Samples for study 1 and study 2 were recruited from participants of the part-time Finance MBA. Study 1 surveyed the FMBA2019 and FMBA2020 cohorts in early November 2022, right before their graduation ceremony, with 185 valid responses. Study 2 collected data from the FMBA2022 cohort at two time points with 121 valid responses. While Study 3 targeted alumni from different programs within the business school, with 81 valid responses, including 74 from FMBA alumni across 2012–2018 cohorts and 7 from other CEIBS programs. Details are provided below in the Findings section.

#### **4.4 Instrumentation**

All the nine constructs were measured with scales in the established literature.

##### **4.4.1 Leader Identity**

Leader identity is measured by the 12-item scale developed by Hiller (2005). This measure examines the extent to which individuals identify themselves as leaders. Participants rated how descriptive each statement was of them on a 7-point scale from 1 (Not at all descriptive) to 7 (Extremely descriptive). Sample items include: "I see myself as a leader" and "If I had to describe myself to others, I would include the word 'leader'."

Participants also rated their certainty about these statements and the importance of these views on similar 7-point scales.

#### 4.4.2 Leader Self-Efficacy

Leader efficacy (Hannah et al., 2008a, 2012) is measured by Hardy et al. (2010) 5-item scale. Participants rated their confidence on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 7 (Strongly agree). Sample items include: "Compared to the most confident leader you know, how would you rate your confidence in your ability to perform the tasks necessary to be a successful leader?" and "Compared to the most confident leader you know, how would you rate your confidence in your ability to concentrate well enough to be successful?".

#### 4.4.3 Motivation to Lead

Motivation to Lead (MTL) (Chan & Drasgow, 2001; Kark & Dijk, 2007; Schyns et al., 2020) is measured using the scale developed by Chan and Drasgow (2001), which includes three subscales: affective motivation to lead, social-normative motivation to lead, and non-calculative motivation to lead. Each subscale consists of nine items rated on a 7-point scale from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 7 (Strongly agree). The affective motivation to lead subscale assesses the enjoyment and satisfaction individuals derive from leading others. Sample items include: "Most of the time, I prefer being a leader rather than a follower when working in a group," and "I usually want to be the leader in the groups that I work in." The social-normative motivation to lead subscale refers to the sense of duty or responsibility individuals feel towards leading, often driven by societal or organizational norms. Sample items include: "I feel that I have a duty to lead others if I am asked," and "I was taught to believe in the value of leading others." The non-

calculative motivation to lead subscale describes the willingness to lead without considering the personal costs or benefits. Sample items include: "I would agree to lead others even if there are no special rewards or benefits with that role," and "I never expect to get more privileges if I agree to lead a group."

#### 4.4.4 Employability

Employability is measured by the 11-item scale by Rothwell & Arnold (2007). Participants rated their agreement with each statement on a 7-point scale from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 7 (Strongly agree). Sample items include: "Even if there was downsizing in this organization, I am confident that I would be retained," and "The skills I have gained in my present job are transferable to other occupations outside this organization."

#### 4.4.5 Career Success

Career success is (Shockley et al., 2016) quantified through a combination of career satisfaction and subjective career success scales. Career satisfaction was measured using a five-item scale developed by Greenhaus et al. (1990). This construct assesses individuals' contentment with their career progress and current job situation (Greenhaus et al., 1990). Participants responded to each statement on a 7-point scale from 1 (Strongly disagree) to 5 (Strongly agree), with responses reverse-coded so that high scores reflect extensive perceived career support. Sample items include: "I am satisfied with the success I have achieved in my career" and "I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my overall career goals."

Subjective career success was measured using a comprehensive scale developed by Gattiker and Larwood (1986), which includes subscales for job success, interpersonal success, financial success, hierarchical success, and life success (Gattiker & Larwood,

1986). Participants responded to each statement on a 7-point scale from 1 (Strongly agree) to 5 (Strongly disagree), with responses reverse-coded for consistency. The job success subscale (eight items) measures the perceived success in one's job role. Sample items include: "I am receiving positive feedback about my performance from all quarters" and "I am in a job which offers me the chance to learn new skills." The interpersonal success subscale (four items) assesses the perceived success in interpersonal relationships at work. Sample items include: "I am respected by my peers" and "I am accepted by my peers." The financial success subscale (three items) measures perceived financial success relative to one's peers. Sample items include: "I am receiving fair compensation compared to my peers" and "I am earning as much as I think my work is worth." Hierarchical success (three items) subscale assesses perceived success in achieving career advancement and promotions. Sample items include: "I am pleased with the promotions I have received so far" and "I am reaching my career goals within the time frame I set for myself." And finally, the Life Success subscale (four items) measures overall satisfaction with life and non-work activities. Sample items include: "I am happy with my private life" and "I am satisfied with my life overall."

#### 4.4.6 Work Centrality, Gender, and Job Tenure

A moderator can be a qualitative variable, such as gender or race, or a quantitative variable, such as level of income, which has an impact on the direction and/or the degree of relationship between an independent or predictor variable and a dependent or outcome variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

## **Work Centrality**

Work centrality is captured by the 7-item Work Centrality Scale designed by Paullay, Alliger, & Stone-Romero (1994) to measure the degree to which individuals consider work to be a central and important part of their lives. The instrument uses a 7-point Likert scale, with response options ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). Sample questions include "The most important things that happen in my life involve my work" and "Work should be one of the most central activities in a person's life." Higher scores on this scale indicate a stronger perception of work as a central aspect of life (Paullay et al., 1994).

## **Gender**

Gender is defined in the research as the binary construct that reflects biological differences between human beings. Participants' demographic information indicated in the survey is used as the data input.

## **Job tenure**

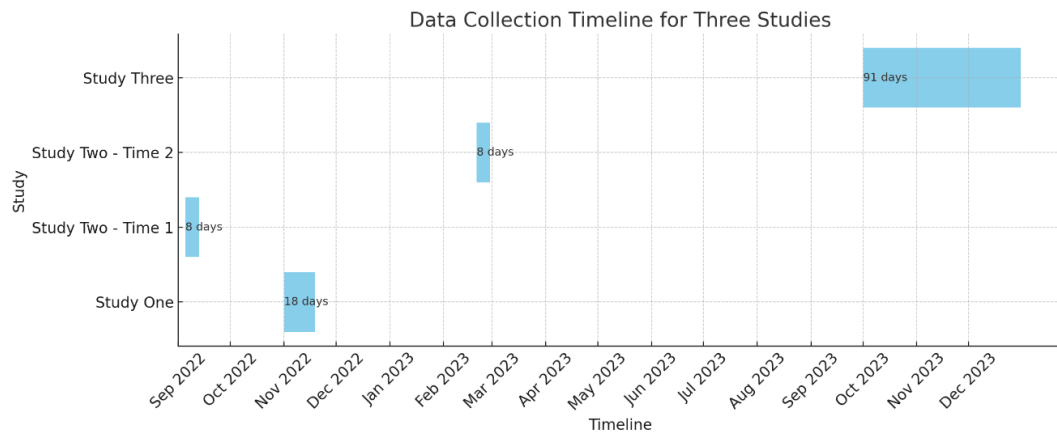
Job tenure is measured by the number of years survey participants indicated in the survey under the question "How many years have you been working in your current organization?".

## **4.5 Data Collection**

Data for all three studies were collected through four surveys spanning across a period of 14 months from September 2022 to late 2023. Survey QR Codes were sent in the cohort and alumni WeChat group by class coordinators or alumni liaison in the FMBA program office, together with a survey invitation message. Study 1 was conducted in November 2022. Study 2 was administered respectively in September 2022 and March

2023 for the two data collection points. While Study 3 was conducted in late 2023. Please see Figure 4.5.1 below for the data collection timeline for the three studies.

Figure 4.5.1 Data Collection Timeline for Three Studies



As most of the study participants only read Chinese, the surveys were all translated and conducted in Chinese. To minimize potential translation errors from English to Chinese, a 3-step translation and proofreading process has been followed. In step one, the English questionnaire was translated into Chinese by a program staff member who got a Master’s degree from the London School of Economics and Political Science. In step two, the Chinese questionnaire was reviewed by another program staff member and me first, without reference to the English version. After that, we made minor adjustments by referring to the original English questionnaire. In step three, a professional translator from the school’s translation department proofread the updated questionnaire to finalize the wording in the survey. Three program staff were invited to do the survey first to double-check the time required and to eliminate any remaining ambiguous terms in the questionnaire. As there were multiple constructs included in the survey at the initial research design stage, all the four questionnaires contain more constructs that are finally included in the thesis. In study 1, 130 items were included. In

the study 2 time 1 survey, a total of 113 questions were included, while 96 items were included in the time 2 survey.

#### **4.6 Data Analysis**

The study used IBM SPSS Statistics version 28, PROCESS v 4.1 by Andrew F. Hayes, and Stata SE 17 for different data analysis purposes. The statistical analysis approach includes descriptive statistics, Cronbach's alpha analysis, confirmatory analysis, as well as mediation and moderation analysis. Moderation analysis reflects how the causal relationship between the predictor variable and the outcome variable differs due to the function of the moderator (Baron & Kenny, 1986). A moderated effect is often statistically quantified as the product of the predictor variable and the moderator variable (Hayes, 2009). Moderator variables are normally introduced when there is an unreasonably weak or inconsistent relationship between an independent and a dependent variable among different groups (Baron & Kenny, 1986).

In addition, cross-lagged analysis has been conducted for study 2 with leader identity and leader self-efficacy values collected at two different time points. Cross-lagged analysis is a statistical method used to evaluate the directionality of correlations between two or more variables that are measured at different periods in time. This approach is especially valuable in longitudinal research, when the objective is to investigate directional associations between constructs over a period of time (Kenny, 1975). This analysis approach could estimate the stability of each variable over time (autoregressive paths) and the influence of one variable on another at subsequent time points (cross-lagged paths) to test for causal relationships while controlling for the variables' prior level as well as bidirectional correlations between variables (Hamaker et

al., 2015; Kenny, 1975). In the context of the current research, the cross-lagged analysis estimates the stability of leader identity and leader self-efficacy over time (autoregressive routes) and the impact of leader identity on leader self-efficacy, and vice versa (cross-lagged paths). The objective is to find whether changes in leader identity at Time 1 predict changes in leader self-efficacy at Time 2 and whether changes in leader self-efficacy at Time 1 similarly predict changes in leader identity at Time 2 (Hamaker et al., 2015; Kenny, 1975). Other important constructs in the study, including employability, career satisfaction, and subjective career success, are measured only once in time two. These variables serve as outcomes or correlates of the leader identity and leader self-efficacy constructs measured at the second time point. The analysis approach helps to examine how earlier changes in leader identity and self-efficacy are associated with these career-related outcomes at a later time to enhance the robustness of predictive inferences, making the findings more likely to be applicable across different contexts and populations (Hamaker et al., 2015; Kenny, 1975).

Validity of the data collected in three studies is measured through Cronbach's Alpha and Confirmatory Factor Analysis. Internal consistency measures the reliability of the survey components (Drost, 2011). Reliability coefficient Cronbach's Alpha is a general measure of an instrument's trustworthiness, which indicates the potential generalizability of an instrument if administered in different circumstances (Nunnally, 1975). According to Nunnally (1975), a Cronbach's Alpha value of .70 or higher is sufficient. Besides, Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was also utilised to evaluate the construct validity of the measurement model since all survey measures used in this study are drawn from well-established literature (Jackson et al., 2009). Confirmatory Factor

Analysis (CFA) is a rigorous statistical technique that is employed to confirm if the observed data match a theoretical measurement model in which particular observable variables are supposed to load on predetermined latent constructs. This technique is especially useful when testing a factorial structure generated from theoretical considerations or previous empirical data (Flora & Flake, 2017). Through the specification of the connections between the latent variables that underlie observed indicators, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) offers a rigorous way to ensure that the measurement model appropriately captures the constructs being studied. CFA further validates the validity and reliability of the assessment instruments to ensure that the constructs tested are compatible with those verified in prior research (Flora & Flake, 2017; Kline, 2016).

The study examines two variables for leadership self-views, namely leader identity and leader self-efficacy, and subjective career success and career satisfaction for career development indicators. Correlation analysis between the variables across all three studies supports the decision. There are moderate to strong correlations between leader identity and leader self-efficacy, with  $r$  ranging from 0.409 to 0.634 across studies. For career satisfaction and subjective career success, the correlation is from 0.597 to 0.696 across the three studies. These correlations suggest related but distinct aspects of both leadership self-views and career development outcomes. The use of multiple indicators strengthens the research findings with triangulation, reducing possible measurement errors while capturing the multidimensional nature of both theoretical constructs. Please see Table 4.6.1 for Correlations Between Leadership Self-views and Career Success Indicators Across Three Studies.

Table 4.6.1 Correlations Between Leadership Self-Views and Career Success Indicators Across Three Studies

Study	Variables	Correlation (r)	<i>p</i> -value	N
Study 1	Leader Identity and Leader Self-efficacy	0.571	<i>p</i> < .001	182
	Career Satisfaction and Subjective Career Success	0.696	<i>p</i> < .001	
	Leader Identity and Leader Self-efficacy (Time 1)	0.424	<i>p</i> < .001	
	Leader Identity and Leader Self-efficacy (Time 2)	0.409	<i>p</i> < .001	
Study 2	Leader Identity T1 and T2	0.515	<i>p</i> < .001	121
	Leader Self-Efficacy T1 and T2	0.153	<i>p</i> = .094	
	Leader Identity (T1) and Leader Self-Efficacy(T2)	0.24	<i>p</i> = .008	
	Leader Identity (T2) and Leader Self-Efficacy(T1)	0.127	<i>p</i> = .164	
Study 3	Career Satisfaction and Subjective Career Success	0.597	<i>p</i> < .001	81
	Leader Identity and Leader Self-efficacy	0.634	<i>p</i> < .001	
	Career Satisfaction and Subjective Career Success	0.678	<i>p</i> < .001	

#### 4.6 Ethical Considerations

University Ethics procedure has been strictly followed in the research process. Only adult participants were recruited for the three different studies. All the participants chose to join the study voluntarily, and they could withdraw at any time during the survey. The ethical assessment form for all three studies with both current mid-career part-time Finance MBA students and alumni, as well as external participants, has been submitted and approved by the Durham dissertation supervisor. As the project is part of the efforts of the part-time Finance MBA program to continuously improve the leadership curriculum, the study is fully supported and approved by the program's Associate Dean, with access to students' data.

## **Chapter Five: Research Findings**

Data Analysis for each of the three studies is conducted separately to test the hypotheses. The findings are listed in section one by one.

### **5.1 Study 1**

Study 1 adopts a cross-sectional design to identify the participants' leader identity before formal graduation from the part-time Finance MBA program.

#### **5.1.1 Data Collection**

The two graduating cohorts of the part-time Finance MBA program in 2022 are the target participants for the study. Due to the suspension of classes as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic in early 2020, the 2019 intake graduated at the same time as the 2020 intake, taking one more year in their MBA study. The online survey was sent out in early November, right before the graduation ceremony of both cohorts on Nov. 19th, 2022. The survey QR code was distributed in the cohort WeChat group with a standardized message with information about the total number of survey questions, and the recommendation that a block time is recommended for the survey response. To encourage students and alumni participation in the study, five golden bull points would be distributed to those students who answered the survey. The Golden Bull points system is the reward system for part-time FMBA students and alumni. They could accumulate golden bull points through different tasks performed to support the part-time Finance MBA program, such as recommending applicants, providing company visit resources, content for program social media, and experience sharing at admissions events etc. The accumulated golden bull points could then be used to redeem program or school-branded

gifts and elective courses on campus. Class coordinators sent two reminders in the cohort WeChat groups before Nov. 19 to promote study participation.

Finally, a total of 185 responses were received, with 86 from the FMBA2019 cohort (79% response rate) and 99 from the FMBA2020 cohort (80% response rate). Three students submitted the survey twice with different responses, while the first response was used. Finally, a total of 182 responses are used for data analysis.

### 5.1.2 Sample

There are altogether 182 participants for the study, with 86 from the 2019 cohort and 96 from the 2020 cohort. The number of female and male participants is 81 (44.5%) and 101 (55.5%), respectively. The sample has an average age of 36.3, ranging from 30 to 52, an average year of working experience of 10.02 years, with a range from 5 to 28, and an average managerial experience of 5.27, ranging from one to 20 years. The sample has quite a diverse supervised team size, ranging from 0 to 110, with an average of 14.79 team members. Please see Table 5.1.1 for the sample descriptive statistics.

Table 5.1.1 Descriptive Statistics of Study 1 Sample

No. of Participants	Average Age (Range)	Female Percentage	Working Experience Avg. (Range)	Managerial Experience Avg. (Range)	Team Size Avg. (Range)
182	36.32 (30–52)	44.5%	10.02 (5–28)	5.27 (1–20)	14.79 (0–110)

### 5.1.3 Measures

Constructs to be included in the survey are Leader Self-Efficacy (Hardy et al., 2010) (5-items), Leader Identity (Hiller, 2005) (12-items), Motivation to Lead (Chan & Drasgow, 2001), Affective Motivation to lead (9-items), Social-Normative Motivation to lead (9-items), Non-Calculative Motivation to lead (9-items), Employability (11-items)

(Rothwell & Arnold, 2007), Subjective Career Success (Greenhaus et al., 1990) (5-items), together with Financial Success factor (3-item), Hierarchical Success factor (3-item), and life success factor (4-items) in Gattiker & Larwood (1986). The constructs included in Study 1 could be found in Appendix B.

#### 5.1.4 Data Validity

As the survey includes over 100 questions, participants' duration in answering the questions was carefully reviewed as the first step to ensure the validity of the survey responses. Cronbach's alpha analysis was then conducted to determine the final dataset for the study. A series of Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was also conducted to validate the measurement models of each construct, together with maximum likelihood estimation for each analysis.

Based on the system record, the duration of students' survey response time ranges from 4 minutes to 191 minutes, with a mean duration of 22 minutes and an SD of 19.5 minutes. 32 students answered the survey in 10 minutes or less. The exceptionally long duration of the survey answering time for some students might be because the respective students answered the survey in different time slots. The first submissions of the three students who submitted the survey responses twice were used in the data analysis, resulting in a total of 182 valid responses. To ensure data validity, the constructs' Cronbach alpha of the full dataset with 182 responses was compared with those of a reduced dataset of 150 responses, which excluded 32 students who responded to the survey in less than 10 minutes. Reliability test results with both datasets show that Cronbach's alpha of all the constructs and subscales is above 0.7, with a range of 0.72 to 0.93 for the dataset with 150 responses, and 0.73 to 0.94 for the dataset with 182

responses. A comparison of Cronbach's Alpha of two Datasets shows that the values remained consistent, with differences ranging from 0 to 0.04. The result demonstrates reliable internal consistency across different sample sizes and marginal improvement with larger sample sizes.

Table 5.1.2 Comparison of Cronbach's Alpha of Two Datasets in Study 1

Construct	No. of Survey Items	A: Cronbach's Alpha 150 responses	B: Cronbach's Alpha 182 responses
Leader Self-Efficacy	5	0.85	0.86
Leader Identity	12	0.92	0.93
Motivation to Lead total	27	0.82	0.82
Affective Motivation to Lead	9	0.82	0.82
Social-Normative Motivation to Lead	9	0.72	0.73
Non-Calculative Motivation to Lead	9	0.73	0.73
Employability	11	0.9	0.9
Career Satisfaction	5	0.93	0.93
Subjective Career Success total	22	0.93	0.94
Subjective Career Success - job success	8	0.84	0.85
Subjective Career Success Interpersonal Success	4	0.88	0.88
Subjective Career Success Financial Success	3	0.78	0.79
Subjective Career Success Life Success	4	0.83	0.83

In addition, a series of independent samples *t*-tests were conducted to compare the full sample (N=182) with the reduced sample that excluded fast responses (N=150). No significant mean differences were observed for leader identity, leader self-efficacy, employability, career satisfaction, subjective career success, or the motivation-to-lead dimensions, with *p* larger than 0.58 for all tests. The results suggest that excluding fast responses does not materially affect the construct means; Therefore, the full dataset with 182 was used for the follow-up analysis. Please see Table 5.1.2 for details.

The confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) were conducted to assess the measurement properties of the study variables before hypothesis testing. Results with all five constructs, as well as the subscales of subjective career success, provided item-level evidence of convergent validity, as all factor loadings were statistically significant (*p* < .001). Model fit indices were mixed across specifications, and subsequent hypothesis tests were conducted using construct-level composite scores. The CFA for Leader Efficacy included five indicators. Factor loadings were significant, ranging from .910 to 1.090. The model demonstrated adequate fit,  $\chi^2(5) = 9.65, p = .086$ . Key intercepts ranged from 5.41 to 5.75, with a latent variable variance of .64, indicating meaningful variability in the construct. The CFA for Leader Identity comprised twelve indicators, with significant factors ranging from 1.087 to 1.495. The model fit was suboptimal,  $\chi^2(54) = 694.33, p < .001$ , indicating potential areas for model refinement. Intercepts ranged from 4.43 to 5.77, with a latent variable variance of 0.64. The CFA for Employability included eleven indicators with significant factor loadings from 1.040 to 1.477. The model fit was less than optimal,  $\chi^2(44) = 213.07, p < .001$ . Key intercepts ranged from 4.89 to 5.85, and the latent variable variance was .446. The CFA for Career

Satisfaction included five indicators. Factor loadings ranged from .761 to 1.042, all significant. The model fit was suboptimal,  $\chi^2(5) = 22.36, p < .001$ . Intercepts ranged from 4.59 to 4.97, with a latent variable variance of 1.451. The CFA for Subjective Career Success has been conducted at both the total scale and subscale levels. For the total scale CFA analysis that includes 22 indicators, the model fitting process converged after seven iterations, achieving a final log likelihood of -5846.5458, indicating an acceptable fit for the data. The analysis demonstrates that the latent variable is a robust predictor of subjective career success across different dimensions. All estimated coefficients ( $\beta$ ) for the relationships between the aggregate Subjective Career Success and its subscales/items are positive and statistically significant ( $p < 0.001$ ). Another CFA analysis with five subscales: job success, interpersonal success, financial success, hierarchical success, and life success, showed factor loadings ranging from .897 to 1.567, .797 to .983, .795 to 1.059, .913 to 1.052, and .471 to .849. The overall model fit was significant,  $\chi^2(209) = 1158.81, p < .001$ , suggesting the need for further refinement. Intercepts across subscales ranged from 4.43 to 5.96, with latent variable variances indicating significant variability within each construct.

Based on the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) results, the constructs of Leader Efficacy, Leader Identity, Employability, Career Satisfaction, and Subjective Career Success (comprising subscales of Job Success, Interpersonal Success, Financial Success, Hierarchical Success, and Life Success) demonstrate generally strong validity and reliability. While the survey questions are well-established from empirical studies, the assessment of model fit remains essential. The factor loadings for all constructs were significant, indicating reliable measurement of the latent variables. Although the model

fit indices indicate further refinement for Leader Identity, Employability, Career Satisfaction, and Subjective Career Success, error variances were within acceptable ranges, reinforcing the reliability of the measurements. The latent variable variances indicate meaningful variability within each construct, reinforcing their robustness in capturing the intended theoretical constructs. Overall, these findings support the use of these constructs in subsequent inferential statistical analyses.

Table 5.1.3 Summary of CFA Analysis for Study 1 Key Constructs

Construct	No. of Indicators	Factor Loadings Range	Model Fit $\chi^2$ (df)	p-value	Key Intercept Range	Key Error Variance Range	Latent Variable Variance
Leader Efficacy	5	.910 to 1.090	9.65 (5)	0.09	5.41 to 5.75	.42 to .69	0.64
Leader Identity	12	1.087 to 1.495	694.33 (54)	<.001	4.43 to 5.77	.54 to 1.68	0.64
Employability	11	1.040 to 1.477	213.07 (44)	<.001	4.89 to 5.85	.67 to 1.38	0.45
Career Satisfaction	5	.761 to 1.042	22.36 (5)	<.001	4.59 to 4.97	.19 to .83	1.45
Subjective Career Success	22	.471 to 1.567	1158.81 (209)	<.001	4.43 to 5.96	.14 to 2.57	0.53
Job Success	8	.897 to 1.567	-	-	4.43 to 5.96	.45 to 2.57	0.53
Interpersonal Success	4	.797 to .983	-	-	5.46 to 5.87	.14 to .78	0.9
Financial Success	3	.795 to 1.059	-	-	4.80 to 5.16	.39 to 1.15	1.2
Hierarchical Success	3	.913 to 1.052	-	-	4.70 to 4.92	.57 to 1.52	1.25
Life Success	4	.471 to .849	-	-	5.02 to 5.38	.43 to 1.13	1.81

Common method bias (CMB) refers to the distortion in research results caused by the measurement method. The bias can arise when the same survey group provides both the dependent and independent variables in a study (Podsakoff et al., 2003, 2024). To evaluate common-method bias, a Harman single-factor test (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee,

& Podsakoff, 2003) was run with principal-axis factoring on the 55 survey indicators for the five key constructs – namely, leader identity, leader self-efficacy, employability, career satisfaction, and subjective career success. The unrotated solution yielded a single factor whose eigenvalue was 19.27 and whose variance explained was 33.9 %, well below the 50 % benchmark for problematic common-method variance (Podsakoff et al., 2003). Item loadings on this factor ranged from .32 to .73, and most extraction communalities were under .35, indicating that no single latent factor dominates the covariance structure. Accordingly, common-method bias is unlikely to threaten the validity of the study's measures.

#### 5.1.5 Hypothesis Testing

Study 1 tested five full hypotheses, including hypotheses 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, and hypothesis 6b. Multiple regression and Andrew Hays Process Macro models 4, 5, and 7 are the statistical tools adopted.

#### **Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Analysis**

Table 5.1.3 shows the means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations among all study variables, including the three subscales of motivation to lead (MTL). Based on the descriptive statistics, the mean scores for all nine variables are above the scale midpoint, with a range from 3.98 to 5.51. The standard deviation demonstrates reasonable dispersion, with a range from 0.65 to 1.19, indicating adequate variability for hypothesis testing.

As anticipated, the leadership-related constructs are positively inter-related- leader identity correlates moderately with leader self-efficacy ( $r = .57, p < .01$ ) and with integrated motivation to lead ( $r = .44, p < .01$ ). Among the motivation subscales, affective

MTL shows the strongest ties - especially with the total MTL score ( $r = .78, p < .01$ ) and with leader identity ( $r = .54, p < .01$ ). Among motivation to lead dimensions, affective motivation showed the strongest associations with leadership constructs (leader identity:  $r = .54, p < .01$ ; leader self-efficacy:  $r = .43, p < .01$ ), while non-calculative motivation demonstrated weaker and several non-significant relationships with key variables (leader identity:  $r = -.01, ns$ ; leader self-efficacy:  $r = .12, ns$ ; employability:  $r = .08, ns$ ; career satisfaction:  $r = -.02, ns$ ). Career-related variables are highly correlated -employability, career satisfaction and subjective career success inter-correlate between  $r = .59$  and  $r = .70$  (all  $p < .01$ ). In addition, cross-domain links appear in the expected direction: leader self-efficacy relates positively to employability ( $r = .52$ ) and subjective career success ( $r = .48$ ), while career satisfaction aligns with total MTL ( $r = .21$ ) yet not so strongly as within-domain correlations.

Table 5.1.3 Study 1 Descriptives and Correlations

#	Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1	Leader identity	5.08	1.03	—								
2	Leader self-efficacy	5.51	0.85	.57**	—							
3	Employability	5.45	0.89	.46**	.52**	—						
4	Career satisfaction	4.79	1.19	.33**	.42**	.59**	—					
5	Subjective career success	5.22	0.9	.37**	.48**	.63**	.70**	—				
6	Motivation to lead (MTL) Total	4.3	0.65	.44**	.40**	.39**	.21**	.43**	—			
7	MTL - Affective	4.24	0.95	.54**	.43**	.39**	.23**	.34**	.78**	—		
8	MTL - Social Normative	4.69	0.82	.44**	.32**	.37**	.27**	.40**	.75**	.50**	—	
9	MTL - Non-calculative	3.98	0.92	-.01	0.12	0.08	-.02	.20**	.64**	.18*	.18*	—

Notes. N=182, \* $p < .05$ ; \*\* $p < .01$  (two-tailed)

Correlation magnitudes remain well below .80, suggesting multicollinearity is unlikely to distort subsequent regression analyses (Hair et al., 2019). Overall, the

descriptive statistics and bivariate associations support the theoretical distinctiveness of the constructs and provide preliminary evidence for the study's hypothesized positive relationships.

### **Examining the Relationship Between Leadership Self-Views and Career Outcomes**

Hypothesis 2 predicted that leader identity is positively related to self-perceived employability (2a) and subjective career success (2b), and career satisfaction (2c).

Hypothesis 3 predicted a similar effect of leader self-efficacy on the same three career-related variables.

A series of multiple regression analyses was conducted to test the two hypotheses. The predictor variables were leader identity and leader self-efficacy, while the dependent variables were employability, career satisfaction, and subjective career success. Control variables include age, gender, GPA, and cohort fixed effect.

The regression model predicting self-perceived employability from leader identity was significant and accounted for 23% of the variance in self-perceived employability ( $R^2 = 0.23$ ). The unstandardized coefficient (B) for leader identity was 0.39 (SE = 0.06), with a standardized coefficient ( $\beta$ ) of 0.46. This indicates that for each unit increase in leader identity, self-perceived employability increases by 0.39 units ( $p < .001$ ). The regression model predicting career satisfaction from leader identity was significant. Leader identity explained 13.0% of the variance in career satisfaction ( $R^2 = 0.13$ ). The unstandardized coefficient (B) for leader identity was 0.37 (SE = 0.08), indicating that for each unit increase in leader identity, career satisfaction increased by 0.37 units ( $p < .001$ ). The regression model predicting subjective career success from leader identity was also significant. Leader identity explained 17% of the variance in subjective career success

( $R^2 = 0.17$ ). The unstandardized coefficient B for leader identity was 0.32 (SE = 0.06), indicating that for each unit increase in leader identity, subjective career success increased by 0.32 units ( $p < .001$ ).

The regression model predicting self-perceived employability from leader self-efficacy was also significant, and accounted for 28% of the variance in self-perceived employability ( $R^2 = .28$ ). The unstandardized coefficient (B) for leader self-efficacy was 0.54 (SE = 0.070). This indicates that for each unit increase in leader self-efficacy, employability increases by 0.54 units ( $p < .001$ ). The regression model predicting career satisfaction from leader self-efficacy was significant, and accounted for 19% of the variance in career satisfaction ( $R^2 = .19$ ). The unstandardized coefficient (B) for leader self-efficacy was 0.56 (SE = 0.07). This indicates that for each unit increase in leader self-efficacy, career satisfaction increases by 0.56 units ( $p < .001$ ). The regression model predicting subjective career success from leader self-efficacy was also significant,  $p < .001$ , and accounted for 25% of the variance in subjective career success ( $R^2 = .25$ ). The unstandardized coefficient (B) for leader self-efficacy was 0.50 (SE = 0.07). This indicates that for each unit increase in leader self-efficacy, subjective career success increases by 0.50 units ( $p < .001$ ).

The results strongly support hypotheses H2 and H3, indicating that higher levels of leader identity and leader self-efficacy are significantly associated with higher levels of employability, career satisfaction, and subjective career success, after controlling for gender, age, GPA, and cohort fixed effect. Leader identity accounted for 23% and 13.0% of the variance in employability and career satisfaction, respectively, and explained 17% of the variance in subjective career success. While leader self-efficacy explained 28%

and 19% of the variance in employability and career satisfaction, respectively, and contributed to 25% of the variance in subjective career success.

Table 5.1.4 Summary of Hypothesis Testing – H2 and H3

VARIABLES	(1) Employability	(2) Career Satisfaction	(3) Subjective Career Success	(4) Employability	(5) Career Satisfaction	(6) Subjective Career Success
Leader Identity	0.39*** (0.06)	0.37*** (0.08)	0.32*** (0.06)			
Leader Self- efficacy				0.54*** (0.07)	0.56*** (0.10)	0.50*** (0.07)
age	-0.01 (0.02)	-0.02 (0.02)	-0.03* (0.02)	-0.00 (0.02)	-0.01 (0.02)	-0.02 (0.02)
Gender	0.19 (0.12)	0.29* (0.17)	0.22* (0.13)	0.11 (0.12)	0.20 (0.17)	0.13 (0.12)
GPA	-0.31 (0.38)	0.18 (0.53)	-0.18 (0.39)	-0.41 (0.37)	0.07 (0.52)	-0.27 (0.38)
cohort fixed effect	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	182	182	182	182	182	182
R-squared	0.23	0.13	0.17	0.28	0.19	0.25

Standard errors in parentheses \*\*\*  
 $p < 0.01$ , \*\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*  $p < 0.1$

## Examining the Mediating Effect of Employability

Hypotheses 4 and 5, respectively, state that leader identity and leader self-efficacy will have an indirect effect on (a) career satisfaction and (b) subjective career success via employability.

Four separate mediation analyses were conducted with Andrew F. Hayes PROCESS Macro Model four (Hayes, 2022) to test whether employability has a mediating effect on the relationship between leader identity, leader self-efficacy, and subjective career success (a) and career satisfaction (b).

The first mediation analysis tested whether employability mediates the relationship between leader identity and subjective career success. The results showed that leader identity significantly predicted employability ( $b = .40$ ,  $SE = .06$ ,  $t = 6.97$ ,  $p < .001$ ), which in turn significantly predicted subjective career success ( $b = .59$ ,  $SE = .07$ ,  $t = 9.05$ ,  $p < .001$ ). The indirect effect of leader identity on subjective career success through employability was significant ( $b = .23$ , 95% CI [.14, .36]), indicating a significant mediating effect.

In the second mediation analysis, the relationship between leader identity and career satisfaction was examined regarding employability. According to the findings, employability was strongly predicted by leader identity ( $b = .40$ ,  $SE = .06$ ,  $t = 6.97$ ,  $p < .001$ ), and career satisfaction was considerably predicted by this as well ( $b = .74$ ,  $SE = .09$ ,  $t = 8.27$ ,  $p < .001$ ). With a 95% bootstrap confidence range ranging from 17 to 46, the indirect impact of leader identity on employability and career satisfaction was found to be significant ( $b = .30$ , 95% CI [.17, .46]), suggesting a strong mediating effect.

Table 5.1.5 Summary of the Mediation Analysis Results for Hypotheses H4 and H5

Relationship	Total Effect	Direct Effect	Indirect Effect	Confidence Interval		<i>t</i> -statistics	Conclusion
				Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Leader Identity -> Employability -> Subjective Career Success	0.33 (0.000)	0.1	0.23 (0.000)	0.14	0.36	5.4	Full Mediation
Leader Identity -> Employability -> Career Satisfaction	0.38 (0.000)	0.09	0.30 (0.000)	0.17	0.46	4.72	Full Mediation
Leader Self-Efficacy -> Employability -> Subjective Career Success	0.51 (0.000)	0.22 (0.01)	0.29 (0.000)	0.17	0.42	7.42	Partial Mediation
Leader Self-Efficacy -> Employability -> Career Satisfaction	0.59 (0.000)	0.21 (0.05)	0.38 (0.000)	0.23	0.54	6.2	Partial Mediation

The third mediation analysis tested whether employability mediates the relationship between leader self-efficacy and subjective career success. The results showed that leader self-efficacy significantly predicted employability ( $b = .55$ ,  $SE = .07$ ,  $t = 8.19$ ,  $p < .001$ ), which in turn significantly predicted subjective career success ( $b = .53$ ,  $SE = .07$ ,  $t = 7.94$ ,  $p < .001$ ). The indirect effect of leader self-efficacy on subjective career success through employability was significant ( $b = .29$ , 95% CI [.17, .42]). Importantly, the direct effect remained significant ( $b = .22$ ,  $p = .01$ ), indicating that employability partially mediates this relationship.

The fourth mediation analysis tested whether employability mediates the relationship between leader self-efficacy and career satisfaction. The results showed that leader self-efficacy significantly predicted employability ( $b = .55$ ,  $SE = .07$ ,  $t = 8.19$ ,  $p < .001$ ), which in turn significantly predicted career satisfaction ( $b = .68$ ,  $SE = .09$ ,  $t = 7.39$ ,  $p < .001$ ). The indirect effect of leader self-efficacy on career satisfaction through employability was significant ( $b = .38$ , 95% CI [.23, .54]). The direct effect also remained

significant ( $b = .21, p = .05$ ), indicating that employability partially mediates this relationship.

The mediation analyses provide clear evidence that employability is a key mechanism linking leadership self-views to career outcomes. For leader identity, the indirect effect on subjective career success was significant ( $b = .23, 95\% \text{ CI } [.14, .36]$ ) and the indirect effect on career satisfaction was also significant ( $b = .30, 95\% \text{ CI } [.17, .46]$ ). In both cases, the direct effects were nonsignificant, indicating full mediation. Thus, H4a and H4b were fully supported.

### **Examining the Moderation Effect of Motivation to Lead (MTL)**

Hypothesis H6b proposes that the indirect effects of leader identity and leader self-efficacy on subjective career success and career satisfaction via employability will be moderated by motivation to lead. Specifically, the indirect effects will be stronger when the motivation to lead is high.

A series of moderated mediation analyses were conducted using the PROCESS macro by Andrew F. Hayes Model 7 (Hayes, 2022) to test the hypotheses for the overall motivation to lead (MTL) score and its sub-dimensions, namely affective, social normative, and non-calculative.

The moderated mediation analysis revealed partial support for Hypothesis H6b, as shown in Table 5.1.6. While the hypothesis predicted that motivation to lead would moderate the indirect effects for both leader identity and leader self-efficacy, the results showed differential patterns for these two predictors.

Table 5.1.6 Moderation Analysis Results for Hypothesis H6b- total MTL Score.

Path	Conditional Indirect Effects			Moderated Mediation		Support
	Low MTL	Mean MTL	High MTL	Index	95% CI	
Leader Identity →						
Subjective Career Success	.203*	.307*	.448*	.073*	[.01, .15]	supported
Career Satisfaction	.274*	.312*	.368*	.062*	[.00, .13]	supported
Leader Self-Efficacy →						
Subjective Career Success	.212*	.243*	.278*	0.021	[-.03, .09]	Not supported
Career Satisfaction	.271*	.309*	.373*	0.018	[-.04, .08]	Not supported

*Note:* Conditional indirect effects were estimated at the 16th (low), 50th (mean), and 84th (high) percentiles of Motivation to Lead (MTL). Moderated mediation is considered significant when the 95% bootstrap confidence interval for the index does not include zero.  $p < .05$ .

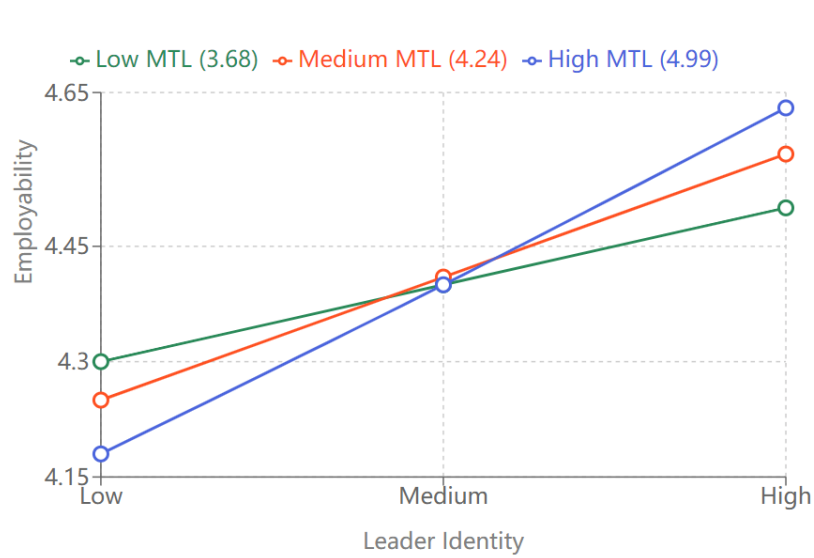
For leader identity, motivation to lead significantly moderate the mediation pathways to both career outcomes, supporting this component of H6b. The index of moderated mediation was significant for both subjective career success (.073, 95% CI [.01, .15]) and career satisfaction (.062, 95% CI [.00, .13]), indicating that the indirect effects strengthen as motivation to lead increases. The conditional indirect effects demonstrated this pattern clearly. For subjective career success, the indirect effect increased from .203 at low levels of motivation to lead to .448 at high levels. Similarly, for career satisfaction, the effect increased from .274 to .368 across MTL levels. This confirms that individuals with a stronger leader identity benefit more from their identity in terms of career outcomes when they are also highly motivated to lead.

Figure 5.1.1 illustrates how the relationship between Leader Identity and Employability changes at different levels of Motivation to Lead. The steeper slope for higher levels of MTL (blue line) demonstrates that the positive effect of Leader Identity on Employability is significantly stronger when Motivation to Lead is high, supporting this component of the moderated mediation hypothesis.

In contrast, motivation to lead did not significantly moderate the mediation pathways from leader self-efficacy to career outcomes, contradicting this component of H6b. The indices of moderated mediation were not significant for either subjective career success (.021, 95% CI [-.03, .09]) or career satisfaction (.018, 95% CI [-.04, .08]), as the confidence intervals included zero. Although the conditional indirect effects were positive and significant at all levels of motivation to lead, the strength of these effects remained relatively stable across MTL levels. For subjective career success, the effects ranged only from .212 to .278, and for career satisfaction from .271 to .373. This suggests

that leader self-efficacy provides consistent benefits for employability and subsequent career outcomes regardless of an individual's level of motivation to lead.

Figure 5.1.1 Interaction Effect: Motivation to Lead moderates the relationship between Leader Identity and Employability



Across the twelve Andrew Hays model 7 testing for the three MTL subscales, affective, social-normative, and non-calculative facets, none produced a significant index of moderated mediation for either leader identity or leader self-efficacy (all CIs included zero). This indicates that while the overall MTL moderation effect for leader identity pathways was significant, it was not robust across specific motivational facets.

Overall, the moderated mediation analysis provided partial support for Hypothesis H6b. The hypothesis was supported for leader identity pathways but not supported for leader self-efficacy pathways. Notably, the moderation effects were specific to the overall composite MTL score, as none of the three individual subscales (affective, social-normative, non-calculative) produced significant moderation for either predictor. This suggests that comprehensive rather than facet-specific motivation is required for the identity-career benefit relationship. These findings suggest that leader identity requires

holistic motivational activation to translate into career benefits, while leader self-efficacy provides universal advantages regardless of motivation levels.

### **Examining the Moderation Effect of Gender**

Hypothesis 7 proposes that gender would moderate the relationships between leadership self-views and career outcomes, such that the effects would be stronger for men than for women. To test the hypothesis, four moderation analyses with the PROCESS macro by Andrew F. Hayes model five were conducted.

The analysis results did not support the hypothesis. The interaction term for leader identity  $\times$  gender predicting employability was not significant ( $b = 0.13$ ,  $SE = 0.12$ ,  $t = 1.10$ ,  $p = .273$ ). Similarly, the interaction term for leader self-efficacy  $\times$  gender predicting employability was not significant ( $b = 0.12$ ,  $SE = 0.14$ ,  $t = 0.87$ ,  $p = .387$ ).

The indirect effects of leader identity and leader self-efficacy on both career satisfaction and subjective career success through employability were statistically significant for both men and women. For example, the indirect effect of leader self-efficacy on career satisfaction was significant for males ( $b = 0.32$ , 95% CI [0.13, 0.51]) and for females ( $b = 0.41$ , 95% CI [0.22, 0.60]). Likewise, the indirect effect of leader self-efficacy on subjective career success was significant for males ( $b = 0.25$ , 95% CI [0.13, 0.40]) and for females ( $b = 0.31$ , 95% CI [0.16, 0.48]). The formal test of moderated mediation through interaction terms provides the definitive statistical test of gender differences in these indirect effects. Leader identity showed no significant direct effects on either outcome for males (subjective career success:  $b = 0.08$ ,  $p = .269$ ; career satisfaction:  $b = 0.06$ ,  $p = .560$ ) or females (subjective career success:  $b = 0.09$ ,  $p = .245$ ; career satisfaction:  $b = 0.11$ ,  $p = .333$ ).

Table 5.1.7 Moderated Mediation Analysis Results for Hypotheses H7a and H7b

Hypothesis	Analysis Path (Moderated by Gender)	Conditional Indirect Effects (Gender Levels)	Key Findings
H7a	Leader Identity → Employability → Subjective Career Success (Indirect)	Males: $b=.19$ , 95% CI [.09, .32]; Females: $b=.27$ , 95% CI [.13, .43]	Indirect effects were statistically significant for both genders (CIs exclude zero). Interaction term non-significant, indicating no moderation by gender.
H7a	Leader Identity → Employability → Career Satisfaction (Indirect)	Males: $b=.24$ , 95% CI [.11, .41]; Females: $b=.34$ , 95% CI [.15, .56]	Indirect effects were statistically significant for both genders (CIs exclude zero). Interaction term non-significant, indicating no moderation by gender.
H7a	Leader Identity → Subjective Career Success (Direct)	Males: $b = 0.08$ , $p = 0.269$ Females: $b = 0.09$ , $p = 0.245$	Direct effects non-significant for both genders. No moderation by gender.
H7a	Leader Identity → Career Satisfaction (Direct)	Males: $b = 0.06$ , $p = 0.560$ Females: $b = 0.11$ , $p = 0.333$	Direct effects non-significant for both genders. No moderation by gender.
H7b	Leader Self-Efficacy → Employability → Subjective Career Success (Indirect)	For Males: $b=.25$ , 95% CI [.13, .40]; For Females: $b=.31$ , 95% CI [.16, .48]	Indirect effects were statistically significant for both genders (CIs exclude zero). Interaction term non-significant, indicating no moderation by gender.
H7b	Leader Self-Efficacy → Employability → Career Satisfaction (Indirect)	For Males: $b = 0.32$ , 95% CI [.13, .51]; For Females: $b=.41$ , 95% CI [.22, .60]	Indirect effects were statistically significant for both genders (CIs exclude zero). Interaction term non-significant, indicating no moderation by gender.
H7b	Leader Self-Efficacy → Subjective Career Success (Direct)	Males: $b = 0.11$ , $p = 0.240$ Females: $b = 0.32$ , $p = 0.001$	Gender marginally moderates the direct relationship between leader self-efficacy and subjective career success, with significant effects for females only..
H7b	Leader Self-Efficacy → Career Satisfaction (Direct)	Males: $b = 0.06$ , $p = 0.645$ Females: $b = 0.34$ , $p = 0.009$	Gender marginally moderates the direct relationship between leader self-efficacy and career satisfaction, with significant effects for females only.

For the direct effects, leader self-efficacy significantly predicted subjective career success for females ( $b = 0.32$ ,  $p = .001$ ) but not for males ( $b = 0.11$ ,  $p = .240$ ). Similarly, leader self-efficacy significantly predicted career satisfaction for females ( $b = 0.34$ ,  $p = .009$ ) but not for males ( $b = 0.06$ ,  $p = .645$ ). While these patterns suggest that leader self-efficacy may be more consequential for women's career outcomes, the formal test of moderation through interaction terms was not statistically significant, indicating that we cannot conclude these gender differences are reliable beyond chance. Notably, the

observed pattern was opposite to the hypothesized direction—where significant effects emerged, they were stronger for women rather than men, contrary to the prediction that effects would be stronger for men.

Therefore, Hypothesis 7 was not supported. However, the exploratory finding that leader self-efficacy showed significant direct effects on career outcomes specifically for women (opposite to the hypothesized direction) suggests that gender may play a more complex role than originally theorized and warrants further investigation in future research.

#### 5.1.6 Summary

Study 1 has provided substantial support for the hypothesized relationships between leadership self-views and career outcomes. Both leader identity and leader self-efficacy show statistically significant positive relationships with employability, subjective career success, and career satisfaction, supporting Hypotheses 2 and 3. The mediating effect of employability between leader identity and the two career development indicators (H4) is fully supported. The proposed mediating effect of employability between leader self-efficacy and the two career outcomes is partially supported (H5). Hypothesis H6b received partial support. The moderated mediation analyses revealed that motivation to lead significantly moderated the indirect effects of leader identity on career outcomes through employability (supported component), but did not significantly moderate the indirect effects of leader self-efficacy on career outcomes through employability (unsupported component). When examined separately, the three MTL subscales (affective, social-normative, and non-calculative) did not produce significant indices of moderated mediation for either predictor. Finally, Hypothesis 7 was

not supported. Gender did not significantly moderate the relationships between leader identity or leader self-efficacy and career outcomes. For both predictors, indirect effects through employability were significant for males and females, but interaction terms were nonsignificant, indicating no evidence of moderation. Leader self-efficacy showed significant direct effects only for women, but the formal test of gender moderation was not statistically significant. Please see Table 4.1.8 for the summarized hypotheses testing results from Study 1.

Study 1 confirms the link between leadership self-views and career success. The results show that both leader identity and self-efficacy strongly predict positive career outcomes. Crucially, employability acts as a bridge. It translates internal self-views into perceived market value. This mediation explains how psychological states influence external career results. However, Study 1 used a cross-sectional design. It captured a snapshot in time but could not track growth. This limitation leads directly to Study 2. Study 2 uses a time-lagged design to measure changes during the MBA. It tests whether these self-views actually develop through education. Finally, Study 1 validated the research instruments. The statistical tests confirmed the survey's reliability. This ensures the measures are robust for the subsequent studies.

Table 5.1.8 Summary of Study 1 Hypotheses Testing Results

Hypothesis	Sub-Hypothesis	Description	Key Finding	Support Status
H2	H2a	Leader identity → Self-perceived employability	Leader identity significantly predicted employability ( $b = 0.39, p < .001$ )	Supported
	H2b	Leader identity → Subjective career success	Leader identity significantly predicted subjective career success ( $b = 0.32, p < .001$ )	Supported
	H2c	Leader identity → Career satisfaction	Leader identity significantly predicted career satisfaction ( $b = 0.37, p < .001$ )	Supported
H3	H3a	Leader self-efficacy → Self-perceived employability	Leader self-efficacy significantly predicted employability ( $b = 0.54, p < .001$ )	Supported
	H3b	Leader self-efficacy → Subjective career success	Leader self-efficacy significantly predicted subjective career success ( $b = 0.50, p < .001$ )	Supported
	H3c	Leader self-efficacy → Career satisfaction	Leader self-efficacy significantly predicted career satisfaction ( $b = 0.56, p < .001$ )	Supported
H4	H4a	Leader identity → Employability → Subjective career success	Full mediation (Indirect effect: $b = 0.23$ , 95% CI [0.14, 0.36]; Direct effect: $b = 0.10, p > .05$ )	Supported
	H4b	Leader identity → Employability → Career satisfaction	Full mediation (Indirect effect: $b = 0.30$ , 95% CI [0.17, 0.46]; Direct effect: $b = 0.09, p > .05$ )	Supported
H5	H5a	Leader self-efficacy → Employability → Subjective career success	Partial mediation (Indirect effect: $b = 0.29$ , 95% CI [0.17, 0.42]; Direct effect: $b = 0.22, p < .01$ )	Supported
	H5b	Leader self-efficacy → Employability → Career satisfaction	Partial mediation (Indirect effect: $b = 0.38$ , 95% CI [0.23, 0.54]; Direct effect: $b = 0.21, p < .05$ )	Supported
H6	H6b	Motivation to lead moderates the relationship between leader identity and employability	Significant moderation ( $b = 0.19, p = 0.02$ ); Effects stronger at higher levels of motivation to lead	Supported
	H6b	Motivation to lead moderates the relationship between leader self-efficacy and employability	No significant moderation ( $b = 0.11, p = 0.242$ )	Not Supported
H7	H7a	Gender moderates the relationship between leader identity and career outcomes.	No significant moderation; indirect effects significant for both genders; direct effects non-significant.	Not Supported
	H7b	Gender moderates the relationship between leader self-efficacy and career outcomes.	No significant moderation; indirect effects are significant for both genders; exploratory evidence of stronger direct effects for women, but not statistically reliable.	Not Supported

## 5.2 Study 2

Study 2 adopted a time-lagged design with two data collection points to track participants' identity change before and after the MBA study. Data were collected before students' formal enrollment into the program in September 2022, and 6 months after the program in February 2023. In the six-month period, there are altogether 5 core courses in the curriculum, with one for each month, including Opening Residency, Organizational Behavior, Financial Accounting, Corporate Finance, Strategy, and Managerial Accounting. Besides, there are forums, events, and various types of interaction events outside the classroom. In the year 2023, the Chinese New Year was on Jan. 22. Normally, the employee annual review, promotion, and salary increase decisions will be announced before the Chinese New Year. It is expected that the six months of exposure to an MBA study will have a positive impact on participants' leadership self-views.

### 5.2.1 Data collection

Target participants of study 2 are the 128 FMBA2022 students who were enrolled in the program in September 2022. The time one data for study 2 was collected before students' formal enrollment in the program on Sept. 14, 2022. The FMBA2022 students have already been allocated to two different sections with different program coordinators. A participant recruitment WeChat message was sent out to the students in both sections on Sept. 5<sup>th</sup> by their respective class coordinators. The survey link was sent through WeChat. To properly manage participants' expectations, it has been made clear that there will be multiple data collection points, respectively in September 2022, February 2023, and November 2024, to track the evolution of important leadership development indices. It was also made clear that it would take about 20 minutes to complete the survey with a

total of 113 questions, and a block period is recommended for filling out the survey. It was mentioned that there are some seemingly identical questions in the survey, and participants are advised to carefully examine the question before making a choice. Participants were given eight days to complete the survey, with the deadline set to be midnight on Sept. 13, 2022. Two reminders were sent respectively on Sept. 9<sup>th</sup> and Sept. 13<sup>th</sup>, with the first reminder embedded with other messages regarding the opening arrangement, while the second was dedicated to the survey information. Altogether 123 students filled out the survey by Sept. 13<sup>th</sup> before their formal registration in the program on Sept. 14<sup>th</sup>.

Time 2 data were collected in mid-Feb. 2023, after the Chinese New Year break. Same as the process in the first time of data collection, the survey information was sent in the class WeChat group by the main class coordinator with a standardized message, emphasizing the purpose of the survey and the fact that the survey is the second round of data collection of a comprehensive survey related to student leadership development. It was also mentioned in the message that there are altogether 96 items in the survey, which requires about 15 minutes of survey response time, and a block period of time is recommended. Students were given eight days to respond to the survey with the deadline on midnight, Feb. 28. One reminder was sent in the class WeChat group on Feb. 24. To ensure students' response, the class coordinators followed up individually on Feb. 27<sup>th</sup> and 28<sup>th</sup> with the students who had not yet responded to the survey. Eventually, a total of 124 students responded to the survey, including 3 students who did not respond to the time 1 survey. As two of the 123 students who responded to the time one survey have

deferred their study, a 100% response rate with 121 responses has been achieved for time 2 data collection for eligible survey respondents.

### 5.2.2 Sample

Study 2 sample comprised 121 participants from the FMBA2022 cohort who completed the surveys at two data collection points, respectively in Sept. 2022 and Feb. 2023. The percentage of female participants accounted for 46%, which is 56, while male participants accounted for 54%, which is 65. The participants have an average age of 33.96 years, ranging from 27 to 49. The average working experience of the group is 10.5 years, ranging from 4 to 25 years. Their average managerial experience was 5.59 years, with a span ranging from 2 to 20 years. In terms of supervisory responsibility, the average team size managed was 20.54, with considerable variation (ranging from 0 to 620 subordinates). This reflects a group of mid-career professionals with a wide distribution of leadership exposure and managerial responsibilities. Please see Table 5.2.1 for the Descriptive Statistics of the Study 2 samples.

Table 5.2.1 Descriptive Statistics of Study 2 samples

No. of Participants	Average Age (Range)	Female Percentage	Working Experience Avg. (Range)	Managerial Experience Avg. (Range)	Team Size Avg. (Range)
121	33.96 (27–49)	46%	10.50 (4–25)	5.59 (2–20)	20.54 (0–620)

Of the 121 participants, 14 (12%) reported having zero direct subordinates. These participants were retained in the study analysis as leader identity and leader self-efficacy are self-views that can change over time through experiences, training, mentoring, and challenging assignments, and that they serve as early indicators of leader development (Day & Dragoni, 2015). Sensitivity analyses comparing results with the full sample (N =

121) versus excluding these participants (N = 107) revealed no substantial differences, with all key relationships remaining significant and effect sizes differing by less than 0.05.

### 5.2.3 Measures

Constructs measured in the Time 1 survey include Leader Self-Efficacy (Hardy et al., 2010) (5 items), Leader Identity (Hiller, 2005) (12 items), Motivation to Lead (Chan & Drasgow, 2001), Affective Motivation to lead (9 items), Social-Normative Motivation to lead (9 items), Non-Calculative Motivation to lead (9 items). Leader Self-Efficacy and Leader Identity were measured again in Time 2 survey. Besides, Employability (11 items) (Rothwell & Arnold, 2007), Subjective Career Success (Greenhaus et al., 1990) (5 items), together with Financial Success factor (3 items), Hierarchical Success factor (3 item), and life success factor (4 items) in Gattiker & Larwood (1986) were measure in time two surveys included in the questionnaire.

The time one questionnaire in both Chinese and English versions, as well as the constructs to be measured in the study, can be found in Appendix C.

### 5.2.4 Data Validity

Study 2 data were collected at two different time points. Both the Cronbach coefficient alpha and Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) were conducted to assess the reliability and validity of the key constructs.

The Cronbach coefficient alpha of all the constructs in both Time one and Time two has been analyzed with values ranging from 0.72 to 0.93, demonstrating sufficient internal validity of the instruments for all the constructs. At Time 1, the constructs measured included Leader Self-Efficacy, Leader Identity, and Motivation to Lead (with

subscales for Affective, Non-Calculative, and Social Normative motivations). The Cronbach's alpha values for these constructs were as follows: Leader Self-Efficacy ( $\alpha = 0.90$ ), Leader Identity ( $\alpha = 0.93$ ), Motivation to Lead - Affective ( $\alpha = 0.85$ ), Motivation to Lead - Non-Calculative ( $\alpha = 0.84$ ), Motivation to Lead - Social Normative ( $\alpha = 0.80$ ), and Motivation to Lead Total ( $\alpha = 0.88$ ). These values indicate excellent internal consistency for all constructs measured at this time point, with Cronbach's alpha values exceeding the commonly accepted threshold of 0.70. At Time 2, additional constructs were measured, including Employability, Career Satisfaction, and Subjective Career Success. The Cronbach's alpha values for these constructs were: Employability ( $\alpha=0.72$ ), Career Satisfaction ( $\alpha=0.80$ ), and Subjective Career Success ( $\alpha=0.88$ ). The values for Leader Self-Efficacy ( $\alpha=0.72$ ) and Leader Identity ( $\alpha=0.87$ ) were also reassessed at Time 2, showing a slight decrease from Time 1 but still indicating good internal consistency. The detailed Cronbach's alpha for all the variables can be found in Table 4.2.2 below.

Table 5.2.2. Cronbach's Alpha of Study 2 Constructs at Time 1 and 2

Construct	No. of Items	Cronbach's Alpha	
		Time 1	Time 2
Leader Self-Efficacy	5	0.90	0.72
Leader Identity	12	0.93	0.87
Motivation to Lead - Affective	9	0.85	/
Motivation to Lead - Non-Calculative	9	0.84	/
Motivation to Lead-Social Normative	9	0.80	/
Motivation to Lead Total	27	0.88	/
Employability	11	/	0.72
Career Satisfaction	5	/	0.80
Subjective Career Success	22	/	0.88

A series of CFA analyses was also conducted to validate the constructs, including Leader Identity, Leader Self-Efficacy, Employability, Career Satisfaction, Subjective Career Success (including its subscales), and Motivation to Lead (MTL).

Table 5.2.3. CFA Summary of Study 2 Constructs at Time 1 and 2

Construct	No. of Indicators	Factor Loadings Range	Model Fit $\chi^2$ (df)	<i>p</i> -value	Key Intercept Range	Key Error Variance Range	Latent Variable Variance (95% CI)
Leader Identity (T1)	12	0.939 - 1.319	451.65 (54)	<0.001	4.215 - 5.347	0.548 - 1.361	0.712 (0.455 - 1.117)
Leader Identity (T2)	12	0.487 - 1.331	251.92 (54)	<0.001	5.025 - 5.827	1.016 - 2.300	0.897 (0.553 - 1.456)
Leader Self-Efficacy (T1)	5	0.994 - 1.202	7.80 (5)	0.17	5.107 - 5.537	0.348 - 0.581	0.668 (0.456 - 0.979)
Leader Self-Efficacy (T2)	5	0.712 - 1.024	7.11 (5)	0.21	5.579 - 5.777	0.609 - 1.053	0.544 (0.310 - 0.955)
Employability	11	0.830 - 1.482	110.65 (44)	<0.001	4.231 - 6.240	0.318 - 2.550	0.207 (0.083 - 0.513)
Career Satisfaction	5	0.636 - 1.214	5.92 (5)	0.31	5.372 - 5.529	0.524 - 1.545	1.047 (0.663 - 1.655)
Subjective Career Success	22	0.951 - 2.460	559.03 (209)	<0.001	4.405 - 5.703	0.339 - 3.109	0.276 (0.124 - 0.614)
Affective MTL	9	0.736 - 1.209	662.66 (324)	<0.001	4.777 - 5.496	0.238 - 1.951	0.764 (0.486 - 1.203)
Non-Calculative MTL	9	0.275 - 1.039	-	-	4.347 - 5.265	0.338 - 2.517	2.301 (1.631 - 3.247)
Social-Normative MTL	9	-1.613	-	-	3.537 - 5.579	1.213 - 2.329	0.695 (0.364 - 1.327)

Leader Identity was assessed at two points. At Time 1, 12 indicators yielded significant factor loadings ranging from 0.939 to 1.319, with a model fit of  $\chi^2$  (54) = 451.65,  $p < 0.001$ . Intercepts ranged from 4.215 to 5.347, with error variances spanning

0.548 to 1.361. The variance of the latent variable was 0.712. At Time Two, factor loadings ranged from 0.487 to 1.331, with a model fit of  $\chi^2(54) = 251.92, p < 0.001$ . Intercepts ranged from 5.025 to 5.827, with error variances ranging from 1.016 to 2.300. The latent variable variance was 0.897. Leader Self-Efficacy was also measured at two time points. At Time One, five indicators produced loadings from 0.994 to 1.202, with  $\chi^2(5) = 7.80, p = 0.17$ . Intercepts varied between 5.107 and 5.537, with error variances ranging from 0.348 to 0.581. The latent variable variance was 0.668. At Time two, loadings ranged from 0.712 to 1.024, with  $\chi^2(5) = 7.11, p = 0.21$ . Intercepts were between 5.579 and 5.777, with error variances ranging from 0.609 to 1.053. The latent variable variance was 0.544. Employability, measured with 11 indicators, showed factor loadings from 0.830 to 1.482, with a model fit of  $\chi^2(44) = 110.65, p < 0.001$ . Intercepts ranged from 4.231 to 6.240, while error variances varied from 0.318 to 2.550. The variance of the latent variable was 0.207. Career Satisfaction included five indicators with loadings between 0.636 and 1.214, and a model fit of  $\chi^2(5) = 5.92, p = 0.31$ . Intercepts ranged from 5.372 to 5.529, with error variances ranging from 0.524 to 1.545. The latent variable variance was 1.047. Subjective Career Success, aggregated from 22 indicators, had factor loadings ranging from 0.951 to 2.460, with a model fit of  $\chi^2(209) = 559.03, p < 0.001$ . Intercepts varied between 4.405 and 5.703, and error variances ranged from 0.339 to 3.109. The variance of the latent variable was 0.276. MTL was assessed through three subscales: Affective, Non-Calculative, and Social-Normative. Affective MTL had loadings from 0.736 to 1.209, with  $\chi^2(324) = 662.66, p < 0.001$ . Intercepts varied between 4.777 and 5.496, and error variances ranged from 0.238 to 1.951. The latent variable variance was 0.764. Non-Calculative MTL had loadings

from 0.275 to 1.039. Intercepts were between 4.347 and 5.265, with error variances ranging from 0.338 to 2.517. The latent variable variance was 2.301. Social-Normative MTL had loadings from -0.439 to 1.174. Intercepts ranged from 3.537 to 5.579, and error variances ranged from 1.213 to 2.329. The latent variable variance was 0.695.

Overall, the CFAs provide item-level support for the intended factor structure, with consistently significant loadings across measurement results.

### 5.2.5 Hypothesis Testing

Study 2 tested seven hypotheses, including hypotheses 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, and hypothesis 6b. T-test and Structural Equation Modeling through Stata SE 17 are the statistical tools that were adopted in the testing process. The SEM models include the measurement leader identity and leader self-efficacy collected at two data collection points, before the MBA study and six months after the MBA study, to reflect cross-lagged effects and examine the temporal relationships between these constructs. With this approach, the Time 1 value is considered a predictor of the Time 2 value of the same variable, with baseline levels controlled and developmental change captured. The mediator variable (employability) and outcome variables (career satisfaction and subjective career success) were measured only once at Time 2. Therefore, only the Time 2 values of leader identity and self-efficacy were modeled in relation to employability and career outcomes. This design enabled the investigation of how changes in leadership self-views during the initial phase of MBA study are associated with perceived employability and subsequent career evaluations, thereby supporting more robust causal interpretations based on temporal sequencing.

## Descriptive Statistics and Correlation Analysis

Descriptives of the 121 matched responses show that all study variables cluster toward the upper end of their respective scales, with the mean range from 4.71 to 5.87 and standard deviation from 0.63 to 1.11. Temporal stability and cross-lagged relationships of the key variables are evident. Leader identity shows strong stability across the two time points ( $r = .52, p < .01$ ), while the temporal stability of leader self-efficacy is weaker ( $r = .15, ns$ ). Cross-lagged relationships indicated that Time 1 leader self-efficacy is correlated with Time 2 employability ( $r = .28, p < .01$ ). And Time 1 leader identity has significant correlations with subjective career success ( $r = .20, p < .05$ ) that was measured at Time 2.

There are strong intercorrelations between career satisfaction and subjective career success ( $r = .60, p < .01$ ) that were measured at Time 2. Besides, employability demonstrated substantial associations with Time 2 leader self-efficacy ( $r = .55, p < .01$ ) and subjective career success ( $r = .51, p < .01$ ). The integrated motivation to lead (MTL) score correlates at .50 with leader identity at Time 1 and at .19 with its Time 2 value. With its later measure, as well as at .55 and .23 with leader self-efficacy at Times 1 and 2, respectively. High inter-scale correlations within MTL (Total–Affective = .75, Total–Non-Calculative = .78, Total–Social-Normative = .71) confirm a coherent higher-order construct while still leaving room for subscale level distinctions.

Importantly, all bivariate correlations apart from the subscales of MTL remained under .60, which is below the 0.80 threshold that signals multicollinearity concerns (Hair et al., 2019), thereby ensuring that the planned regressions and structural models can proceed without undue distortion from redundant predictors.

Table 5.2.4 Study 2 Descriptives and Correlations

#	Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1	Leader Identity (T1)	4.84	1.04	—										
2	Leader Identity (T2)	5.53	1.01	.52**	—									
3	Leader Self-Efficacy (T1)	5.35	0.91	.42**	0.13	—								
4	Leader Self-Efficacy (T2)	5.65	0.78	.24**	.41**	0.15	—							
5	Employability	5.87	0.63	0.13	.36**	.28**	.55**	—						
6	Career Satisfaction	5.47	1.11	0.15	.42**	0.17	.40**	.37**	—					
7	Subjective Career Success	5.57	0.82	.20*	.44**	.20*	.42**	.51**	.60**	—				
8	Motivation to Lead (MTL)	4.9	0.69	.50**	.19*	.55**	.23*	.22*	.18*	0.17	—			
9	MTL - Affective	5.06	0.91	.53**	.21*	.42**	0.14	0.08	0.07	0	.75**	—		
10	MTL - Non-Calculative	4.93	1.08	.22*	0.1	.37**	.24**	.18*	.22*	.25**	.78**	.32**	—	
11	MTL - Social-Normative	4.71	0.77	.42**	0.12	.45**	0.11	.24**	0.11	0.11	.71**	.41**	.32**	—

Note: N = 121 . T1 = Time 1; T2 = Time 2. \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$  (two-tailed).

## **Examining The Change of Leader Identity and Leader Self-Efficacy after the MBA**

With an aim to evaluate the impact of participation in an MBA program on participants' leadership self-views, hypothesis 1 proposes that participation in the MBA program will positively influence participants' leader identity and leader self-efficacy. Both paired sample *t*-tests through SPSS and cross-lagged panel analysis via Stata SEM were conducted to test the hypothesis. T-tests show there are statistically significant differences between the two variables that have been measured repeatedly, including leader identity and leader self-efficacy. Paired sample *t*-tests are a statistical tool utilized to assess whether a significant difference exists between the means of two related groups. The two groups are considered "paired" because they consist of the same subjects or items measured on two different occasions, resulting in two sets of data that are interdependent (Ross & Willson, 2017). The mean Time 1 leader identity score was 4.84 (SD = 1.04) and the mean Time 2 leader identity score was 5.53 (SD = 1.01). The paired sample *t*-test indicated a significant difference between the means,  $t(120) = -7.57, p < 0.001$ . For leader self-efficacy, the mean Time 1 score was 5.35 (SD = 0.91) and the mean Time 2 score was 5.65 (SD = 0.78). The paired sample *t*-test indicated a significant difference between the means,  $t(120) = -2.98, p = .0035$ . The test results support the hypothesis that Time 2 measurement scores will be higher than Time 1 measurement scores, indicating there is statistically significant improvement for the participants in terms of leader identity and leader self-efficacy. The larger *t*-value for leader identity indicates that this change was more substantial compared to the change in leader self-efficacy, with the percentage of change for the two variables reaching 14.3% and 5.6% respectively.

Table 5.2.5 Summary of Paired Sample *t*-test Result

Variable	Pre-MBA (T1)	After 6 Months (T2)	Mean Difference	% Change	<i>t</i> -value	<i>p</i> -value	Significance
Leader Identity	4.84 ± 1.04	5.53 ± 1.01	0.69	14.30%	7.57	<0.0001	***
Leader Self-Efficacy	5.35 ± 0.91	5.65 ± 0.78	0.3	5.60%	2.98	0.0035	**

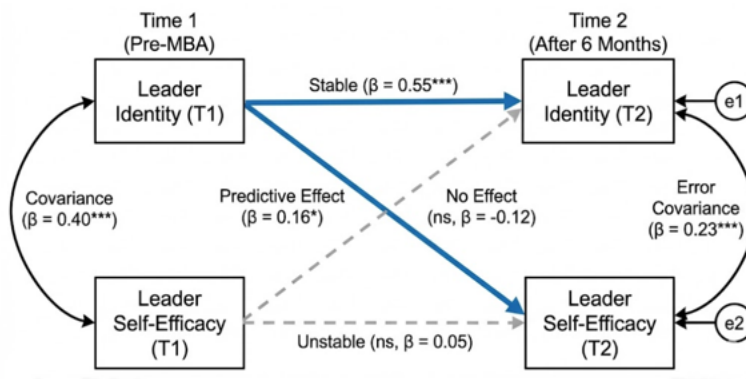
To further understand the stability of both variables and the cross-lagged effect between them, a cross-lagged panel model (Figure 5.2.1) using structural equation modeling (SEM) with maximum likelihood estimation was conducted. The model included both auto-regressive paths (i.e., the same variable measured at different times) and cross-lagged paths (i.e., one variable at an earlier time point predicting another variable at a later time point). The exogenous variables in the model were Leader Identity at Time 1 and Leader Self-Efficacy at Time 1. The endogenous variables were Leader Identity at Time 2 and Leader Self-Efficacy at Time 2. The analysis also included the covariance between the exogenous variables and between the error terms of the endogenous variables.

The results indicated that Leader Identity at Time 1 significantly predicted Leader Identity at Time 2 ( $B = 0.545$ ,  $SE = 0.083$ ,  $z = 6.58$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), suggesting a strong positive relationship. However, Leader Self-Efficacy at Time 1 did not significantly predict Leader Identity at Time 2 ( $B = -0.122$ ,  $SE = 0.094$ ,  $z = -1.30$ ,  $p = 0.194$ ). This indicates that while leader identity demonstrates significant stability over time, it is not significantly influenced by leader self-efficacy at the initial measurement.

The results showed that Leader Self-Efficacy at Time 1 did not significantly predict Leader Self-Efficacy at Time 2 ( $B = 0.053$ ,  $SE = 0.083$ ,  $z = 0.64$ ,  $p = 0.522$ ), indicating low stability in leader self-efficacy rankings over six months as a result of

participation in the MBA program. Additionally, Leader Identity at Time 1 significantly predicted Leader Self-Efficacy at Time 2 ( $B = 0.160$ ,  $SE = 0.073$ ,  $z = 2.19$ ,  $p = 0.028$ ), which suggests some cross-lagged effects between these constructs. This cross-lagged effect indicates that initial levels of leader identity can positively influence subsequent levels of leader self-efficacy.

Figure 5.2.1 Cross-Lagged Panel Model: MBA Leadership Development



The intercepts for both leader identity at Time 2 ( $B = 3.546$ ,  $SE = 0.500$ ,  $z = 7.10$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) and leader self-efficacy at Time 2 ( $B = 4.589$ ,  $SE = 0.439$ ,  $z = 10.44$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) were significant, indicating baseline levels of leader identity and self-efficacy at Time 2 when controlling for their respective predictors. The variance of the error terms for leader identity at Time 2 ( $var = 0.729$ ,  $SE = 0.094$ , 95% CI [0.566, 0.938]) and leader self-efficacy at Time 2 ( $var = 0.564$ ,  $SE = 0.072$ , 95% CI [0.438, 0.725]) indicated the unexplained variability in these constructs at Time 2.

The covariance between Leader Identity and Leader Self-Efficacy at Time 1 was significant ( $cov = 0.398$ ,  $SE = 0.093$ ,  $z = 4.30$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ), indicating a positive relationship between these two variables at the initial measurement point. Additionally, the significant covariance between the error terms of Time 2 leader identity and Time 2

leader self-efficacy ( $cov = 0.226$ ,  $SE = 0.062$ ,  $z = 3.66$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) suggested that there was shared unexplained variance in Leader Identity and Leader Self-Efficacy at Time 2.

In summary, the results provide in-depth evidence for the development of the two important leadership self-views after joining the MBA program. Leader identity shows significant rank-order stability during the MBA program, while leader self-efficacy did not demonstrate significant rank-order stability over the same period. Additionally, the cross-lagged effects indicate that initial leader identity can positively influence subsequent leader self-efficacy, highlighting the interconnected nature of these constructs. The significant covariances suggest that leader identity and leader self-efficacy are positively related at the initial measurement and share common unexplained variance at the later measurement.

### **Examining the Relationship Between Leader Identity and Career Outcomes**

Hypothesis 2 proposes that a higher level of leader identity will lead to a higher level of self-perceived employability, as well as subjective career success and career satisfaction.

A structural equation modeling (SEM) was employed to test hypothesis H2a. The analysis included the following paths: leader identity at Time 1 to leader identity at Time 2, leader identity at Time 1 to self-perceived employability at Time 2, and leader identity at Time 2 to self-perceived employability at Time 2.

The results showed that leader identity at Time one significantly predicted leader identity at Time two ( $b = 0.50$ ,  $z = 6.61$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). However, leader identity at Time one did not significantly predict self-perceived employability at Time two ( $b = -0.04$ ,  $z = -$

0.70,  $p = 0.485$ ). On the other hand, leader identity at Time two significantly predicted self-perceived employability at Time two ( $b = 0.25$ ,  $z = 3.95$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ).

Overall, these findings indicate that while the initial levels of leader identity do not have a significant impact on self-perceived employability at Time two, the current levels of leader identity do positively relate to self-perceived employability. Thus, H2a is partially supported.

To test hypothesis H2b, a cross-lagged panel model was used to examine the relationships between leader identity (measured at Time 1 and Time 2) and both career satisfaction and subjective career success (measured at Time 2). The results indicate that leader identity at Time 1 significantly predicts leader identity at Time 2 with a path coefficient of  $b = 0.50$ ,  $z = 6.61$ ,  $p < 0.001$ . However, the direct effects of leader identity at Time 1 on career satisfaction and subjective career success were not significant, with path coefficients of  $b = -0.09$ ,  $z = -0.87$ ,  $p = 0.384$ , and  $b = -0.03$ ,  $z = -0.41$ ,  $p = 0.679$ , respectively.

The paths from leader identity at Time 2 to both career satisfaction and subjective career success were significant, indicating that leader identity at Time 2 was positively related to career satisfaction ( $b = 0.50$ ,  $z = 4.76$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ) and subjective career success ( $b = 0.37$ ,  $z = 4.80$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). These findings suggest that while leader identity at Time 1 was not significantly associated with career satisfaction or subjective career success, its effect at Time 2 is significant, highlighting the importance of current leader identity in influencing these outcomes. Therefore, H2b is partially supported.

Table 5.2.6 Structural Equation Modeling Results for Leader Identity, Leader Self-Efficacy, and Career Outcomes (H1-H3)

VARIABLES	(1) H1	(2) H1	(3) H2	(4) H2	(5) H2	(6) H3	(7) H3	(8) H3
	Cross-lagged Panel Models		Leader Identity Outcomes			Leader Self-Efficacy Outcomes		
	Leader Identity (T2)	Leader Self-Efficacy (T2)	Employability	Career Satisfaction	Subjective Career Success	Employability	Career Satisfaction	Subjective Career Success
Leader Identity (T1)	0.55*** (0.08)	0.16** (0.07)	-0.04 (0.06)	-0.09 (0.10)	-0.03 (0.08)			
Leader Identity (T2)			0.25*** (0.06)	0.50*** (0.11)	0.37*** (0.08)			
Leader Self-Efficacy (T1)	-0.12 (0.09)	0.05 (0.08)				0.14*** (0.05)	0.13 (0.10)	0.12* (0.07)
Leader Self-Efficacy (T2)						0.42*** (0.06)	0.54*** (0.12)	0.42*** (0.09)
Var(error)	0.73*** (0.09)	0.56*** (0.07)	0.35*** (0.04)	1.00*** (0.13)	0.54*** (0.07)	0.26*** (0.03)	1.01*** (0.13)	0.54*** (0.07)
Observations	121	121	121	121	121	121	121	121

Note: T1 is Time 1, T2 is Time 2; Standard errors in parentheses

\*\*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*  $p < 0.1$

### **Examining the Relationship Between Leader Self-Efficacy and Career Outcomes**

Hypothesis 3 states that a higher level of leader self-efficacy will lead to a higher level of self-perceived employability, subjective career success, and career satisfaction. Again, cross-lagged structural equation modeling (SEM) analyses were employed to examine the relationships between leader self-efficacy, self-perceived employability, career satisfaction, and subjective career success over two time points in the two hypotheses. Table 5.2.6 summarizes the Structural Equation Modeling results for H1 to H3.

For H3a, the paths included leader self-efficacy at Time 1 to leader self-efficacy at Time 2, leader self-efficacy at Time 1 to self-perceived employability at Time 2, and leader self-efficacy at Time 2 to self-perceived employability at Time 2.

The results indicated that leader self-efficacy at Time 1 marginally predicted leader self-efficacy at Time 2 ( $b = 0.13, z = 1.70, p = 0.089$ ), although this effect was marginally significant. Leader self-efficacy at Time 1 also significantly predicted self-perceived employability at Time 2 ( $b = 0.14, z = 2.70, p = 0.007$ ). Furthermore, leader self-efficacy at Time 2 significantly correlated with self-perceived employability at Time 2 ( $b = 0.42, z = 6.95, p < 0.001$ ). These findings provide support for H3a, indicating that a higher level of leader self-efficacy is positively associated with a higher level of self-perceived employability.

For H3b, the paths included leader self-efficacy at Time 1 to leader self-efficacy at Time 2, leader self-efficacy at Time 1 to career satisfaction at Time 2 through employability at Time 2, and leader self-efficacy at Time 2 to career satisfaction and subjective career success at Time 2.

The results demonstrated that leader self-efficacy at Time 2 is significantly associated with career satisfaction at Time 2 ( $b = 0.54, z = 4.55, p < 0.001$ ) and subjective career success at Time 2 ( $b = 0.42, z = 4.84, p < 0.001$ ). However, the paths from leader self-efficacy at Time 1 to career satisfaction at Time 2 ( $b = 0.13, z = 1.31, p = 0.190$ ) and from leader self-efficacy at Time 1 to subjective career success at Time 2 ( $b = 0.12, z = 1.65, p = 0.099$ ) were not statistically significant. The path from leader self-efficacy at Time 1 to leader self-efficacy at Time 2 was also marginally significant ( $b = 0.13, z = 1.70, p = 0.089$ ).

Overall, the findings support H3a, indicating that higher levels of leader self-efficacy are positively associated with higher levels of self-perceived employability. For H3b, while current levels of leader self-efficacy is associated significantly with both career satisfaction and subjective career success, initial levels of leader self-efficacy do not significantly contribute to these outcomes, providing partial support.

### **Mediating Role of Employability**

Hypotheses 4 and 5 propose that employability will mediate the relationship between the two leadership self-views and the two career success variables. Hypothesis 5 is about the mediation role of employability between leader self-efficacy and career satisfaction and subjective career success.

A mediation analysis was conducted to examine the hypothesis that employability mediates the relationship between self-efficacy and subjective career success (H4a). Using structural equation modeling (SEM), paths were specified from Time 1 self-efficacy to Time 2 self-efficacy, from Time 2 self-efficacy to employability, from employability to subjective career success, and a direct path from Time 2 self-efficacy to

subjective career success. The analysis revealed that Time 1 self-efficacy is marginally related to Time 2 self-efficacy ( $b = 0.13, p = 0.089$ ). Furthermore, Time 2 self-efficacy significantly predicted employability ( $b = 0.45, p < 0.001$ ), and employability significantly predicted subjective career success ( $b = 0.51, p < 0.001$ ). The direct effect of Time 2 self-efficacy on subjective career success was also significant ( $b = 0.21, p = 0.027$ ). These findings indicate that employability partially mediates the relationship between self-efficacy and subjective career success. In this model, Time 1 self-efficacy was controlled to account for its stability over time.

Another mediation analysis was conducted to examine the hypothesis that employability mediates the relationship between leader self-efficacy and career satisfaction (H4b). Using generalized structural equation modeling (GSEM), paths were specified from Time 1 leader self-efficacy to Time 2 leader self-efficacy, from Time 2 leader self-efficacy to employability, from Time 2 leader self-efficacy to career satisfaction, and from employability to career satisfaction. The analysis revealed that Time 1 leader self-efficacy marginally predicted Time 2 leader self-efficacy ( $b = 0.13, p = 0.089$ ). Furthermore, Time 2 leader self-efficacy significantly predicted employability ( $b = 0.45, p < 0.001$ ), and employability significantly predicted career satisfaction ( $b = 0.38, p = 0.028$ ). The direct effect of Time 2 leader self-efficacy on career satisfaction was also significant ( $b = 0.40, p = 0.004$ ). These findings indicate that employability partially mediates the relationship between leader self-efficacy and career satisfaction. In this model, Time 1 leader self-efficacy was controlled to account for its stability over time.

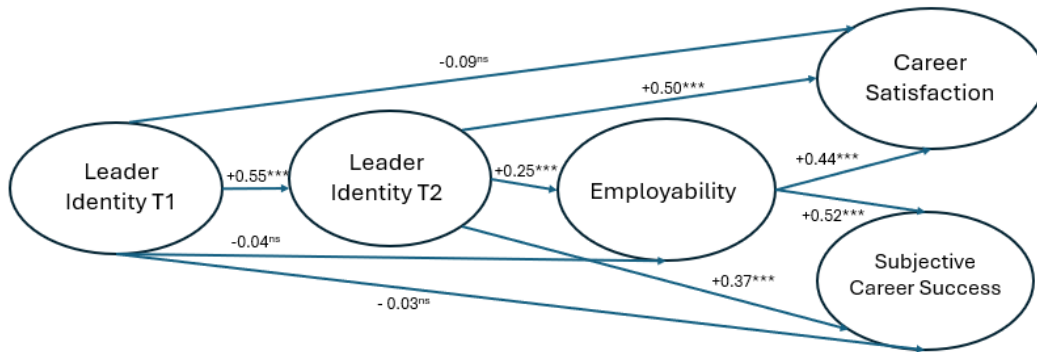
Table 5.2.7 Summary of the Mediating Effect of Employability in H4 and H5

VARIABLES	H4a			H4b			H5a			H5b		
	(1) H4a Leader Self Efficacy T2	(2) H4a Employability	(3) H4a Subjective Career Success	(5) H4b Leader Self Efficacy T2	(6) H4b Employability	(7) H4b Career Satisfaction	(9) H5a Leader Self - Efficacy T1	(10) H5a Employability	(11)H5a Subjective Career Success	(13) H5b Leader Self - Efficacy T1	(14) H5b Employabil ity	(15)H5b Subjective Career Success
Leader Self-Efficacy T1	0.13* (0.08)			0.13* (0.08)								
Leader Self-Efficacy T2		0.45*** (0.06)	0.21** (0.10)		0.45*** (0.06)	0.40*** (0.14)						
Leader Identity T1							0.50*** (0.08)			0.50*** (0.08)		
Leader Identity T2								0.22*** (0.05)	0.24*** (0.06)		0.22*** (0.05)	0.36*** (0.09)
Employability			0.51*** (0.12)			0.38** (0.17)			0.52*** (0.10)			0.44*** (0.15)
var(e. Leader Self-Efficacy T2)			0.59*** (0.08)			0.59*** (0.08)						
var(e. Employability)			0.28*** (0.04)			0.28*** (0.04)			0.35*** (0.04)			0.35*** (0.04)
var(e. Subjective Career Success)			0.48*** (0.06)						0.44*** (0.06)			
var(e. Career Satisfaction)						0.98*** (0.13)						0.93*** (0.12)
var(e. Leader Identity T2)									0.74*** (0.10)			0.74*** (0.10)
Observations	121	121	121	121	121	121	121	121	121	121	121	121

Note: T1 is Time 1, T2 is Time 2; Standard errors in parentheses

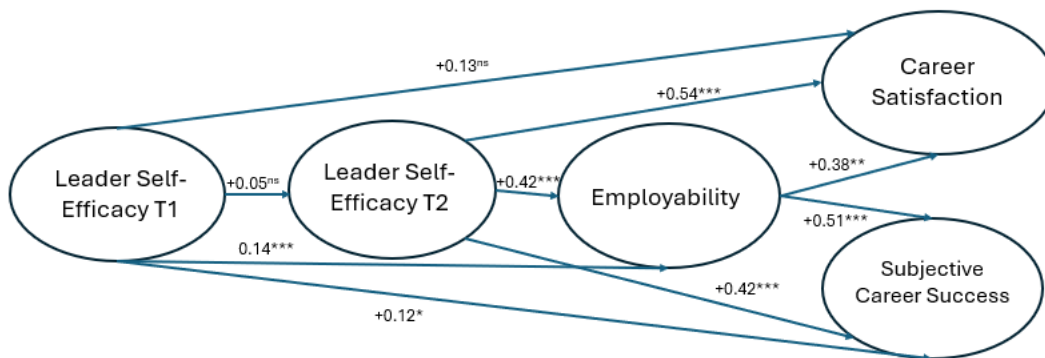
\*\*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*  $p < 0.1$

Figure 5.2.2 Time-lagged Path Model of Leader Identity Effects on Employability and Career Outcomes



Note: N = 121. T1 = Time 1, T2 = Time 2. \*\*\* $p < .01$ , \*\* $p < .05$ ,  $p < .10$

Figure 5.2.3 Time-lagged Path Model: Leader Self-Efficacy Effects on Employability and Career Outcomes



Note: N = 121. T1 = Time 1, T2 = Time 2. \*\*\* $p < .01$ , \*\* $p < .05$ ,  $p < .10$

A mediation analysis was conducted to examine hypothesis 5 that employability mediates the relationship between leader identity and subjective career success (H5a), and leader identity and career satisfaction (H5b). Using generalized structural equation modeling (GSEM), paths were specified from Time 1 leader identity to Time 2 leader identity, from Time 2 leader identity to employability, from Time 2 leader identity to subjective career success, and from employability to subjective career success (for H5a);

and from Time 2 leader identity to career satisfaction, and from employability to career satisfaction (for H5b).

For H5a, the analysis revealed that Time 1 leader identity significantly predicted Time 2 leader identity ( $b = 0.50, p < 0.001$ ). In addition, Time 2 leader identity was significantly positively associated with employability ( $b = 0.22, p < 0.001$ ), and employability was significantly positively associated with subjective career success ( $b = 0.52, p < 0.001$ ). The direct effect of Time 2 leader identity on subjective career success remained significant ( $b = 0.24, p < 0.001$ ). These findings show that employability partially mediates the relationship between leader identity and subjective career success.

For H5b, the analysis showed that Time 1 leader identity significantly predicted Time 2 leader identity ( $b = 0.50, p < 0.001$ ). Additionally, Time 2 leader identity is positively and significantly associated with employability ( $b = 0.22, p < 0.001$ ), and employability was positively and significantly associated with career satisfaction ( $b = 0.44, p = 0.003$ ). The direct effect of Time 2 leader identity on career satisfaction remains significant ( $b = 0.36, p < 0.001$ ). These findings indicate that employability partially mediates the relationship between leader identity and career satisfaction.

The results of the mediation analyses provide strong support for hypotheses H5a and H5b. Specifically, the findings indicate that employability plays a significant mediating role in the relationship between leader identity and both subjective career success and career satisfaction. The direct paths from leader identity to both outcomes remain significant, suggesting partial mediation. Therefore, hypotheses H5a and H5b are supported, demonstrating the critical role of employability in enhancing the effects of leader identity on important career outcomes.

## Examining the Moderating role of MTL

Hypothesis 6b examines whether motivation to lead (MTL) moderates the indirect effect of leader identity and leader self-efficacy on career satisfaction and subjective career success via employability. Specifically, the indirect effects were predicted to be stronger when motivation to lead is high.

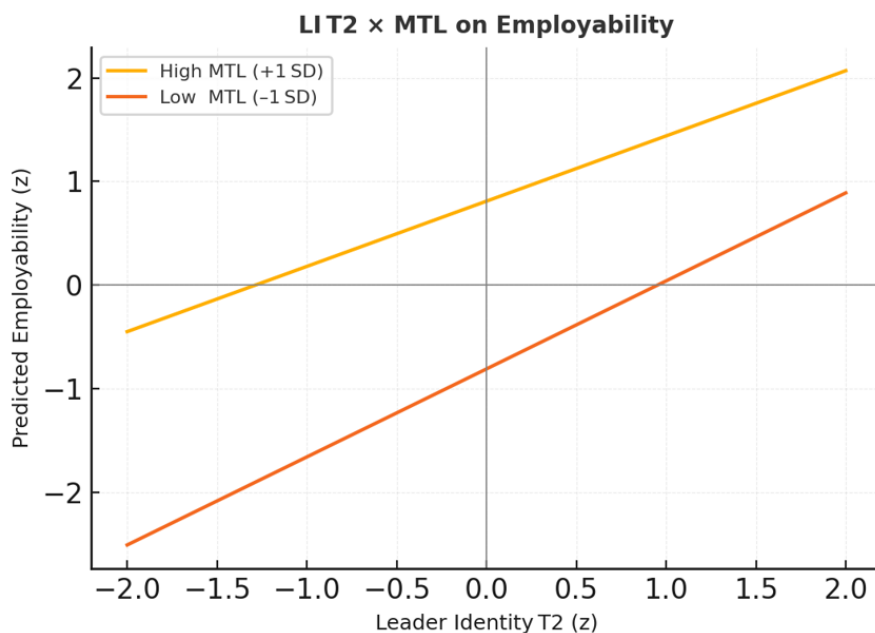
For leader identity, the paths in the structural equation model included direct effects of leader identity at Time 1 on leader identity at Time 2, as well as direct and moderated effects on employability, career satisfaction, and subjective career success. Similarly, for leader self-efficacy, the paths included direct effects of leader self-efficacy at Time 1 on leader self-efficacy at Time 2, as well as direct and moderated effects on employability, career satisfaction, and subjective career success. This time-lagged structural equation modeling (SEM) approach allowed for assessing the key components of moderated mediation by examining both the moderation of the first stage of the mediation pathway (leadership self-views → employability) and the established second stage (employability → career outcomes).

For leader identity, the path from Time 1 leader identity to Time 2 leader identity was significant, indicating a positive stability effect ( $b = 0.50, p < .001$ ). The direct path from Time 1 leader identity to employability was marginally significant ( $b = -0.12, p < .10$ ), and the interaction term Time 2 leader identity × MTL was also marginally significant ( $b = -0.11, p < .10$ ). This suggests that the indirect effects of leader identity on career outcomes through employability are weaker when motivation to lead is high, contrary to the hypothesis. Furthermore, time 2 leader identity was positively and significantly associated with employability ( $b = 0.74, p < .05$ ), and employability was

subsequently positively associated with both career satisfaction ( $b = 0.43, p < .01$ ) and subjective career success ( $b = 0.49, p < .01$ ). The path from time 2 leader identity to career satisfaction ( $b = 0.09, p > .10$ ) was not significant, while the path to subjective career success ( $b = 0.65, p < .010$ ) was marginally significant.

Additionally, motivation to lead was positively associated with employability ( $b = 0.81, p < .05$ ) that was measured at Time 2 but was not statistically significantly associated with subjective career success ( $b = 0.53, p > .10$ ) or career satisfaction ( $b = -0.20, p > .10$ ).

Figure 5.2.4 Simple-slope plot for MTL Moderation I Effect of Leader Identity Time 2 on Employability



For leader self-efficacy, the path from Time 1 leader self-efficacy to Time 2 leader self-efficacy showed a marginally significant stability effect ( $b = 0.13, p = .089$ ). Leader self-efficacy at time one significantly predicted employability that is measured at time two ( $b = 0.14, p < .05$ ). Time two leader self-efficacy did not have a significant effect on employability ( $b = 0.42, p > .10$ ). Employability was found to be significantly

associated with both career satisfaction ( $b = 0.35, p < .05$ ) and subjective career success ( $b = 0.50, p < .01$ ). In the meantime, time two leader self-efficacy was not significantly associated with either career satisfaction ( $b = -0.79, p > .10$ ) or subjective career success ( $b = -0.63, p > .10$ ). The interaction term between time two leader self-efficacy and motivation to lead ( $x_2 = T2\_lse \times MTL$ ) was not significantly related to employability ( $b = 0.00, p > .10$ ), but was marginally associated with both career satisfaction ( $b = 0.29, p < .10$ ) and subjective career success ( $b = 0.21, p < .10$ ). However, since MTL did not significantly moderate the leader self-efficacy-employability path ( $b = 0.00, p > .10$ ), and MTL does not appear to influence the strength of indirect effects from leader self-efficacy to career outcomes through employability. The limited moderation effects on the direct career outcome relationships ( $b = 0.29$  and  $0.21, p < .10$ ) are observed to operate independently of the employability-mediated pathway.

The findings present a mixed picture. While motivation to lead shows a marginally significant moderation of the relationship between the Time 2 leader identity and employability, it operates in the opposite direction to the one hypothesized. MTL did not show any moderation effects on the important relationships between leader self-efficacy and employability.

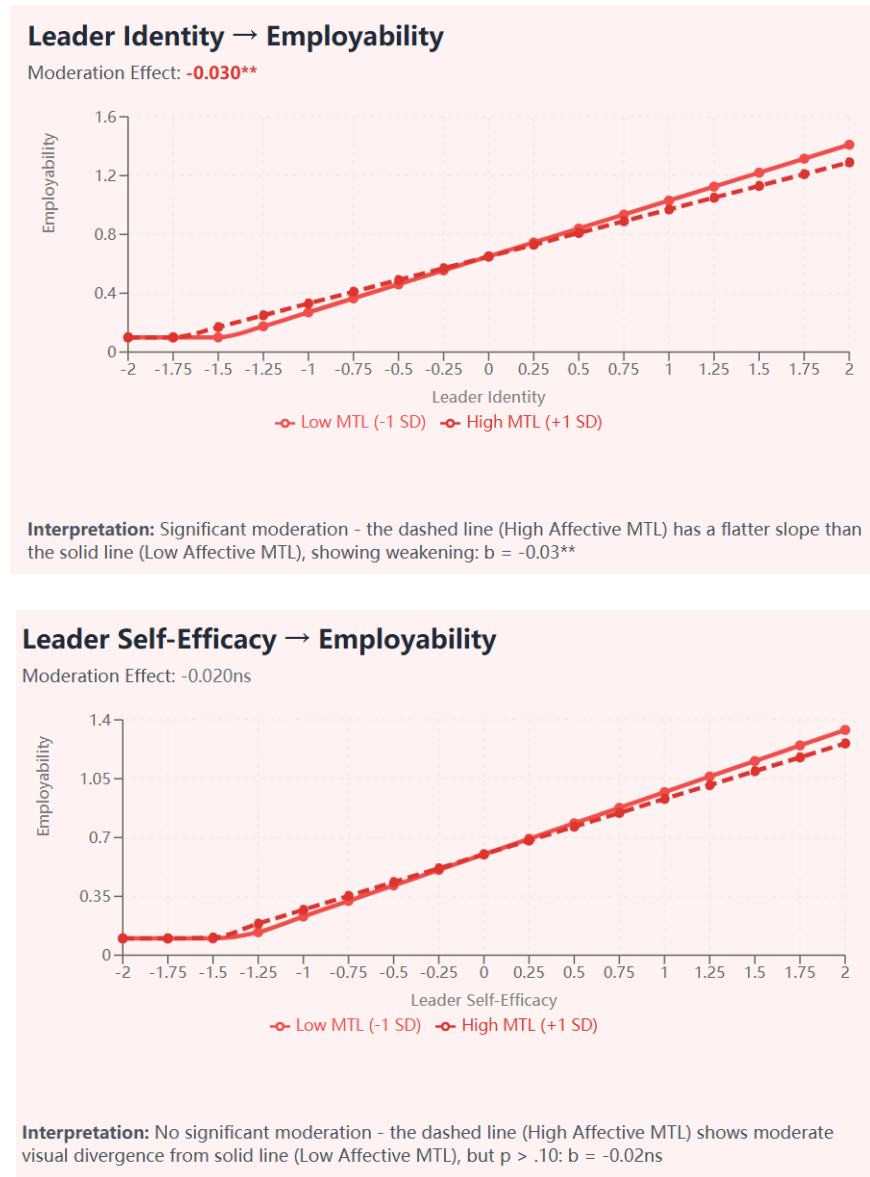
To further understand the underlying moderation mechanisms of the integrated motivation to lead (MTL), the same structural equation modeling (SEM) approach has been used to test separately the construct's three subscales – namely, Affective MTL, Non-Calculative MTL, and Social-Normative MTL.

The disaggregated analysis of MTL dimensions reveals distinct results. Affective MTL consistently weakened the leader identity to employability path in both the career

satisfaction model ( $b = -0.03, p < .05$ ) and the subjective career success model ( $b = -0.03, p < .05$ ), while showing no effects on the leader self-efficacy to employability pathway in either model (career satisfaction:  $b = -0.02, p > .10$ ; subjective career success:  $b = -0.02, p > .10$ ). This directly contradicts the hypothesis. The finding that Affective MTL weakens the leader identity–employability pathway suggests that when individuals are motivated to lead primarily for the intrinsic enjoyment and fulfillment it provides, they may be less inclined toward strategic behaviors that would translate their leader identity into tangible employability benefits. Based on Self-Determination Theory (Ryan & Deci, 2000), intrinsically motivated behavior prioritizes personal fulfillment over external rewards. Those participants who are high in affective motivation to lead might give more focus on the immediate emotional rewards and sense of purpose that leadership offers (Seo et al., 2004), at the expense of deliberate career advancement activities, such as networking, visibility management processes that typically strengthen one's employability in the job market (DeRue & Ashford, 2010).

Figure 5.2.5 show how affective MTL moderates relationships between leadership self-views (leader identity and leader self-efficacy) and employability. Solid lines represent low MTL (-1 SD) and dashed lines represent high MTL (+1 SD). Significant moderation effects are indicated by \*\*  $p < .05$ , \*  $p < .10$ . The plots reveal contradictory evidence for the hypothesis, with Affective MTL weakening rather than strengthening the leader identity to employability pathway. No significant effect occurs on the Self-Efficacy pathway despite moderate visual divergence.

Figure 5.2.5. Moderating effect of Affective Motivation to Lead on the relationships between leadership self-views (leader identity and leader self-efficacy) and employability.



Non-calculative MTL showed no effects on any employability pathways in either model: leader identity to employability (career satisfaction:  $b = -0.00, p > .10$ ; subjective career success:  $b = -0.00, p > .10$ ) and leader self-efficacy to employability (career satisfaction:  $b = -0.00, p > .10$ ; subjective career success:  $b = -0.00, p > .10$ ), though it enhanced direct effects on subjective career success. Social-normative MTL showed no

moderation of the leader identity to employability pathway in either model (career satisfaction:  $b = 0.02, p > .10$ ; subjective career success:  $b = 0.02, p > .10$ ) but provided modest support by marginally strengthening the leader self-efficacy to employability pathway in both the career satisfaction model ( $b = 0.03, p < .10$ ) and the subjective career success model ( $b = 0.03, p < .10$ ).

Therefore, hypothesis 6b, which predicts that the indirect relationships between leader identity and leader self-efficacy on career outcomes via employability would be stronger when motivation to lead is high, is not supported for the integrated motivation to lead (MTL), affective MTL, and non-calculative MTL. Only social-normative MTL shows a significant enhancement of the employability path, occurring only for the leader self-efficacy to employability relationship in the career satisfaction model. Overall, motivation to lead does not consistently strengthen employability-mediated career benefits as hypothesized, and in some cases actually weakens these pathways.

Table 5.2.8 MTL Dimensions Moderation of Indirect Effects via Employability

Motivation to Lead (MTL) Dimension	Career Satisfaction Models				Subjective Career Success Models			
	Leader Identity → Employability	Leader Identity → Career Satisfaction	Leader Self Efficacy → Employability	Leader Self Efficacy → Career Satisfaction	Leader Identity → Employability	Leader Identity → Subjective Career Success	Leader Self Efficacy → Employability	Leader Self Efficacy → Subjective Career Success
Motivation to Lead (MTL) Total	-0.11* (0.07)	0.06 (0.11)	0.00 (0.09)	0.29* (0.17)	-0.11* (0.07)	-0.09 (0.08)	0.00 (0.09)	0.21* (0.12)
Affective MTL	-0.03** (0.02)	-0.03 (0.03)	-0.02 (0.01)	-0.01 (0.03)	-0.03** (0.02)	-0.04** (0.02)	-0.02 (0.01)	-0.03 (0.02)
Non-Calculative MTL	-0.00 (0.01)	0.03 (0.02)	-0.00 (0.01)	0.03 (0.02)	-0.00 (0.01)	0.03** (0.01)	-0.00 (0.01)	0.04** (0.02)
Social-Normative MTL	0.02 (0.02)	-0.01 (0.03)	0.03* (0.01)	-0.00 (0.03)	0.02 (0.02)	-0.02 (0.02)	0.03* (0.01)	-0.01 (0.02)

Note: Standard errors in parentheses. \*\*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*  $p < 0.1$

### **Examining the Moderating role of gender**

The analysis investigated hypothesis 7 that gender plays a moderating role in the relationships between leader identity, leader self-efficacy, and employability, career satisfaction, as well as subjective career success. Leader identity was assessed at two time points, Time 1 and Time 2, with gender coded as 0 for male and 1 for female. Interaction terms between leader identity and gender (Leader Identity Time 2\_X\_gender) were included to examine potential moderation effects.

The results again indicated that the path from Time 1 Leader Identity to Time 2 Leader Identity was significant ( $b = 0.50, p < .001$ ), demonstrating that leader identity is stable over time. The path from Time 2 Leader Identity to employability was also significant ( $b = 0.31, p < .001$ ), which indicates that higher leader identity at Time 2 positively influenced employability. However, the interaction term for this path (Time 2 Leader Identity X\_gender) was significant ( $b = -0.21, p = .041$ ), which suggests that gender moderated the relationship between leader identity and employability, with the relationship being stronger for males than for females.

For career satisfaction, the path from employability was significant ( $b = 0.43, p < .001$ ), while the path from time 2 leader identity to career satisfaction was significant ( $b = 0.37, p < .001$ ). The interaction terms for these paths were not significant, with Time 2 Leader Identity \_Gender affecting career satisfaction ( $b = 0.07, p > .05$ ), indicating no significant moderation by gender for career satisfaction. Regarding subjective career success, the paths from both employability ( $b = 0.47, p < .001$ ) and Time two leader identity ( $b = 0.37, p < .001$ ) were significant, suggesting that both employability and leader identity positively influenced subjective career success. However, the interaction

term for Time 2 Leader Identity  $\_X\_gender$  was significant for subjective career success ( $b = -0.38, p < .001$ ). This shows significant moderation by gender in this relationship, with the effect being stronger for males.

In summary, while leader identity significantly predicted employability, career satisfaction, and subjective career success, gender moderated the relationship between leader identity and employability, as well as between leader identity and subjective career success, making the effect stronger for males. The hypothesized moderation effect of gender on the other relationships involving leader identity was partially supported by the data.

Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) was again conducted to explore the moderating role of gender on the relationships between leader self-efficacy, employability, career satisfaction, and subjective career success. Leader self-efficacy was assessed at two time points, Time 1 and Time 2, with gender coded as 0 for male and 1 for female. The analysis included interaction terms between leader self-efficacy and gender (Time 2 leader self-efficacy $\_x\_Gender$ ) to examine potential moderation effects.

The results indicated that the direct path from leader self-efficacy at time 1 to time 2 was marginally significant ( $b = 0.13, p = .089$ ), suggesting some stability in leader self-efficacy over time, though not definitively. The path from leader self-efficacy at time 2 to employability was significant ( $b = 0.46, p < .001$ ). This demonstrates that higher leader self-efficacy at Time 2 positively influenced employability. However, the interaction term for this path (Time 2 leader self-efficacy  $\_x\_gender$ ) was not significant ( $b = -0.14, p > .05$ ), which shows that gender did not moderate the relationship between leader self-efficacy and employability.

For career satisfaction, the path from employability was significant ( $b = 0.36, p < .05$ ), while the path from time two leader self-efficacy to career satisfaction was significant ( $b = 0.40, p < .05$ ). Nonetheless, the interaction terms for these paths were not significant, with Time 2 leader self efficacy\_x Gender affecting career satisfaction ( $b = 0.03, p > .05$ ), indicating no significant moderation by gender.

Regarding subjective career success, both the path from employability ( $b = 0.49, p < .001$ ) and the path from time two leader self-efficacy ( $b = 0.30, p < .001$ ) were significant, which indicates that both employability and leader self-efficacy positively influenced subjective career success. However, the interaction terms showed no significant moderation effect of gender, as indicated by the coefficients for T2 leader self-efficacy\_x\_gender on both employability and subjective career success ( $b = -0.14, p > .05$  and  $b = -0.27, p > .05$ ) respectively.

Overall, these results suggest that while leader self-efficacy is positively associated with employability, career satisfaction, and subjective career success, these relationships are not significantly moderated by gender. Thus, the hypothesized moderation effect of gender on these relationships in H7b was not supported by the data.

#### 5.2.6 Summary

Study 2 hypothesis testing results provide statistically significant support for most of the hypothesized relationships. Participation in an MBA program has been shown to positively influence both leader identity and leader self-efficacy.

Leader identity shows a more substantial increase (14.3%) compared to leader self-efficacy (5.6%). Besides, the cross-lagged panel analysis indicates that while leader identity demonstrated significant stability over time, leader self-efficacy showed lower

stability, which shows that leader identity may be a more enduring characteristic during the MBA program.

Hypotheses 2 and 3, that leader identity and leader self-efficacy positively relate to key career outcomes including employability, career satisfaction, and subjective career success, are supported. However, while time 1 leader self-efficacy was positively associated with employability measured at time 2, time 1 leader identity measured prior to MBA education did show similar relationship with these outcomes. This suggests a more immediate relationship of leader self-efficacy with perceived employability compared to leader identity.

The study findings also provide statistical support to the hypothesized mediation role of employability in H4 and H5. Employability has been proved as a significant mediator between both leadership self-views and the two career outcomes. In the meantime, both leader identity and leader self-efficacy also maintain positive relationships on the two career outcomes.

The moderation effect of motivation to lead and gender is tested in Study 2. For motivation to lead (MTL), marginally significant moderation is found for its relationship between leader identity and employability, as well as for leader self-efficacy's relationships with career satisfaction and subjective career success. While the moderation effect of gender is observed specifically for leader identity's relationships with employability and subjective career success, with effects being stronger for males than for females. However, gender did not moderate any relationships involving leader self-efficacy. Please see Table 5.2.9 for the summary of the Study 2 testing results.

Study 2 advances beyond Study 1's cross-sectional findings by introducing a temporal dimension. Study 1 established that leadership self-views are associated with career outcomes. However, it could not determine whether these constructs change over time. Study 2 fills this gap by demonstrating that both leader identity and leader self-efficacy increase significantly six months after participation in the MBA program. Leader identity showed a 14.3% increase. Leader self-efficacy showed a 5.6% increase. This differential rate of change suggests that identity formation may be more responsive to the business school experience (Petriglieri & Petriglieri, 2010).

The cross-lagged analysis provides unique insights beyond Study 1's cross-sectional correlations. Leader identity at Time 1 predicts leader self-efficacy at Time 2. The reverse is not significant. This suggests that identity formation may precede and facilitate efficacy development (Lord & Hall, 2005). Such temporal dynamics could not be detected in Study 1's design. Study 2 replicates Study 1's core mediation findings. However, Time 2 measures showed stronger relationships with outcomes than Time 1 measures. This suggests that increased leadership self-views from MBA participation drive career benefits.

Study 2's sample consisted of current students at the part-time Finance MBA program in the research context. Study 3 expands the study sample to a diverse alumni population across different programs. Study 3 also includes additional moderating variables that may influence how leadership self-views translate into career outcomes.

Table 5.2.9 Summary of Study 2 Hypotheses Testing Results

Hypothesis	Sub-Hypothesis	Description	Key Finding	Support Status
H1		Impact of MBA program on leadership self-views	Significant increases in leader identity (14.3%) and leader self-efficacy (5.6%)	Supported
	H2a	Leader identity → Self-perceived employability	Current leader identity (Time 2) significantly predicted employability; initial leader identity (Time 1) did not	Partially Supported
H2	H2b	Leader identity → Career satisfaction and subjective career success	Current leader identity (Time 2) significantly predicted both career outcomes; initial leader identity (Time 1) did not	Partially Supported
	H3a	Leader self-efficacy → Self-perceived employability	Both initial and current leader self-efficacy significantly predicted employability	Supported
H3	H3b	Leader self-efficacy → Career satisfaction and subjective career success	Only current leader self-efficacy significantly predicted career outcomes; initial leader self-efficacy had limited effect	Partially Supported
	H4a	Leader identity → Employability → Subjective career success	Employability partially mediated this relationship	Supported
H4	H4b	Leader identity → Employability → Career satisfaction	Employability partially mediated this relationship	Supported
	H5a	Leader self-efficacy → Employability → Subjective career success	Employability partially mediated this relationship	Supported
H5	H5b	Leader self-efficacy → Employability → Career satisfaction	Employability partially mediated this relationship	Supported
H6	H6b	Moderating role of motivation to lead	Marginally significant moderation for leader identity on employability and for leader self-efficacy on career outcomes	Partially Supported
	H7a	Gender moderation for leader identity	Gender moderated the relationship between leader identity and both employability and subjective career success (stronger for males)	Partially Supported
H7	H7b	Gender moderation for leader self-efficacy	No significant gender moderation for any leader self-efficacy relationships	Not Supported

### 5.3 Study 3

Study 3 again adopts a cross-sectional design and includes two additional moderators, i.e., job tenure and work centrality. The objective of study 3 is to further analyze the mediation and moderation relationship among the key constructs and the moderation effect of the newly introduced variables in a more diverse alumni population.

#### 5.3.1 Data collection

It was planned that Study 3 data would be collected from both alumni of different academic programs of the school, as well as those from outside the business school community, through the collaboration of a social media platform, “Business School Encyclopedia,” that serves an audience who are interested in pursuing business degrees. The first round of data collection information was released through both internal and external channels. For the internal channels, survey questionnaires were first released through different FMBA alumni cohort WeChat groups. It was made clear in the message that around 25 minutes would be required for a total of 152 questions in the survey. To encourage participation, five Golden Bull loyalty points will be allocated to those who have completed the survey. Several reminders were sent through WeChat, and one face-to-face promotion was conducted during the five-year reunion event for the FMBA 2006 cohort. 74 responses were received from the finance MBA alumni across seven cohorts from the 2012 intake through to the 2018 intake. Survey participant recruitment messages for external participants were released through the social media platform. Although it was mentioned that those who had completed the survey would get a random gift book, only three responses were received. To generate more responses, the survey recruitment messages were sent to the alumni groups in Beijing that included alumni from different

programs. Seven more responses were received, including four responses from the EMBA alumni, two from full-time alumni, and one from FMBA alumni. To maintain sample representation, only 81 responses from the business school alumni were used for the analysis in the study.

### 5.3.2 Sample

The study sample consists of 81 alumni from three different programs in the business school, with 54 males (66.7%) and 27 females (33.3%). The survey collected participants' age in four birth year ranges – born in 1974 and earlier, born between 1975 to 1979, born between 1980 to 1985, and born from 1985 to 1989. Among all the participants, the largest age group (46.9%, n = 38) was born between 1980-1984, which represents 40-44 years old at the time of data collection in 2024. 75 participants are alumni from the FMBA program, accounting for 92.6%. While there are four participants (4.9%) from EMBA and two (2.5%) from MBA. The participants reported an average of 9.69 years of managerial experience (SD = 5.26), ranging from 0 to 20 years. Participants salary range is also collected with six different ranges, namely below RMB 200k (inclusive) (N=1), between 200k to 500k (inclusive) (N=7), between 500k to 800k (inclusive) (N=17), between 800k to 1million (inclusive) (N=11), between 1million to 1.5 million (inclusive) (N=20), and above 1.5 million (N=25).

Table 5.3.1 Descriptive Statistics of Study 3 samples

No. of Participants	Birth Year (Range)	Female Percentage	Working Experience Avg. (Range)
81	1974 and earlier - 1989	33.3%	9.69 (0–20)

### 5.3.3 Measures

The constructs that are included in the Study 3 survey include Leader Self-Efficacy (Hardy et al., 2010), Leader Identity (Hiller, 2005), Employability (Rothwell & Arnold, 2007), Career Satisfaction (Greenhaus et al., 1990) (5-items), Subjective Career Success with five subscales, Job Success(8-item), Interpersonal success (4-item), Financial Success factor (3-item), Hierarchical Success factor (3-item), and life success factor (4-items) in Gattiker & Larwood (1986).

The constructs included in Study 3 can be found in Appendix D.

### 5.3.4 Data Validity

In Study 3, both Cronbach's alpha and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) were conducted to evaluate the reliability and validity of various constructs related to leadership and career success. Besides Leader Identity, Leader Self-Efficacy, Employability, Career Satisfaction, Motivation to Lead (MTL) and its subscales, and Subjective Career Success along with its subscales, Work Centrality was included in the analysis. The reliability of each construct was assessed using Cronbach's alpha, with values above 0.70 considered acceptable, indicating good internal consistency.

Leader Identity, measured with 12 items, demonstrated high reliability with a Cronbach's alpha of 0.92. Leader Self-Efficacy, with five items, also showed good reliability with an alpha of 0.85. Employability, assessed using 11 items, had an alpha of 0.88, indicating strong internal consistency. Career Satisfaction, with five items, exhibited a high alpha of 0.93. The Work Centrality Scale, which included seven items, had a Cronbach's alpha of 0.79, demonstrating acceptable reliability. The overall Motivation to Lead construct, comprising 27 items, showed good reliability with an alpha

of 0.82. Its subscales—Affective MTL (9 items), Social-Normative MTL (9 items), and Non-Calculative MTL (9 items)—had alphas of 0.73, 0.78, and 0.72, respectively, indicating varying levels of internal consistency, all within acceptable ranges. Subjective Career Success was evaluated both as a total construct and through its subscales. The total construct, measured with 22 items, had a Cronbach's alpha of 0.93, indicating excellent reliability. The subscales of Subjective Career Success included Job Success (8 items, alpha = 0.82), Interpersonal Success (4 items, alpha = 0.83), Financial Success (3 items, alpha = 0.92), Hierarchical Success (3 items, alpha = 0.77), and Life Success (4 items, alpha = 0.82), all demonstrating good to excellent reliability.

Table 5.3.2 Cronbach's Alpha of Study 3 Constructs

<b>Construct</b>	<b>No. of Items</b>	<b>Cronbach's Alpha</b>
Leader Identity	12	0.92
Leader Self-Efficacy	5	0.85
Employability	11	0.88
Career Satisfaction	5	0.93
Work Centrality Scale	7	0.79
Motivation to Lead	27	0.82
Motivation to Lead - Affective	9	0.73
Motivation to Lead - Social Normative	9	0.78
Motivation to Lead - Non-Calculative	9	0.72
Subjective Career Success Total	22	0.93
Subjective Career Success -Job	8	0.82
Subjective Career Success - Interpersonal	4	0.83
Subjective Career Success - Financial	3	0.92
Subjective Career Success - Hierarchical	3	0.77
Subjective Career Success - Life	4	0.82

As the second step, a series of confirmatory factor analyses (CFA) were conducted to item-level measurement performance for each construct. Because Study 3 has a relatively small sample ( $N = 81$ ) and several constructs contain many indicators, model fit statistics are interpreted with caution and are used primarily to supplement the reliability evidence with item-level convergent validity information. .

Table 5.3.3 Summary of CFA Analysis of Study 3 Constructs

Construct	No. of Indicators	Factor Loadings Range	Model Fit $\chi^2(df)$	<i>p</i> -value	Key Intercept Range	Key Error Variance Range	Latent Variable Variance
Leader Efficacy	5	0.78 - 1.00	$\chi^2(5) = 13.44$	0.02	5.44 - 5.68	0.16 - 0.55	0.63
Leader Identity	12	0.64 - 2.11	$\chi^2(54) = 464.10$	0.00	4.60 - 5.79	0.42 - 1.99	0.38
Employability	11	0.69 - 2.49	$\chi^2(44) = 197.03$	0.00	4.88 - 5.79	0.29 - 1.81	0.29
Career Satisfaction	5	0.95 - 1.06	$\chi^2(5) = 9.88$	0.08	4.95 - 5.26	0.20 - 0.62	1.17
Subjective Career Success	22	0.37 - 2.11	$\chi^2(209) = 678.32$	0.00	3.54 - 6.10	0.06 - 2.33	Varies by dimension
Job Success	8	0.37 - 1.12			3.99 - 6.10	0.62 - 2.12	0.65
Interpersonal Success	4	0.49 - 1.15			5.53 - 5.83	0.36 - 0.66	0.64
Financial Success	3	1.11 - 1.22			4.98 - 5.27	0.28 - 1.23	1.27
Hierarchical Success	3	0.64 - 1.33			4.54 - 5.09	0.90 - 2.16	2
Life Success	4	0.68 - 1.05			5.10 - 5.47	0.56 - 1.31	0.97
Work Centrality	7	1.35 - 3.84	$\chi^2(14) = 53.94$	0.00	2.11 - 4.01	0.20 - 2.85	0.14
MTL - Total	27	-0.39 - 1.44	$\chi^2(324) = 889.58$	0.00	2.09 - 5.74	0.36 - 3.27	0.58
MTL - Affective	9	0.12 - 1.21	$\chi^2(324) = 742.97$	0.00	3.07 - 5.41	0.63 - 3.27	0.73
MTL - Social Normative	9	0.13 - 0.87	$\chi^2(324) = 742.97$	0	2.09 - 5.58	0.71 - 2.75	1.29
MTL - Non-Calculative	9	-0.39-1.32	$\chi^2(324) = 742.97$	0.00	3.68 - 5.37	0.36 - 2.55	1.13

Leader Efficacy, measured with five indicators, showed factor loadings ranging from 0.78 to 1.00. The model fit statistics were  $\chi^2(5) = 13.44$ ,  $p = 0.0196$ , indicating an

acceptable fit. Intercepts ranged from 5.44 to 5.68, and error variances ranged from 0.16 to 0.55, with a latent variable variance of 0.63, demonstrating a robust underlying factor. Leader Identity, comprising twelve indicators, had factor loadings from 0.64 to 2.11. The model fit was significant,  $\chi^2 (54) = 464.10, p = 0.00$ . Intercepts ranged from 4.60 to 5.79, and error variances from 0.42 to 1.99, with a latent variable variance of 0.38.

Employability was validated with eleven indicators, with factor loadings between 0.69 and 2.49. The model fit was  $\chi^2 (44) = 197.03, p = 0.00$ . Intercepts varied from 4.88 to 5.79, and error variances ranged from 0.29 to 1.81, with a latent variable variance of 0.29.

Career Satisfaction was measured with five indicators, showing factor loadings from 0.95 to 1.06. The model fit was  $\chi^2 (5) = 9.88, p = 0.0788$ , indicating a good fit. Intercepts ranged from 4.95 to 5.26, and error variances ranged from 0.20 to 0.62, with a latent

variable variance of 1.17. Subjective Career Success was analyzed comprehensively across 22 indicators, with factor loadings from 0.37 to 2.11. The overall model fit was  $\chi^2 (209) = 678.32, p = 0.00$ . Intercepts ranged from 3.54 to 6.10, and error variances ranged from 0.06 to 2.33. The subscales were detailed as follows: Job Success had eight

indicators with loadings from 0.37 to 1.12. Intercepts ranged from 3.99 to 6.10, and error variances ranged from 0.62 to 2.12, with a latent variable variance of 0.65. Interpersonal

Success was measured with four indicators, with loadings from 0.49 to 1.15. Intercepts ranged from 5.53 to 5.83, and error variances ranged from 0.36 to 0.66, with a latent

variable variance of 0.64. Financial Success included three indicators with loadings from 1.11 to 1.22. Intercepts ranged from 4.98 to 5.27, and error variances ranged from 0.28 to

1.23, with a latent variable variance of 1.27. Hierarchical Success was measured with

three indicators, with loadings from 0.64 to 1.33. Intercepts ranged from 4.54 to 5.09, and

error variances ranged from 0.90 to 2.16, with a latent variable variance of 2.00. Life Success included four indicators with loadings from 0.68 to 1.05. Intercepts ranged from 5.10 to 5.47, and error variances ranged from 0.56 to 1.31, with a latent variable variance of 0.97. Work Centrality was measured with seven indicators, showing factor loadings between 1.35 and 3.84. The model fit was  $\chi^2(14) = 53.94, p = 0.00$ , indicating a significant fit. Intercepts ranged from 2.11 to 4.01, and error variances ranged from 0.20 to 2.85, with a latent variable variance of 0.14. For Motivation to Lead, the analysis included three dimensions: the Affective dimension with nine indicators had factor loadings ranging from 0.12 to 1.21. Intercepts varied from 3.07 to 5.41, and error variances ranged from 0.63 to 3.27, with a latent variable variance of 0.73. The Social Normative dimension, also with nine indicators, showed loadings from 0.13 to 0.87. Intercepts ranged from 2.09 to 5.58, and error variances ranged from 0.71 to 2.75, with a latent variable variance of 1.29. The Non-Calculative dimension, with nine indicators, displayed loadings from -0.39 to 1.32. Intercepts ranged from 3.68 to 5.37, and error variances ranged from 0.36 to 2.55, with a latent variable variance of 1.13. The total Motivation to Lead (MTL) construct, encompassing all three dimensions, was validated with 27 indicators, showing factor loadings from -0.39 to 1.44. The overall model fit was  $\chi^2(324) = 889.58, p = 0.00$ . Intercepts ranged from 2.09 to 5.74, and error variances ranged from 0.36 to 3.27, with a latent variable variance of 0.58.

In summary, the Cronbach alpha analysis for all the constructs has shown a range from 0.72 to 0.93, indicating good reliability. The CFA results showed item-level evidence of convergent validity between latent variables and their observed indicators. The significant standardized loadings and reliability results support using the construct

measures in the subsequent analyses, which were conducted using composite mean scores.

As the last step to evaluate data validity in terms of possible common method bias, a Harman single-factor test (Podsakoff et al., 2003, 2024) was run by forcing all 55 indicators for the five key constructs into an unrotated principal-axis factor analysis with a single latent factor. The factor's eigenvalue was 17.05, and it accounted for 29.77 % of the total item variance - well below the 50 % benchmark for problematic common-method variance. Item loadings on this factor ranged from .15 to .70 ( $M \approx .50$ ), and the mean extracted communality was .30, with most items below .35. These statistics show that no dominant general factor underlies the measures, indicating that common-method bias is unlikely to threaten the validity of the study's results.

### 5.3.5 Hypothesis Testing

Study 3 tested six full hypotheses except hypothesis 1, which was tested in study 2. Similar to Study 1, a combination of multiple regression and Andrew Hays Process Macro models 4, 5, and 7 were used in the analysis.

### **Descriptive Statistics and Correlations**

The descriptive statistics show that most variables demonstrated relatively high mean scores, with leader self-efficacy showing the highest mean ( $M = 5.61$ ,  $SD = 0.76$ ) and work centrality displaying the lowest mean ( $M = 3.18$ ,  $SD = 1.07$ ). Standard deviations ranged from 0.61 to 5.53, with tenure showing the greatest variability at a SD of 5.53. Please see Table 5.3.4 for details.

Leader identity and leader self-efficacy correlate strongly ( $r = .63$ ,  $p < .01$ ), and both links robustly to perceived employability ( $r = .51$  and  $.49$ ) as well as to the two

career outcomes—subjective career success (both  $r_s \approx .33$ ) and career satisfaction ( $r_s \approx .34$ – $.36$ ). Employability itself shows the strongest associations with the career outcomes ( $r = .62$  with subjective success and  $r = .53$  with satisfaction). Career satisfaction and subjective success remain tightly connected ( $r = .68$ ). Motivation-to-lead (MTL) continues to relate positively to leader identity ( $r = .50$ ) and self-efficacy ( $r = .46$ ), with particularly high internal coherence among its subscales (Total–Affective =  $.74$ , Total–Non-Calculative =  $.66$ , Total–Social-Normative =  $.75$ ).

Besides, work centrality shows little overlap with the leadership constructs, and tenure correlates weakly and negatively with leader identity ( $r = -.22$ ,  $p < .05$ ) while remaining non-significant elsewhere, suggesting that time in the organization plays only a minor role in these perceptions.

Crucially, except for the intentionally overlapping MTL facets, all correlations stay below  $.70$ , indicating minimal risk of multicollinearity for subsequent multivariate analyses (Hair et al., 2019).

Table 5.3.4 Descriptives and Correlations Study 3

#	Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1	Leader Identity	5.25	0.97	—										
2	Leader Self-Efficacy	5.61	0.76	.63**	—									
3	Employability	5.44	0.84	.51**	.49**	—								
4	Subjective Career Success	5.24	0.76	.33**	.33**	.62**	—							
5	Career Satisfaction	5.03	1.12	.34**	.36**	.53**	.68**	—						
6	MTL Total	4.42	0.61	.50**	.46**	.45**	.30**	.29**	—					
7	MTL - Affective	4.4	0.83	.58**	.46**	.45**	0.19	0.15	.74**	—				
8	MTL - Non-Calculative	4.12	0.8	0.11	.22*	0.15	0.19	0.18	.66**	0.18	—			
9	MTL - Social-Normative	5.05	0.82	.45**	.37**	.46**	.28*	.32**	.75**	.45**	.28*	—		
10	Work Centrality	3.18	1.07	0.1	0.06	-0.02	0.1	0.02	0.16	.22*	-0.13	0.17	—	
11	Tenure	6.02	5.53	-.22*	-0.09	-0.09	-0.18	0.02	-0.12	-0.17	-0.04	-0.06	-0.04	—

Note: N = 81. \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .01$  (two-tailed).

## Examining the Relationship between Leadership Self-Views and Career Outcomes

Hypotheses 2 and 3 propose that leader identity and leader self-efficacy, respectively, are positively related to (a) self-perceived employability, (b) subjective career success, and (c) career satisfaction.

The hypothesis testing was conducted using multiple regression in Stata SE 18 to examine the direct effects of leader identity and leader self-efficacy on self-perceived employability, subjective career success, and career satisfaction, while controlling for gender, salary range, managerial experience, and birth year range.

For Hypothesis H2a, the results indicated a significant positive relationship between leader identity and self-perceived employability ( $\beta = 0.47$ ,  $SE = 0.10$ ,  $p < .001$ ). This finding supports the hypothesis that a higher level of leader identity is associated with a higher level of self-perceived employability.

Regarding Hypothesis H2b, the study found notable positive relationships between leader identity and subjective career ( $\beta = 0.24$ ,  $SE = 0.09$ ,  $p < .01$ ). This indicates that higher levels of leader identity are associated with increased perceptions of subjective career success. Similarly, the relationship between leader identity and career satisfaction was also significant ( $\beta = 0.43$ ,  $SE = 0.13$ ,  $p < .001$ ). This suggests that individuals with a stronger leader identity tend to experience greater satisfaction in their careers. These results provide strong support for Hypotheses H2b and H2c, affirming that a higher level of leader identity is positively associated with higher levels of both subjective career success and career satisfaction.

The control variables in the model demonstrated different results. The six choices of salary range are recoded as one to six, respectively, from below RMB 200k

(inclusive), between 200k to 500k (inclusive), between 500k to 800k (inclusive), between 800k to 1million (inclusive), between 1million to 1.5 million (inclusive), to above 1.5 million. Results demonstrated that salary has significant positive relationships with subjective career success ( $\beta = 0.16, p < .01$ ) and career satisfaction ( $\beta = 0.26, p < .001$ ). Interestingly, managerial experience showed a marginally significant negative relationship with career satisfaction ( $\beta = -0.07, p < .10$ ), suggesting that longer managerial duration may slightly decrease career satisfaction when controlling for other factors. The models explained 30% of the variance in employability, 22% of the variance in subjective career success, and 25% of the variance in career satisfaction.

In general, the results show that leader identity has a positive relationship with self-perceived employability, subjective career success, and career satisfaction, thereby supporting H2a, H2b, and H2c.

Hypothesis 3 states that leader self-efficacy is positively related to (a) self-perceived employability, (b) subjective career success, and (c) career satisfaction. Again, a multiple regression has been adopted to test the direct effects of leader self-efficacy on these outcomes. Please see Table 5.3.4 for the Summary of the results.

In the case of Hypothesis H3a, the results demonstrated a substantial positive correlation between leader self-efficacy and self-perceived employability ( $\beta = 0.55, SE = 0.12, p < .001$ ). This finding supports the hypothesis that a higher level of leader self-efficacy is associated with a higher level of self-perceived employability.

The analysis for Hypothesis H3b demonstrated substantial positive relationships between leader self-efficacy and both subjective career success and career satisfaction. In particular, the relationship between leader self-efficacy and subjective career success was

significant ( $\beta = 0.27$ ,  $SE = 0.12$ ,  $p < .01$ ). Additionally, the relationship between leader self-efficacy and career satisfaction was also significant ( $\beta = 0.49$ ,  $SE = 0.17$ ,  $p < .001$ ). These results support the hypothesis that a higher level of leader self-efficacy leads to higher levels of both subjective career success and career satisfaction.

Again, the analysis model includes the control variables, including gender, salary range, managerial experience, and the birth year range. Similar to the results when testing hypothesis two, salary demonstrated significant positive relationships with subjective career success ( $\beta = 0.14$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and career satisfaction ( $\beta = 0.23$ ,  $p < .01$ ). This suggests that salary as a measure of objective career success does have an impact on subjective career satisfaction indices. Higher salary levels are associated with greater career success perceptions and satisfaction. While gender and managerial experience showed no significant effect on the outcome variables. The models explained 27% of the variance in employability, 20% of the variance in subjective career success, and 23% of the variance in career satisfaction. Overall, the results suggest that leader self-efficacy was positively related to self-perceived employability, subjective career success, and career satisfaction, supporting H3a, H3b, and H3c.

Table 5.3.5 Summary of Multiple Regression Results for H2 and H3

VARIABLES	(1) H2a	(2) H2b	(3) H2c	(4) H3a	(5) H3b	(6) H3c
	Employability	Subjective Career Success	Career Satisfaction	Employability	Subjective Career Success	Career Satisfaction
Leader Identity	0.47*** (0.10)	0.24** (0.09)	0.43*** (0.13)			
Leader Self-Efficacy				0.55*** (0.12)	0.27** (0.12)	0.49*** (0.17)
Male Dummy	0.20 (0.20)	-0.04 (0.19)	0.19 (0.27)	0.22 (0.20)	-0.03 (0.19)	0.21 (0.27)
Salary Range	0.09 (0.06)	0.16** (0.06)	0.26*** (0.09)	0.06 (0.07)	0.14** (0.06)	0.23** (0.09)
Managerial Experience	-0.02 (0.02)	-0.01 (0.02)	-0.07* (0.03)	-0.01 (0.02)	0.00 (0.02)	-0.05 (0.03)
Birthyear Range Fixed Effect	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes	yes
Observations	81	81	81	81	81	81
R-squared	0.30	0.22	0.25	0.27	0.20	0.23

Standard errors in parentheses \*\*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*  $p < 0.1$

### **Examining the Mediating Role of Employability**

Hypotheses 4 and 5 propose that employability mediates the effects of the two leadership constructs on career outcomes. Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) through Stata SE 18 was employed to test the two hypotheses.

The testing analysis for hypothesis four revealed that leader self-efficacy was significantly and positively associated with employability ( $b = .54$ ,  $SE = .11$ ,  $p < .001$ ). This indicates that higher leader self-efficacy is associated with a higher level of self-perceived employability. The direct effect of leader self-efficacy on subjective career success was not significant ( $b = 0.04$ ,  $SE = 0.10$ ,  $p > 0.05$ ). This suggests that leader self-efficacy does not directly influence subjective career success when employability is included as a mediator. However, the direct effect of employability on subjective career success was significant ( $b = .55$ ,  $SE = .09$ ,  $p < .001$ ), which reflects that higher employability is associated with higher subjective career success. The significant path from leader self-efficacy to employability, combined with the significant path from employability to subjective career success and the non-significant direct path, indicates a significant indirect effect supporting the hypothesis that employability mediates this relationship.

Table 5.3.6 Summary of Hypotheses Testing Result H4 and H5

VARIABLES	(1) H4a Employability	(2) H4a Subjective Career Success	(3) H4b Employability	(4) H4b Career Satisfaction	(5) H5a Employability	(6) H5a Subjective Career Success	(7) H5b Employability	(8) H5b Career Satisfaction
Employability		0.55*** (0.09)		0.62*** (0.14)		0.56*** (0.09)		0.64*** (0.15)
Leader Self-Efficacy	0.54*** (0.11)	0.04 (0.10)	0.54*** (0.11)	0.19 (0.16)				
Leader Identity					0.44*** (0.08)	0.01 (0.08)	0.44*** (0.08)	0.11 (0.13)
Var (e. Employability)		0.53*** (0.08)		0.53*** (0.08)		0.51*** (0.08)		0.51*** (0.08)
var(e. Subjective Career Success)		0.35*** (0.06)				0.35*** (0.06)		
var(e. Career Satisfaction)				0.89*** (0.14)				0.89*** (0.14)
Observations	81	81	81	81	81	81	81	81

Standard errors in parentheses \*\*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*  $p < 0.1$

For H4b, the SEM model analysis demonstrated that leader self-efficacy significantly predicted employability ( $b = .54$ ,  $SE = .11$ ,  $p < .001$ ). The direct effect of leader self-efficacy on career satisfaction was not significant ( $b = .19$ ,  $SE = .16$ ,  $p > .05$ ), which suggests that leader self-efficacy does not directly influence career satisfaction when employability is considered as a mediator. The direct effect of employability on career satisfaction was significant ( $b = .62$ ,  $SE = .14$ ,  $p < .001$ ). This indicates that employability significantly predicts career satisfaction. These results demonstrate that employability fully mediates the relationship between leader self-efficacy and career satisfaction. Leader self-efficacy influences career satisfaction entirely through its effect on employability..

The results of the mediation analysis robustly supported Hypothesis 4 that employability plays a substantial role in mediating the relationship between leader self-efficacy and both subjective career success and career satisfaction. Although leader self-efficacy did not have a direct significant impact on career satisfaction or subjective career success, its influence was wholly mediated by employability, emphasizing the critical role of employability in translating leader self-efficacy into positive career outcomes.

To test the hypotheses regarding the mediating role of employability in the relationships between leader identity and subjective career success as well as career satisfaction (H5), the same SEM approach was used for the analysis.

For H5a related to employability's mediating effect in the relationship between leader self-efficacy and subjective career success, the analysis revealed that leader identity had a significant positive effect on employability ( $b = .44$ ,  $SE = .08$ ,  $p < .001$ ), which indicates that higher leader identity is associated with higher employability. The

direct effect of leader identity on subjective career success was not significant ( $b = .01$ ,  $SE = .08$ ,  $p > .05$ ). This suggests that leader identity does not directly influence subjective career success when employability is considered as a mediator. However, the direct effect of employability on subjective career success was significant ( $b = .56$ ,  $SE = .09$ ,  $p < .001$ ), which shows that higher employability is associated with higher subjective career success. This pattern of significant and non-significant pathways indicates a significant indirect effect of leader identity on subjective career success through employability, supporting the mediation hypothesis.

H5b proposes that employability plays a mediating role in the relationship between leader identity and career satisfaction. The SEM analysis demonstrated that leader identity significantly predicted employability ( $b = .44$ ,  $SE = .08$ ,  $p < .001$ ). The direct effect of leader identity on career satisfaction was not significant ( $b = .11$ ,  $SE = .13$ ,  $p > .05$ ), which indicates that leader identity does not directly impact career satisfaction when considering employability as a mediator. The direct effect of employability on career satisfaction was significant ( $b = .64$ ,  $SE = .15$ ,  $p < .001$ ). This suggests that higher employability is associated with higher career satisfaction. Based on these results, there is evidence of a significant indirect effect of leader identity on career satisfaction through employability, confirming the mediating role proposed in the hypothesis.

These results confirm that employability fully mediates the relationships between leader identity and both subjective career success and career satisfaction. Therefore, hypotheses H5a and H5b are both supported.

## Examining the Moderating Role of Work Centrality, MTL, and Job Tenure

Hypotheses 6a, 6b, and 6c address the moderating role of three different variables: work centrality, motivation to lead, and job tenure. A series of analyses using Andrew Hays' PROCESS Model 7 were conducted to test the hypotheses, with detailed results below.

H6a proposes that work centrality moderates the indirect effect of leader identity and leader self-efficacy on subjective career success and career satisfaction through employability, such that the mediating effect of employability is stronger when work centrality is high. Regarding leader self-efficacy, the interaction between leader self-efficacy and work centrality did not significantly predict employability ( $b = 0.0740$ ,  $SE = 0.0953$ ,  $p = .4398$ ). The main effects of leader self-efficacy ( $b = 0.3069$ ,  $SE = 0.3227$ ,  $p = .3446$ ) and work centrality ( $b = -0.4659$ ,  $SE = 0.5542$ ,  $p = .4032$ ) were not significant. The conditional indirect effects of leader self-efficacy on career satisfaction through employability varied by levels of work centrality, but the index of moderated mediation was not significant (Index = 0.0458, BootCI [-.1250, .2206]), indicating no significant moderated mediation. Similar results were found for subjective career success. The interaction between leader self-efficacy and work centrality did not significantly predict employability ( $b = 0.0740$ ,  $SE = 0.0953$ ,  $p = .4398$ ). The indirect effect of leader self-efficacy on subjective career success through employability varied by work centrality, but the moderated mediation was not significant (Index = 0.0408, BootCI [-.0971, .2003]).

Regarding leader identity, the interaction between leader identity and work centrality did not significantly predict employability ( $b = -0.0055$ ,  $SE = 0.0745$ ,  $p = .9410$ ). The main effects of leader identity ( $b = 0.4673$ ,  $SE = 0.2496$ ,  $p = .0650$ ) and

work centrality ( $b = -0.0281$ ,  $SE = 0.4189$ ,  $p = .9466$ ) were not significant. The indirect effects of leader identity on subjective career success through employability also varied by levels of work centrality, but the index of moderated mediation was not significant (Index =  $-0.0031$ , BootCI  $[-.0772, .0985]$ ). For career satisfaction, the analysis showed no significant interaction effect of leader identity and work centrality on employability ( $b = -0.0055$ ,  $SE = 0.0745$ ,  $p = .9410$ ). The indirect effects of leader identity on career satisfaction through employability varied by levels of work centrality, but the index of moderated mediation was not significant (Index =  $-0.0035$ , BootCI  $[-.0984, .1080]$ ).

Table 5.3.7 Summary of Hypothesis Testing Result H6a

Hypothesis	Analysis Path	Findings	Support Status
H6a	Leader Self-Efficacy × Work Centrality → Employability → Career Satisfaction	No significant moderation effect on employability ( $b = .0740$ , $p = .4398$ ). Indirect effect varies by WC_M, but moderated mediation not significant (Index = $.0458$ , BootCI $[-.1250, .2206]$ ).	Not Supported
H6a	Leader Self-Efficacy × Work Centrality → Employability → Subjective Career Success	No significant moderation effect on employability ( $b = .0740$ , $p = .4398$ ). Indirect effect varies by WC_M, but moderated mediation not significant (Index = $.0408$ , BootCI $[-.0971, .2003]$ ).	Not Supported
H6a	Leader Identity × Work Centrality → Employability → Subjective Career Success	No significant moderation effect on employability ( $b = -.0055$ , $p = .9410$ ). Indirect effect varies by WC_M, but moderated mediation not significant (Index = $-.0031$ , BootCI $[-.0772, .0985]$ ).	Not Supported
H6a	Leader Identity × Work Centrality → Employability → Career Satisfaction	No significant moderation effect on employability ( $b = -.0055$ , $p = .9410$ ). Indirect effect varies by WC_M, but moderated mediation not significant (Index = $-.0035$ , BootCI $[-.0984, .1080]$ ).	Not Supported

In summary, work centrality did not significantly moderate the relationships between leader self-efficacy or leader identity and employability, subjective career success, or career satisfaction. H6a is not supported.

H6b hypothesizes that motivation to lead moderates the indirect effect of leader identity and leader self-efficacy on subjective career success and career satisfaction

through employability, such that the mediating effect of employability is stronger when motivation to lead is high.

For the relationship between leader self-efficacy and employability, the direct effect of LSE on employability was not significant ( $b = -.5807$ ,  $SE = .7075$ ,  $p = .4143$ ). The interaction with motivation to lead was not significant (Int\_1:  $b = .2259$ ,  $p = .1652$ ). However, there was a conditional indirect effect of leader self-efficacy on career satisfaction through employability, which increased with higher levels of motivation to lead. The moderated mediation index was not statistically significant (Index = .1398, BootSE = .0992, BootCI [-.0666, .3270]). Similarly, the interaction effect between leader self-efficacy and motivation to lead on employability's effect on subjective career success was not significant (Int\_1:  $b = .2259$ ,  $p = .1652$ ). The conditional indirect effect of leader self-efficacy on subjective career success via employability also varied with levels of motivation to lead, but moderated mediation was not significant (Index = .1245, BootSE = .0920, BootCI [-.0473, .3125]).

For leader identity, the direct effect of leader identity on employability was not significant ( $b = -.0923$ ,  $SE = .6645$ ,  $p = .8898$ ). The interaction effect between leader identity and MTL on employability was also not significant ( $b = .0978$ ,  $SE = .1512$ ,  $p = .5196$ ). The conditional indirect effect of leader identity on career satisfaction through employability varied with levels of MTL, with the index of moderated mediation not being significant (Index = .0626, BootSE = .0913, BootCI [-.1414, .2251]). Similarly, the interaction between leader identity and MTL on employability did not significantly influence employability ( $b = .0978$ ,  $SE = .1512$ ,  $p = .5196$ ). Although the conditional indirect effect varied with levels of MTL, the index of moderated mediation was not

significant (Index = .0548, BootSE = .0810, BootCI [-.1160, .2086]), indicating that MTL did not significantly moderate the indirect effect of leader identity on subjective career success through employability.

Table 5.3.8 Summary of Hypothesis Testing Result H6b

Hypothesis	Analysis Path	Findings	Support Status
H6b	Leader Self-Efficacy × Motivation to Lead → Employability → Career Satisfaction	No significant moderation effect on employability (b = .2259, p = .1652). Indirect effect varies by MTL, but moderated mediation is not significant (Index = .1398, BootCI [-.0666, .3270]).	Not Supported
H6b	Leader Self-Efficacy × Motivation to Lead → Employability → Subjective Career Success	No significant moderation effect on employability (b = .2259, p = .1652). Indirect effect varies by MTL, but moderated mediation is not significant (Index = .1245, BootCI [-.0473, .3125]).	Not Supported
H6b	Leader Identity × Motivation to Lead → Employability → Subjective Career Success	No significant moderation effect on employability (b = .0978, p = .5196). Indirect effect varies by MTL, but moderated mediation is not significant (Index = .0548, BootCI [-.1160, .2086]).	Not Supported
H6b	Leader Identity × Motivation to Lead → Employability → Career Satisfaction	No significant moderation effect on employability (b = .0978, p = .5196). Indirect effect varies by MTL, but moderated mediation is not significant (Index = .0626, BootCI [-.1414, .2251]).	Not Supported

To further understand the effect of the three different dimensions of motivation to lead in the indirect relationship between leadership self-views and the career outcomes, altogether twelve PROCESS Macro Model 7 tests were conducted respectively for the moderated mediation effect of affective MTL, social normative MTL, and non-calculative MTL. In every model the mediation held: at the median level of affective MTL the leader identity → employability → career satisfaction indirect effect was  $b = 0.206$ , 95 % CI = 0.058–0.436, while the leader identity → employability → subjective career success effect reached  $b = 0.217$ , CI = 0.068–0.429; by contrast, all direct effects of leader identity or leader self-efficacy on career satisfaction or subjective career success

were non-significant ( $|t| \leq 1.18, p \geq .24$ ). Moderation tests revealed that affective and social-normative motives did not alter the first-stage  $X \rightarrow E$  link ( $|\beta| \leq 0.06, p \geq .57$ ; indices of moderated mediation all spanned zero). A different picture emerged for non-calculative MTL: its interaction with leader self-efficacy on employability was significant ( $\beta = 0.269, SE = 0.122, t = 2.21, p = .03, 95\% CI = 0.027-0.511$ ). Accordingly, the conditional indirect effect of leader self-efficacy on career success rose from  $b = 0.209, CI = 0.038-0.467$  at low ( $-1$  SD) non-calculative MTL to  $b = 0.468, CI = 0.187-0.814$  at high ( $+1$  SD); the same gradient appeared for subjective career success ( $0.187 \rightarrow 0.417$ ). Even so, the indices of moderated mediation for these models (e.g., career success: index =  $0.166, CI = -0.011-0.348$ ) narrowly overlapped zero, suggesting a trend rather than definitive evidence of moderated mediation. In sum, employability is the pivotal mediator through which leadership self-views foster better career outcomes, and this mechanism is generally robust across leadership motives - becoming markedly stronger only when high leader self-efficacy is paired with an altruistic, non-calculative willingness to lead.

Overall, motivation to lead did not significantly moderate the direct effects of leader identity and leader self-efficacy on employability, career satisfaction, and subjective career success. In most cases, there were indications of varying conditional indirect effects, but these did not achieve statistical significance. Partial, tentative support appears only when high leader self-efficacy is paired with a selfless, non-calculative willingness to lead, which modestly amplifies the employability path. Therefore, H6b is largely not supported.

H6c states that job tenure moderates the indirect effect of leader identity and leader self-efficacy on subjective career success and career satisfaction through

employability, such that the mediating effect of employability is stronger when job tenure is longer.

Table 5.3.9 Summary of Hypothesis Testing Result H6c

Hypothesis	Analysis Path	Findings	Support Status
H6c	Leader Self-Efficacy × Tenure → Employability → Career Satisfaction	Job tenure significantly moderates the indirect relationship between leader self-efficacy and career satisfaction via employability. The moderation effect (b = .0537, p = .0418) shows conditional indirect effects that strengthen with tenure: Tenure = 2 years (b = .2262, BootCI [.0440, .4720]), 5 years (b = .3259, BootCI [.1240, .5849]), 10 years (b = .4920, BootCI [.1549, .8515]). Index of moderated mediation: .0332, BootSE = .0193, BootCI [-.0067, .0692]. Note: Confidence interval narrowly includes zero, indicating marginal significance.	Marginally Supported
	Leader Self-Efficacy × Tenure → Employability → Subjective Career Success	Job tenure marginally moderates the indirect effect of leader self-efficacy on subjective career success via employability. The moderation effect (b = .0537, p = .0418) shows increasing conditional indirect effects: Tenure = 2 years (b = .2015, BootCI [.0407, .3935]), 5 years (b = .2903, BootCI [.1306, .4788]), 10 years (b = .4382, BootCI [.1688, .7020]). Index of moderated mediation: .0296, BootSE = .0163, BootCI [-.0056, .0594]. Note: Confidence interval narrowly includes zero, indicating marginal significance.	Marginally Supported
	Leader Identity × Tenure → Employability → Subjective Career Success	No significant moderation effect of job tenure on the relationship between leader identity and employability influences subjective career satisfaction. Conditional indirect effects increase with tenure but are not significantly moderated: Tenure = 2 years (b = .2042, BootCI [.0673, .3629]), 5 years (b = .2393, BootCI [.1202, .3844]), 10 years (b = .2979, BootCI [.1326, .5102]). Index of moderated mediation: .0117, BootSE = .0124, BootLLCI = -.0134, BootULCI = .0378.	Not Supported
	Leader Identity × Tenure → Employability → Career Satisfaction	Job tenure does not significantly moderate the indirect relationship between leader identity and career satisfaction via employability. Conditional indirect effects vary, but the moderation is not significant: Tenure = 2 years (b = .2333, BootCI [.0741, .4555]), 5 years (b = .2735, BootCI [.1161, .4856]), 10 years (b = .3404, BootCI [.1323, .6442]). Index of moderated mediation: .0134, BootSE = .0150, BootLLCI = -.0164, BootULCI = .0453.	Not Supported

The moderation analysis examined how job tenure influences the relationships between leader identity, leader self-efficacy, and career outcomes, specifically employability, subjective career success, and career satisfaction. Job tenure was treated as

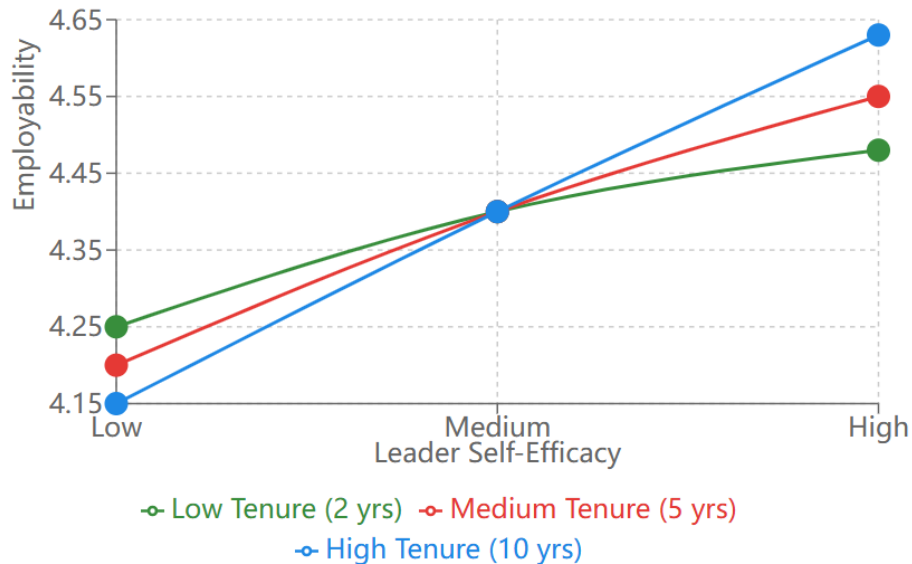
a continuous moderator variable, with conditional effects examined at low (2 years), moderate (5 years), and high (10 years) levels of tenure.

For leader Self-Efficacy, the indirect effect of leader self-efficacy on career satisfaction through employability was significantly moderated by job tenure. At low tenure (2 years), the conditional indirect effect was significant (Effect = 0.2262, BootSE = 0.1092, BootLLCI = 0.0440, BootULCI = 0.4720). The effect remained significant at moderate tenure (5 years) with an increased effect size (Effect = 0.3259, BootSE = 0.1174, BootLLCI = 0.1240, BootULCI = 0.5849). At high tenure (10 years), the effect was also significant and further increased (Effect = 0.4920, BootSE = 0.1783, BootLLCI = 0.1549, BootULCI = 0.8515). The index of moderated mediation was positive (Index = 0.0332, BootSE = 0.0193, BootLLCI = -0.0067, BootULCI = 0.0692), indicating that the strength of the mediation through employability increased with tenure, although the overall moderated mediation effect was marginally significant. For subjective career success, the conditional indirect effects of leader self-efficacy through employability were similarly moderated by job tenure. At low tenure, the effect was significant (Effect = 0.2015, BootSE = 0.0888, BootLLCI = 0.0407, BootULCI = 0.3935), and at moderate tenure, it increased and remained significant (Effect = 0.2903, BootSE = 0.0892, BootLLCI = 0.1306, BootULCI = 0.4788). The effect was strongest at high tenure (Effect = 0.4382, BootSE = 0.1367, BootLLCI = 0.1688, BootULCI = 0.7020). The index of moderated mediation was also positive (Index = 0.0296, BootSE = 0.0163, BootLLCI = -0.0056, BootULCI = 0.0594), suggesting a moderated mediation effect, albeit marginally significant.

Regarding the association between leader identity and career satisfaction, the conditional indirect effects of the relationship between leader identity and career satisfaction through employability were substantial across all levels of tenure. For low tenure (2 years), the indirect effect of leader identity on career satisfaction through employability is significant (Effect = 0.2333, BootSE = 0.0993), with a confidence interval (BootLLCI = 0.0741, BootULCI = 0.4555) that does not include zero. This indicates that for individuals with low tenure, leader identity significantly influences career satisfaction via employability. For moderate tenure (5 years), similarly, the indirect effect remains significant for individuals with moderate tenure (Effect = 0.2735, BootSE = 0.0959), and the confidence interval (BootLLCI = 0.1161, BootULCI = 0.4856) again does not include zero. This suggests a robust relationship between leader identity and career satisfaction through employability at moderate tenure levels. For high tenure (10 years), individuals with high tenure, the indirect effect is also significant (Effect = 0.3404, BootSE = 0.1306), with the confidence interval (BootLLCI = 0.1323, BootULCI = 0.6442) remaining above zero. This shows that even at high levels of tenure, the relationship persists and strengthens.

As illustrated in Figure 5.3.1 below, the interaction effect demonstrates that while all tenure groups show positive relationships between leader self-efficacy and employability, individuals with longer tenure (10 years) exhibit the strongest relationship (steepest slope). The lines converge at low levels of leader self-efficacy but diverge significantly at high levels, with high-tenure individuals showing employability scores of approximately 4.62 compared to 4.47 for low-tenure individuals when leader self-efficacy is high.

Figure 5.3.1 Interaction Effect of Job Tenure Between Leader Self-Efficacy and Employability



In conclusion, these findings suggest that job tenure plays a marginal role in moderating the indirect effects of leader self-efficacy on career satisfaction and subjective career success through employability, particularly at higher levels of tenure. However, the statistical significance is marginal as confidence intervals narrowly include zero. Job tenure did not significantly moderate the indirect effects of leader identity on these outcomes. Thus, H6c receives marginal support for leader self-efficacy pathways but is not supported for leader identity pathways.

### Testing the Moderation Effect of Gender

H7 proposes that gender moderates the direct relationship between the independent variables (leader identity and leader self-efficacy) and the dependent variables (career satisfaction and subjective career success), such that these relationships will be stronger for men than for women. Four separate analyses were conducted using Model 5 of PROCESS Macro for SPSS Version 4.1 by Hayes to test the hypotheses. Leader identity and leader self-efficacy are predictors (X), employability is a mediator

(M), and gender is a moderator (W). The outcomes (Y) were career satisfaction and subjective career success

For career satisfaction, the interaction between leader identity and gender significantly predicted career satisfaction (Effect = 0.547, SE = 0.234,  $p = 0.022$ ). Specifically, leader identity did not significantly predict career satisfaction for males (Effect = -0.120, SE = 0.157,  $p = 0.448$ ), but had a significant positive effect for females (Effect = 0.427, SE = 0.189,  $p = 0.027$ ). The indirect effect via employability was significant (Effect = 0.308, BootSE = 0.096, BootLLCI = 0.148, BootULCI = 0.523). For subjective career success, gender did not significantly moderate the relationship between leader identity and subjective career success (Effect = 0.050, SE = 0.153,  $p = 0.746$ ). The direct effect of leader identity on subjective career success was not significant, and the indirect effect through employability was significant (Effect = 0.252, BootSE = 0.071, BootLLCI = 0.133, BootULCI = 0.410). This finding directly contradicts H7's prediction that relationships would be stronger for men, as the significant positive relationship was observed only among women.

The results provide no support for H7. While gender did moderate the relationship between leader identity and career satisfaction, this moderation occurred in the opposite direction to what was hypothesized.

Regarding the hypothesized moderating effect of gender in the relationship between leader self-efficacy and career satisfaction, as well as subjective career success. The analysis results show that the interaction between leader self-efficacy and gender was not significant (Effect = -0.146, SE = 0.199,  $p = 0.465$ ) for subjective career success. The indirect effect through employability was significant (Effect = 0.294, BootSE = 0.091,

BootLLCI = 0.133, BootULCI = 0.486). For career satisfaction, the interaction effect was also not significant (Effect = 0.053, SE = 0.314,  $p = 0.868$ ). The indirect effect through employability was significant (Effect = 0.330, BootSE = 0.121, BootLLCI = 0.130, BootULCI = 0.590).

Table 5.3.10 Summary of Hypothesis Testing Result H7a and H7b

Hypothesis	Analysis Path	Findings	Support Status
H7a	Leader Identity × Gender → Career Satisfaction	Significant moderation effect of gender (Interaction Effect = 0.547, $p = 0.022$ ). Indirect effect via Employability is significant (Effect = 0.308, BootLLCI = 0.148, BootULCI = 0.523).	Not supported
H7a	Leader Identity × Gender → Subjective Career Success	No significant moderation effect (Interaction Effect = 0.050, $p = 0.746$ ). Indirect effect via Employability is significant (Effect = 0.252, BootLLCI = 0.133, BootULCI = 0.410).	Not Supported
H7b	Leader Self-Efficacy × Gender → Subjective Career Success	No significant moderation effect (Interaction Effect = -0.146, $p = 0.465$ ). Indirect effect via Employability is significant (Effect = 0.294, BootLLCI = 0.133, BootULCI = 0.486).	Not Supported
H7b	Leader Self-Efficacy × Gender → Career Satisfaction	No significant moderation effect (Interaction Effect = 0.053, $p = 0.868$ ). Indirect effect via Employability is significant (Effect = 0.330, BootLLCI = 0.130, BootULCI = 0.590).	Not Supported

Given these results, H7b is not supported, as gender does not moderate the relationships between leader self-efficacy and either career satisfaction or subjective career success.

### 5.3.6 Summary

Study 3 tested six hypotheses from hypothesis two to hypothesis seven (H2 to H7) through multiple regression, structural equation modeling (SEM), and Andrew Hayes' Process Macro. The results provide strong support for the direct effects of both leader identity and leader self-efficacy on self-perceived employability, subjective career success, and career satisfaction as proposed by H2 and H3. For H4 and H5, mediation analyses through SEM indicate the statistical significance of employability in mediating the relationships between both leadership self-views and the career outcomes. For H6,

which proposes the moderating effect of the three variables, work centrality (H6a) and motivation to lead (H6b) do not demonstrate significant moderation effects. However, job tenure significantly moderates the relationship between leader self-efficacy and career outcomes (H6c), with effects strengthening at higher tenure levels. For H7, which relates to the moderation effect of gender, results show that while gender did moderate the relationship between leader identity and career satisfaction, this occurred in the opposite direction to what was hypothesized, with significant effects found only for women rather than men, thereby contradicting rather than supporting the hypothesis. Please see Table 5.3.11 below for the summary of the testing results.

Study 3 extends the research findings to a more diverse population. Samples for Studies 1 and 2 were registered part-time mid-career Finance MBA. Study 3's alumni sample includes individuals from various programs, career stages, and industries. This enhances the generalizability of the findings. Study 3 confirms the core findings from both previous studies. Leader identity and leader self-efficacy were consistently positively associated with career outcomes through employability mediation. This consistent pattern across three independent samples strengthens confidence in these relationships. In addition, Study 3 included two additional moderators, including job tenure and work centrality. Job tenure was found to moderate relationships. The benefits of leader self-efficacy strengthen with increasing organizational tenure. This finding complements Study 2's results that leadership self-views can develop over time. Besides, gender moderation operates differently than hypothesized. This challenges assumptions about gender differences in leadership development. Taking together, the three studies provide converging evidence from multiple methodological approaches. Leadership self-

views are positively and significantly associated with career outcomes. They operate primarily through perceived employability. The findings collectively have provided both theoretical understanding and practical guidance.

Table 5.3.11 Summary of Study 3 Testing Results

Hypothesis	Sub-Hypotheses	Description	Key Finding	Support Status
H2	H2a	Leader identity → Self-perceived employability	$\beta = 0.47^{***}$	Supported
	H2b	Leader identity → Subjective career success	$\beta = 0.24^{**}$	Supported
	H2c	Leader identity → Career satisfaction	$\beta = 0.43^{***}$	Supported
H3	H3a	Leader self-efficacy → Self-perceived employability	$\beta = 0.55^{***}$	Supported
	H3b	Leader self-efficacy → Subjective career success	$\beta = 0.27^{**}$	Supported
	H3c	Leader self-efficacy → Career satisfaction	$\beta = 0.49^{***}$	Supported
H4	H4a	Leader self-efficacy → Employability → Subjective career success	Indirect effect = 0.30, CI [0.14, 0.49]	Supported
	H4b	Leader self-efficacy → Employability → Career satisfaction	Indirect effect = 0.33, CI [0.13, 0.60]	Supported
H5	H5a	Leader identity → Employability → Subjective career success	Indirect effect = 0.25, CI [0.13, 0.40]	Supported
	H5b	Leader identity → Employability → Career satisfaction	Indirect effect = 0.28, CI [0.13, 0.50]	Supported
H6	H6a	Work centrality moderates the indirect effect of leader identity and leader self-efficacy on career outcomes.	All interaction effects $p > .05$	Not Supported
	H6b	Motivation to lead moderates the indirect effect of leader identity and leader self-efficacy on career outcomes	All interaction effects $p > .05$	Not Supported
	H6c	Job tenure moderates the indirect effect of leader identity and leader self-efficacy on career outcomes.	Significant for Leader Self-Efficacy only ( $b = 0.05, p < .05$ )	Marginally Supported
H7	H7a	Gender moderates the relationship between leader identity and career outcomes (predicted to be stronger for men than women)	Significant moderation for Career Satisfaction ( $b = 0.55, p < .05$ ), but the effect was stronger for women than men (opposite to hypothesis prediction). No moderation for Subjective Career Success.	Not Supported (Contradicted)
	H7b	Gender moderates the relationship between leader self-efficacy and career outcomes (predicted to be stronger for men than women)	No significant moderation effects for either career satisfaction (interaction effect = 0.053, $p = .868$ ) or subjective career success (interaction effect = -0.146, $p = .465$ )	Not Supported

Note: CI = 95% Confidence Interval. \* $p < .05$ . \*\* $p < .01$ . \*\*\* $p < .001$ .

## **Chapter Six: Discussions and Conclusion**

This thesis investigated the impact of leadership self-views as reflected by leader self-efficacy and leader identity on a variety of career outcomes, including employability and career development indicators, measured through subjective career success and career satisfaction, in three separate studies. The hypotheses tested were designed to identify both direct and indirect effects, as well as the role of employability as a mediator. In addition, with a time-lagged design, study 2 specifically examined how participants' leader identity and leader self-efficacy evolved after the part-time MBA study, with data collected at two different time points. This research provides compelling evidence that leadership self-views, specifically leader identity and leader self-efficacy, significantly enhance career outcomes through their impact on perceived employability. Across three studies with Chinese MBA students and alumni, both leader identity and leader self-efficacy consistently predicted higher levels of employability, career satisfaction, and subjective career success, with employability serving as a key mediating mechanism that translates leadership self-perceptions into tangible career benefits.

The key findings of the research across the three studies are summarized below, followed by practical implications and directions for future research. Please see Table 6.1 for the consolidated hypotheses and testing results across three studies.

### **6.1 Leader Identity and Career Outcomes**

The research has demonstrated that leader identity is consistently related to career-related indicators across three different study samples. The findings support the theoretical propositions by Lord and Hall (2005) that leader identity serves as a foundational element for leadership development. Studies 1 and 3 use a cross-sectional

design. The study findings have consistently shown that there is a strong positive correlation between leader identity and important career outcomes, as reflected through employability, career satisfaction, and subjective career success. Identity influences motivation, meaning-making, commitment, decision-making, behavioral action, leadership, interpersonal dynamics, and organizational collaboration (Sveningsson & Alvesson, 2003). The development of leadership identities would increase an individual's motivation to pursue new leadership endeavors, thereby generating new opportunities for the development of additional leadership skills and identity enhancement (Lord & Hall, 2005). The study results support the idea that people who have a strong sense of leader identity are more confident and effective in demonstrating leadership competencies that are crucial for career advancement and employability (Miscenko & Day, 2016; Epitropaki et al., 2017). The *t*-test analysis in Study 2 shows that participants' leader identity and leader self-efficacy have both shown statistically significant improvement six months after the MBA program. In addition, the cross-lagged analysis indicated both temporal stability and developmental growth in leader identity, with leader identity at Time 1 significantly predicting leader identity at Time 2, while also showing significant improvement in mean levels over the six-month period. This finding aligns with identity theory's premise that identities, once formed, become relatively stable self-schemas that guide behavior and perception (Lord and Hall, 2005).

Table 6.1 Consolidated Hypotheses and Testing Results across 3 Studies

Hypothesis	Relationship Tested	Study 1 (Cross-Sectional)	Study 2 (Time-lagged)	Study 3 (Cross-Sectional)	Result Summary
H1	<b>Impact of MBA:</b> Do Identity & Efficacy grow?	Not Tested	Supported: Both increased. Identity is stable; Efficacy is dynamic.	Not Tested	Supported
H2 & H3	<b>Direct Effects:</b> Leadership Self-Views → Career Outcomes	Supported: Significant positive effects across all paths.	Supported: Current (Time 2) views predict outcomes.	Supported: Strong predictors for experienced alumni.	Consistently Supported
H4 & H5	<b>Mediation:</b> Via Employability	Supported: • LI: Full Mediation • LSE: Partial Mediation	Supported: Partial Mediation for both variables.	Supported: Full Mediation	Consistently Supported
H6b	<b>Moderation:</b> Motivation to Lead (MTL)	Partially Supported: Mixed results - high motivation strengthened the Identity path (b=0.19).	Not Supported: Reverse effect (High motivation weakened Identity path).	Not Supported: Null effect. Exception: Non-Calculative MTL amplified Efficacy.	Mixed / Context Dependent
H6a / H6c	<b>Other Moderators:</b> Work Centrality & Tenure	Not Tested	Not Tested	H6a (Work): Not Supported. H6c (Tenure): Marginally Supported (Experience amplifies Efficacy).	Tenure Matters
H7	<b>Moderation:</b> Gender (Male Advantage)	Not Supported: Refuted (Efficacy significant only for Females).	Partially Supported: Male Advantage found for Leader Identity.	Not Supported: Refuted (Female Advantage found for Identity).	Largely Not Supported

The research empirically examines the process of identity work from the dimension of leader identity. Identity work refers to the activities individuals engage in to form, strengthen, revise, or repair their identities (Sveningsson & Alvesson, 2003). In study 2, the significant increase in participants' leader identity over the six-month period empirically validates that participants' sense of their leader identity strengthened over time. Besides, the research provides empirical evidence that business school settings could effectively serve as identity workspaces by providing managers with opportunities to contemplate, experiment, and cultivate their identities (Petriglieri & Petriglieri, 2010). The study showed a statistically significant improvement in leader identity from Time 1 to Time 2 over the six months after participation in the MBA program. Although there are possible confounding variables such as work experience, family events, etc., for mid-career part-time MBA students, the results suggest that the MBA program may have contributed to their leader identity development, though causal attribution requires further investigation with control groups.

However, the time-lagged evidence provides a more complex picture of the relationship between leader identity and career outcomes. In study 2's six-month time-lagged panel, the cross-lagged analysis showed that a participant's leader identity prior to the MBA program did not directly predict their career satisfaction or subjective success that were measured six months later (controlling for concurrent identity levels). Initial leader identity had no significant direct effect on career satisfaction or subjective success at Time 2. Rather, it was leader identity measured at Time 2 that was positively associated with concurrent career outcomes. This indicates that leader identity's influence on career outcomes appears to be mostly simultaneous. When an individual's leader

identity strengthens, he/she might pursue career opportunities or interpret career experiences more positively, which will lead to subjective satisfaction. In the meantime, experiencing career success could further affirm one's identity as a leader. These findings align with identity development theories that suggest that identity is dynamic – its influence on outcomes is strongest when the identity is actively salient and supported by the environment (Lord & Hall, 2005; Miscenko et al., 2017).

The research further demonstrates that leader identity contributes to career outcomes primarily through its effect on self-perceived employability. When employability was accounted for as a mediator, the direct relationship between leader identity and career success outcomes diminished. This means that having a strong leader identity by itself is beneficial, but much of that benefit is realized because a strong identity helps individuals feel and present themselves as more employable, which in turn drives career satisfaction and success. The result supports and extends prior studies that found leader identity to be linked with leadership effectiveness and career progress (Epitropaki et al., 2017; Smith et al., 2020).

## **6.2 Leader Self-Efficacy and Career Outcomes**

The research provides robust evidence for the consistent role of leader self-efficacy on career outcomes. Leader self-efficacy has a statistically significant influence on all three key career variables, including employability, subjective career success, and career satisfaction across all three studies. Notably, in study 2, where leader self-efficacy was measured twice, the leader self-efficacy values at both time points consistently associated with positive effects on employability and other career outcomes, which shows that the effect of leader self-efficacy on participants' career-related perceptions is quite

stable over time. The findings are consistent with empirical studies that self-efficacy and leader self-efficacy are critical determinants of performance and career successes in various sectors and contexts, including education, leadership, and workplace performance (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998; Ballout, 2009; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2008; Locke et al., 1984; Lyons & Bandura, 2019; Abele & Spurk, 2009; Lent & Brown, 2006b). When people have confidence in their leadership capabilities, they are more likely to pursue challenging roles, showcase their skills, and persist in the face of career obstacles, all of which can lead to better career outcomes.

On the other hand, similar to leader identity, the time-lagged analysis reveals that leader self-efficacy at Time 1 did not significantly predict Time 2 career satisfaction or subjective success once current self-efficacy was considered. Instead, Time 2 leader self-efficacy was a strong concurrent predictor of career satisfaction and subjective success that were measured at Time 2. This indicates that while believing in one's leadership ability is crucial for feeling successful and satisfied in one's career, it is largely one's present level of self-efficacy that matters for current career evaluations. If a participant's leadership confidence grew over the course of the MBA program, their sense of career success also grew accordingly.

Importantly, like leader identity, leader self-efficacy was found to influence career outcomes in part through employability. In the mediation analyses, self-efficacy had a significant indirect effect on career satisfaction and subjective success via self-perceived employability. Although in contrast to leader identity, this mediation was partial rather than full. Leader self-efficacy still maintained a direct positive effect on career outcomes, even after accounting for the boost to employability. This indicates that confidence in

one's ability to take leadership roles has some unique direct advantages beyond just making one feel employable. A highly efficacious leader likely exhibits proactive career behaviors and adaptability that directly enhance work-related performance (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998), which leads to career satisfaction.

### **6.3 Changes in Leader Identity and Leader Self-Efficacy Over Time**

The research has enriched the literature on the interconnectedness between leader identity and leader self-efficacy. A strengthened leader identity often enhances leader self-efficacy, and vice versa, through increased leadership motivation and experiences (Lord and Hall, 2005). Study 2 adopted a time-lagged design to explore the changes and interactions between leader identity and leader self-efficacy over six months after participation in an MBA program. According to Day and Dragoni (2014), both constructs are the critical proximal leadership development indicators at the individual level, together with self-awareness and leadership knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSA). The results from study 2 provide clear support for the research hypothesis that both leader identity and leader self-efficacy increased significantly over the six months after the start of the MBA program. Paired-sample tests comparing the pre-program (Time 1) and mid-program (Time 2) scores showed a statistical rise in both constructs, indicating that even the first half-year of the MBA experience had a measurable developmental impact. These findings are consistent with the literature that intensive educational or training experiences can stimulate within-person improvement in leadership-related self-concepts (Middleton et al., 2019). This identity is formed through interactions, reflections, and experiences in a variety of contexts (Day & Harrison, 2007). Business schools, with a safe and supportive environment, are considered identity workplaces by providing

managers with opportunities to contemplate, experiment, and cultivate their identities (Petriglieri & Petriglieri, 2010). These environments provide a nurturing context for individuals to engage in identity work, which includes the mental, emotional, and social procedures necessary to establish and solidify a leader's identity (Ibarra et al., 2014). The current research has demonstrated that participants' leader identity and self-efficacy can experience statistically significant growth six months after participation in a well-structured MBA program. This addresses a gap highlighted by Vogel et al. (2021), that there is a lack of understanding of how quickly leadership identity and competencies can evolve.

The cross-lagged analysis in study 2 has revealed a unidirectional relationship between leader identity and leader self-efficacy. Leader identity at Time 1 predicted self-efficacy at Time 2, which suggests a temporal influence of identity on self-efficacy. However, the reverse was not significant. Study participants' initial levels of leader self-efficacy did not predict changes in leader identity over the six-month period, as reflected through a non-significant path from Time 1 leader self-efficacy to Time 2 leader identity. This suggests that an individual's leader identity formation may precede and influence the development of his/her leader self-efficacy beliefs. Participants who entered the program with a stronger leader identity (i.e., already seeing themselves as leaders) tended to show a greater increase in their leadership confidence after six months. This finding suggests a developmental sequence where identity precedes and enables growth in efficacy. If one already identifies as a leader, one might be more open to engaging in leadership tasks or trying out leadership behaviors during the program, which will then

help the individual to accumulate mastery experiences that boost self-efficacy (Hannah et al., 2008).

The business school context of the research provides additional explanation for the identified unidirectional relationship in the time-lagged analysis. MBA participants in selective programs such as the finance MBA examined in this study are surrounded by high-caliber peers who are accomplished professionals. This elite peer environment creates unique self-efficacy dynamics. According to Bandura (1997), vicarious learning is a key source of self-efficacy. Participants observe the good performance of their talented peers in business cases discussions and in leading different team tasks. These observations can enhance self-efficacy when participants perceive themselves as similar to successful peers. However, the same environment triggers comparison processes. Participants evaluate their capabilities against accomplished classmates. For those with initially high self-efficacy, they may experience confidence recalibration based on this new reference group that lead to an updated self-assessment. In contrast, those who initially have lower leader self-efficacy might see areas for improvement through observing others and receiving validation from this accomplished group. This change, which depends on the situation, is different from the more stable nature of leader identity. Identity, as a core part of how we define ourselves, is less affected by comparisons with others. Individuals with stronger leader identities may be more resilient to peer pressure. They maintained self-confidence in their leadership capabilities. In the business school environment, they are motivated to engage in opportunities to further construct their leader identities and self-efficacy in assuming leadership responsibilities through

vicarious learning and mastery experiences (Bandura, 1997; Petriglieri & Petriglieri, 2010).

#### **6.4 Mediating Role of Employability**

The research hypothesizes that employability serves as a key mechanism linking leadership self-views to career success. Employability includes elements of occupational identity, personal adaptability, and social and human capital (Fugate et al., 2004). The findings across all three studies support the hypothesized mediating role of employability in the relationship between leader identity, leader self-efficacy, and career satisfaction as well as subjective career success. Study 1 showed partial mediation for leader identity and full mediation for leader self-efficacy; Study 2 showed partial mediation for both constructs; Study 3 showed full mediation for both constructs. In the heuristic model of employability, Presti & Pluviano (2015) propose three main kinds of antecedents of employability, including training and work experience, dispositions, and life events and circumstances. Training and work experience help to support general human capital, including cognitive skills and academic success. Personal traits and abilities supporting employability include dispositions—that is, resilience, adaptability, and a proactive attitude. Employability’s mediating effects in all three studies suggest that having a strong leader identity contributes to career success primarily by enhancing one’s employability – presumably by motivating behaviors and signals (e.g., skill development, networking, personal branding) that improve how attractive and capable one is in the job market. The results provide empirical evidence for Presti & Pluviano (2015) heuristic model of employability that personal dispositions (such as confidence and identity) and human capital investments (like training) are antecedents of employability, while internal

and external career success is the proximal outcome of employability orientation and activities. The research findings have provided statistical support that leader identity drives individuals to demonstrate leadership competencies (DeRue & Ashford, 2010; Epitropaki et al., 2017), which are highly valued by employers and thus enhance the person's employability. It also enriches the recent studies demonstrating employability to mediate relationships between personal qualities and career outcomes (Ahmed et al., 2019; Elsey et al., 2022). This also contributes to filling the gap noted by Ng et al. (2005), who called for identifying new predictors of career success.

The consistent mediation of employability across all three studies can be explained through identity theory, social cognitive theory, and signaling theory. Identity theory explains why leadership self-views matter for employability. When leadership becomes a central identity, individuals are motivated to develop and display leadership competencies (Lord & Hall, 2005). This development appears in the four dimensions of employability. These dimensions are career identity, personal adaptability, social capital, and human capital (Fugate et al., 2004). Leader self-efficacy operates through a different mechanism. Confidence in leadership abilities reduces perceived barriers to career transitions. This confidence increases willingness to pursue challenging opportunities (Presti & Pluviano, 2015). Both mechanisms enhance employability perceptions. Signaling theory provides additional explanation for the mediation effect. In labor markets, employers cannot directly observe candidates' leadership potential (Spence, 1973). Individuals with strong leader identities and high self-efficacy acquire credible signals of their leadership capabilities. These signals include MBA degrees, leadership project experiences, and executive networks. Confident self-presentation in interviews is

another important signal. These signals reduce information asymmetry and enhance perceived employability. The mediation is partial rather than full in most studies. This indicates that leadership self-views also have direct effects on career outcomes.

Individuals with strong leadership identities may feel more satisfied with their careers. Their self-concept aligns with their work role. This alignment creates psychological meaning independent of employability perceptions.

### **6.5 Moderating Effects of Motivation to Lead, Job Tenure, Gender, and Work Centrality**

The research also hypothesized the moderating effect of different constructs, including motivation to lead, job tenure, gender, and work centrality, in the relationship between the leadership self-views and career outcomes. The findings reveal varied results across different studies.

For motivation to lead, its moderating effect showed inconsistent patterns across studies. In study 1, motivation to lead has a statistically significant impact only on the relationship between leader identity and employability, but it did not significantly moderate the relationship between leader self-efficacy and employability. Specifically, when motivation to lead increases from 3.68 (16th percentile) to 4.99 (84th percentile), the conditional indirect effects of leader identity on subjective career success through employability increased. In Study 2, MTL showed marginally significant moderation effects for leader identity on employability and for leader self-efficacy on career satisfaction and subjective career success. In Study 3, the hypothesis testing results showed no significant moderation effects for MTL on any relationships. Taken together, these results on MTL suggest that motivation to lead plays a role primarily in how

identity is leveraged, rather than how efficacy is leveraged. But this effect appears context-dependent.

The moderation effect of gender has been tested in all three studies with mixed findings. In Study 1, gender didn't moderate the relationship between leader identity and career outcomes (interaction terms  $p > 0.05$ ), but showed marginal moderation for the direct effects of leader self-efficacy on subjective career success and career satisfaction, with significant effects only for females. In Study 2, gender significantly moderated the relationship between leader identity and employability and subjective career success, with stronger effects for males. In Study 3, gender moderated only the relationship between leader identity and career satisfaction, with stronger effects for females. The inconsistent gender moderation effects across studies suggest that the relationship between leadership self-views and career outcomes may vary by context, population, or other unmeasured factors. These mixed findings highlight the complexity of gender dynamics in leadership and career development, particularly in contemporary Chinese business contexts.

The moderation effect of work centrality and job tenure was tested solely in Study 3. Work centrality does not show a statistically significant moderating effect for both leader identity and leader self-efficacy. This indicates that how an individual perceives the importance of a job in their life does not have a statistically significant impact on the relationship between leadership self-views and career-related outcomes in the study. For job tenure, its moderating role between leader self-efficacy and career outcomes is supported, with conditional indirect effects increasing with the increase of the job tenure for both career satisfaction and subjective career success. However, the moderating effect

of job tenure between leader identity and career outcomes is not supported, which means that the duration that an individual is in his/her role does not have a statistically significant influence on the impact of leader identity on career outcomes.

## **6.6 Implications for Practice**

The research adopts a combination of cross-sectional and time-lagged designs in three different studies and offers valuable insights into the relationship between leader identity, leader self-efficacy, and self-perceived career outcomes. The time-lagged findings in study 2 with data collected at two different time points provide evidence suggesting the role of business school as an effective identity workplace with statistically significant improvement of participants' identity as leaders after six months of study in the part-time MBA program. Leadership traits, including leader identity and self-efficacy, have significant positive impacts on participants' self-perceived employability, as well as career satisfaction and subjective career success. The mediation role of employability across all three studies emphasizes its importance as a pathway through which leader characteristics impact career outcomes. With mid-career MBA students and alumni in a stand-alone graduate business school in China as the study population, the study has expanded the research on leader identity evolution and provided empirical evidence regarding the relationship between leadership traits and career outcomes in the Chinese context. The research also enriches leadership theory by studying middle-level managers – a relatively under-researched group in leadership studies (DeChurch et al., 2010). The study results emphasize the need to develop both leader identity and self-efficacy to improve individuals' perceived employability, which in turn plays a vital role in enhancing participants' career satisfaction and subjective career success. The findings

provide initial evidence for the positive effects of leader identity and self-efficacy in a specific Chinese business context (MBA students/alumni in finance), though broader generalizability requires further investigation. The findings also have valuable implications for leadership development programs and curriculum design for both organizations and educational institutes.

The mixed results related to different moderators, including motivation to lead, job tenure, work centrality, and gender, also provide valuable perspectives for both business schools and organizations in leadership training and education to develop more tailored and impactful programs targeting mid-career executives. For example, acknowledging the significance of gender in shaping how leadership is perceived or the effect of work centrality on job satisfaction might result in more focused interventions that foster fairness and involvement across varied groups of learners. Recognizing the influence of age and length of service on career advancement can assist organizations in designing flexible training initiatives that cater to the changing requirements of employees at various career stages. Besides, the mixed findings suggest that interventions designed to enhance leader identity and self-efficacy are likely to yield positive career outcomes, regardless of other moderating factors such as motivation to lead, work centrality, or gender.

## **6.7 Limitations and Future Research**

Although the study offers valuable insights into leader identity development and provides the connection between leadership traits and career-related outcomes, there are some limitations to the research in terms of research design and potential generalizability.

**Research Design** The study adopts a single-group pretest-posttest design and considers the part-time MBA study a leadership development intervention to evaluate its effectiveness through the change of participants' leader identity and leader self-efficacy in study 2. Although the time-lagged data provide statistically significant support for the within-subject improvement of participants' leader identity, the inclusion of a control group would improve the validity of the findings (Collins & Holton, 2004). It is not possible to definitively attribute the increases in leader identity and self-efficacy to the part-time MBA education without a control or comparison group of individuals who are not admitted to the program. Future research could implement a quasi-experimental design, comparing MBA participants with a control group (e.g., those admitted but deferring enrollment, or similar professionals not pursuing graduate education) to more confidently isolate the program's impact. Moreover, experiments or intervention studies, for instance, randomly assigning certain leadership identity exercises to some groups and not others, could provide causal evidence of specific elements that drive identity and efficacy changes.

Besides, the study uses a quantitative approach, with participants' self-reported survey responses as the single data source. The theme of the study is about leadership; participants might be inclined to provide socially desirable responses that negatively impact the validity of the study (Brinkmann & Kavle, 2005). This single-source, self-report methodology may have inflated correlations through common method variance. Future studies might include more data sources, including qualitative interviews, as well as some objective measures, including salary and position rank, to triangulate the study findings to enhance the reliability and trustworthiness of the study results (Brinkmann &

Kavle, 2005; Creswell & Miller, 2000; Guba, 1981; Shenton, 2004). Besides, multi-source data, such as participants' supervisors' ratings of leadership behavior or independent assessments, could complement self-perceptions. In addition, time-lagged studies with more data collection points and a longer span of time could provide more insights into the evolution of leader identity and leader self-efficacy and their impact on participants' career development indices. Future research could extend the time-lagged design to follow participants through the full two-year part-time MBA program and ideally several years beyond their graduation. This would allow examination of whether the trajectories of leader identity and self-efficacy continue upward and how they ultimately affect objective career outcomes, including the number of promotions each participant receives, salary change, etc. Additionally, if longer-term tracking data are included in the research analysis, the findings could further reflect the durability of the effects – whether the improvement of participants' identity, efficacy, and employability would continue or drop over time, and what other factors, such as organizational support or continued self-directed learning that influence the lasting impact.

In addition, some constructs, especially the moderators, had measurement limitations. Work centrality and job tenure were each measured at a single point in study 3 with a relatively smaller sample size. Additionally, although motivation to lead was measured in three dimensions in all three studies, the analysis uses the combined value of the three different facets of MTL, namely affective, social-normative, and non-calculative. The three MTL dimensions might have distinct effects that the study did not explore in depth. Future research could take a closer look at which aspects of MTL matter most by examining sub-dimensions separately.

**Generalizability:** The study population is recruited solely from an independent graduate business school in China, mainly from the part-time finance MBA program, where students have similar demographics. Education is an observable feature in the labor market that can be proactively managed by an individual (Spence, 1973; M. Waldman, 2016). Besides, those who join the MBA program are self-selected. Normally, only those who are confident in their capabilities have a bigger incentive to enroll in an MBA program as a visible signal in their career pursuit (Streb, 2006). Given the fact that the study context is a prestigious institution that has a relatively high tuition fee, participants are mainly well-educated executives in top finance or finance-related firms from major cities in China. The homogeneity of the study samples might limit the generalizability of the study findings to other populations and contexts. Future research might extend to different executive populations from more diverse backgrounds to improve the generalizability of the study findings. In the meantime, studying similar models in different countries or comparing Eastern vs. Western samples to see if cultural values, such as collectivism and power distance, would alter the importance of leader identity or the functioning of employability. This could uncover cultural dynamics, such as whether the concept of self-perceived employability is equally salient everywhere.

Future research directions could also include the integration of multiple identities, examination of sub-factors within the MBA program, and gender-focused research.

**Integration of leader identity with other identities:** Leadership is one aspect of role identity. Future studies could examine how leader identity interacts with other identities, such as professional/technical identity, organizational identity, or identities outside the

professional context. This would address the call from Caza et al. (2018) for integrative research on multiple identities.

**Examination of sub-factors within the MBA program:** The structured MBA program has various components, including structured courses in different subjects, formal and informal networking events, extracurricular activities, a mentoring program, etc. The study has demonstrated the effectiveness of business school as the identity workplace (Petriglieri & Petriglieri, 2010). And it is worth exploring to find out which part of the program is more effective in helping participants shape their leader identity and leader self-efficacy, which in turn, has a positive impact on participants' self-perceived employability and subjective career success. This would be quite meaningful to guide the business school educators as well as leadership training designers in designing a more impactful MBA experience for future participants.

**Gender-focused research:** In the traditional Chinese society, males and females have different roles and bear varied expectations from their families and the community around them. The current research has identified gender differences in the relationship between leader identity and career outcomes between male and female participants. Future work could deliberately sample adequate numbers of male and female leaders to explore gender as a central research question. It would be more insightful to conduct the research in a mixed-method approach to integrate qualitative data, such as semi-structured interviews, to shed light on the mechanisms behind the observed quantitative differences in gender dynamics in internalizing leadership identity and their impact on career satisfaction perceptions.

In conclusion, although the current research provides a framework and statistical evidence that link leadership development with career outcomes, it also opens up many questions. An important direction for future research involves examining how organizational HRM practices influence the development of leadership self-views. Organizations can provide experience and support that enhance both leader identity and leader self-efficacy. According to Day and Dragoni (2014), these include challenging work assignments, mentoring programs, and leadership training interventions. Organizations can also provide supervisor support that models effective leadership. Structured reflection through after-event reviews is another important support mechanism. Future studies could investigate which specific HRM practices are most effective in fostering leadership self-views. The research could examine how these self-views translate into enhanced employability and career success. Besides, research could explore how organizational contexts interact with individual characteristics. Different HRM systems may shape leadership development trajectories in different ways. Addressing these questions through future research will not only validate and refine our findings but also deepen our understanding of the complex journey through which individuals become effective leaders and build successful careers. By continuing this line of inquiry, scholars and practitioners can better support that journey with better designed leadership development program that integrate both educational interventions (such as MBA programs) and organizational HRM practices to ensure that leadership growth translates optimally into career growth across various contexts and populations.

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## Appendices

Appendix A Ethics Forms

Appendix A-1 Ethics Approval Form for Study 1 and Two Surveys

### Ethical Assessment Form

*The purpose of ethical review is to ensure that any ethical risks are managed appropriately, and to protect those involved. It is not intended to prevent work, but to ensure that risks have been suitably identified and addressed in the design of the project. This form is intended to assist review in line with the University's ethics policy, to identify possible risks and to gather further information where needed. The form will automatically direct you to the most appropriate review panel (if required).*

*In the first section you will provide the key project information, and you will then be asked to confirm whether your project involves any considerations which the University has identified as areas of potential ethical risk. If you select any of these areas you will be directed to some further screening questions to identify whether your project involves any significant risk areas. If your project does not involve any significant risk areas your project will not require any further review: you will be directed to the declaration and the process will be complete.*

*If your project does involve a significant risk area, you will be asked to complete some further questions relevant to the risks you have selected. Once you submit the form, it will be directed to the relevant review process. This process will vary according to the type of risk, and you can find further information at*

*<https://www.dur.ac.uk/research.innovation/governance/ethics/process/>.*

*All fields are required, unless indicated as 'Optional'.*

#### Overview

*This section is designed to collect the key project information.*

Applicant	MA, NING
Preferred Name	<input type="text" value="Ning"/> <i>This will be used in emails sent to you by the system.</i>
Applicant Email	<input type="text" value="ning.ma@durham.ac.uk"/>
Department/School to which this application relates.	<u>Business School</u>
Applicant's primary Department/School (if different to above). (Optional)	<u>Business School</u>
Status	<u>Postgraduate Taught</u>

Student ID (Optional)

Degree Programme Doctor of Business Administration (Fudan) (N1A460)

Year of study Year 2

Module Supervisor or module leader

**Students on the Durham and EBS Executive MBA Programme ONLY:**  
*If your supervisor is from EBS, please select the Durham programme director as your supervisor above, and enter the name of your EBS supervisor below.*

Title of Project

Type of Project Research / Scholarship

Expected Start Date

Expected End Date

Does the project involve external funding?  Yes  No

### Ethical Considerations

***The purpose of this section is to highlight whether your project involves any of the potential risk areas identified by the University. If you're not sure then select the area(s) that you think may apply and review the further screening questions.***

Does the project involve any of the following? (please tick all that apply):

- a) Living human participants/subjects, data about living individuals<sup>1</sup>, or human tissue from living or deceased subjects.

<sup>1</sup>This includes both primary data (i.e. data you intend to collect directly) and secondary data (i.e. data already collected by others).

- b) NHS or Social Care, including staff, patients, data or facilities.

- c) A 'protected animal' as defined by the Animals (Scientific Procedures) Act<sup>2</sup>

<sup>2</sup>The [Act](#) defines protected animals as: 'all living vertebrates, other than man, and any living cephalopod. Fish and amphibia are protected once they can feed independently and cephalopods at the point when they hatch. Embryonic and foetal forms of mammals, birds and reptiles are protected during the last third of their gestation or incubation period.'

- d) Study of an organisation categorised as terrorist or violent extremist, or viewing or usage of materials that are subject to statute (e.g. Official Secrets Act / Counter-Terrorism and Security Act) or otherwise illegal.

- e) Environmental implications, including any significant potential risk to a physical environment or material culture (including artefacts).

- f) International partners or work undertaken outside of the European Economic Area (EEA).
- g) Outputs which may be subject to export controls and which could: breach the UK's international commitments; present a risk to security; raise other significant ethical concerns, e.g. abuse of human rights, terrorism, contribution to conflict; or hamper sustainable development.
- h) Source of funding / resource (e.g. materials) or collaborator which raises ethical concerns. This includes (but is not limited to) organisations engaged with or closely connected to any of the following: arms manufacture, fossil fuel extraction, tobacco, alcohol, gambling or pornography.
- i) Any actual, potential or perceived conflict of interest.
- j) Other (please give details in the relevant section of the form)
- k) None of the above

Do any of the following apply to this project? (*You should take into account your own activity for the project, and that of any other Durham University staff or students involved*)

- A member of staff or postgraduate research student will travel outside the UK for the purposes of this project.
- An undergraduate or taught postgraduate student will travel more than 60 miles from Durham for the purposes of this project (or more than 60 miles from their home, if based at home while undertaking research).
- An undergraduate or taught postgraduate student will undertake offsite work for the purposes of this project involving an overnight stay (other than in their own home).

Yes - one or more applies

No - none of these apply

### Purpose of application

Please select the option which best applies:

- New project
- Amendment to a project which has received ethical approval
- Full application following provisional ethical approval / pre-funding application
- Continuation of a project which has received ethical approval (request for renewal)
- Other (please specify)

### Project Summary

Please provide a summary of the project, including its purpose, rationale, design and methods, making clear any expected benefits (this should be written in a way that would be intelligible to non-specialists).

*The study aims to investigate the identity change of mid-career professionals at different points of time of business school education and the relationship between specific traits and career success. The list of selected traits includes leader identity, follower identity,*

*Leader/follower identity conflict/enhancement, learning goal orientation, performance goal orientation, growth mindset, learning goal orientation, future leader self-salience, proactive leadership behavior, leader self-efficacy, resilience, subjective career success, employability, and other dimensions deemed appropriate.*

*A total of three survey questionnaires will be administered to two different groups of mid-career part-time Finance MBA students who are aged 34 upon enrollment with selected constructs from the list. Two surveys will be launched to FMBA2022 intake before and about 6 months after their MBA study in Sept. 2022 and Feb. 2023 respectively. While one survey will be arranged in Nov. for FMBA2019 and FMBA2020 students right before their graduation. The survey will be administered in Chinese in Shanghai, China.*

*Students could voluntarily decide whether they would like to participate in the survey and they could stop answering the survey at any point at their own discretion.*

*Regression analysis will be carried out to identify the relationship between different constructs and to track the changes in certain constructs.*

Where applicable, please upload relevant supporting documentation, e.g. a copy of the project proposal detailing methods and reporting strategies.

### Existing or external ethical approval

Do any of the following apply to your project?

- The project requires ethical approval from an external body
- The project has already received ethical approval from an external body
- The project is part of a larger project or activity which has already received ethical approval from the University

Yes

No

### Screening Questions

***The purpose of this section is to identify whether your project involves any of the higher risk factors relating to the areas you have selected. If you are unsure whether any of the factors apply, then seek further advice from your departmental ethics convenor, or from Research and Innovation Services (research.policy@durham.ac.uk)***

### HUMAN PARTICIPANTS / DATA / TISSUES


*Please indicate which of the following are involved in your project (tick all that apply):*

- a. Human participants / subjects. This includes primary data collection e.g. through interaction, observation or provision of data by individuals.
- b. Secondary data that includes data relating to living individuals
- c. Physical samples from humans / Human tissue

*Does the project involve any of the following risk factors?*

a) The intentional recruitment of participants in any of the following

Yes

<p>categories / raising the following issues: </p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Children or Minors <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• participants aged 15 years or under;</li> <li>• participants aged 16-18 years;</li> </ul> </li> <li>• Vulnerable adults*;</li> <li>• People in custody or on parole;</li> <li>• Welfare recipients;</li> <li>• People engaged in illegal activity (e.g. drug taking);</li> <li>• Communication issues may arise due to the language in which the study is conducted;</li> <li>• Small sample sizes where anonymisation is impractical.</li> </ul> <p><i>* Vulnerable adults are defined as those who are relatively or absolutely incapable of protecting their own interests, or those in unequal relationships; e.g. people with learning or communication disabilities; people with dementia; participants who are subordinate to the researcher(s) in a context outside the research.</i></p>	<input type="radio"/> Yes <input checked="" type="radio"/> No
<p>b) The project requires the co-operation of a 'gatekeeper' for initial access to the groups or individuals to be recruited (e.g. students at school, members of a self-help group, residents of a nursing home).</p>	<input type="radio"/> Yes <input checked="" type="radio"/> No
<p>c) Participants will take part in the study without full knowledge and consent at the time. <i>(Please note that this includes observation of public behaviour, whether covert or overt, in any space other than those where people would expect to be observed by strangers. It also includes collection of data without consent from interactive online spaces such as chat rooms and forums.)</i></p>	<input type="radio"/> Yes <input checked="" type="radio"/> No
<p>d) Deliberately misleading participants.</p>	<input type="radio"/> Yes <input checked="" type="radio"/> No
<p>e) A potentially sensitive topic, including e.g. collection or analysis of data relating to racial/ethnic origin, politics, religious beliefs, Trade Union membership, physical or mental health, sexual activity or orientation, illegal activities.</p>	<input type="radio"/> Yes <input checked="" type="radio"/> No
<p>f) Risk to participants of physical or psychological harm, discomfort, stress, anxiety or any other negative consequence, beyond the risks encountered in their normal life.</p>	<input type="radio"/> Yes <input checked="" type="radio"/> No
<p>g) Participants will receive financial or other inducement (other than reasonable expenses and compensation for time) to participate.</p>	<input type="radio"/> Yes <input checked="" type="radio"/> No
<p>h) The project involves a physical intervention or use of physical human samples or genetic/biometric data (including DNA).  This could include (but is not limited to):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Drugs, placebos or other substances (e.g. food, vitamins) administered to participants;</li> <li>• Invasive, intrusive or potentially harmful procedures of any kind;</li> <li>• Prolonged or repetitive testing;</li> <li>• Blood or tissue samples (including saliva or waste products) obtained from participants;</li> <li>• Other human tissue in scope of the HTA and not covered by an existing HTB approval*</li> <li>• Collection or analysis of genetic data (including DNA);</li> <li>• Collection or analysis of biometric data.</li> </ul>	<input type="radio"/> Yes <input checked="" type="radio"/> No

\* Refer to [Human Tissue Authority guidance on relevant material](#)

- i) Collecting / processing special category data without explicit consent  Yes  
 No
- j) Transferring or transporting special category data outside the European Economic Area (EEA) (either travelling with data, or sending data to a third party outside the EEA)  Yes  
 No
- k) Members of the public who are acting as researchers or as co-producers in the design or delivery of the research (e.g. participatory research, citizen science).  Yes  
 No

### Project Funding

Please add any further information regarding project funding. If the project is not in receipt of external funding, please indicate how any costs will be met. *(Optional)*

### Project Detail

Where will the work be undertaken? *(please tick all that apply)*

- On University premises
- Outside the University, within the UK
- Outside the UK

Please specify the location(s) outside the University where the work will be taking place

Shanghai, China

Please list other members of the project team at Durham.

If you have more than one supervisor, please include your additional supervisor(s) below.

Name	Department	Project Role

Does your project involve external collaborators?

- Yes  
 No

What are the intended methods for dissemination of project findings, e.g. Dissertation, Academic Journal, Conference?

Survey results will be part of the DBA thesis

### Project Involving Human Participants / Data / Tissue

*NB If your project involves secondary data, or tissue samples obtained via a third party, please consider the data subjects or donors as 'participants'*

Who are the participants?

The participants are part-time mid-career Finance MBA students who are 34 upon enrollment

How many participants are involved?

Please describe how potential participants will be  
a) identified, including how you will select them (your sampling strategy) and any criteria for selection e.g. inclusion / exclusion criteria;  
b) recruited, including who will contact them and method of contact.

*Convenience sampling will be used to select survey participants who are participants in the part-time Finance MBA program at different points of their study; Class coordinators will send the survey through group WeChat for students' voluntary participation.*

Please describe what the participants will be required to do. Please include:  
- what is the activity (e.g interviews, questionnaires, other activity);  
- where this will take place;  
- how long are the sessions (for multiple sessions: how many sessions and total duration of participation in the study);  
- any reward or remuneration for participants.  
If the activity involves a sensitive topic or any risk to participants, please make clear what this is and how any risks will be mitigated.

*Participants will need to answer a questionnaire online related to a list of selected constructs related to their traits and personal judgment. The survey will be conducted in Chinese in Shanghai, China.*

Please upload copies of any data collection tools to be used (e.g. questionnaire, survey, example interview questions).

[Questionnaire for FMBA2022 Regarding Identity Change - Sept.2022- V3.docx](#)

[Questionnaire for FMBA2022 Regarding Identity Change -Feb. 2023.docx](#)

What types of data will be collected/analysed? (select relevant types below)

Written questionnaires

### INFORMATION AND CONSENT

*In this section you should ensure that you provide a full justification of any non-standard consent arrangements. If your project will involve covert observation or deception, please provide detail on the reasons for this and how it will be managed. If your project involves long term contact with participants, please indicate how continued informed consent will be ensured.*

	Yes	No	Not Applicable
a. Will you give participants a written summary of your project, including how you will store and use any information given to you? (This is normally provided in an information sheet)	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	
b. Will you give participants an oral verbal summary of your project, including how you will store and use any information given to you?	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

c. Will you obtain written, informed consent from participants for participation and for all intended uses of the data arising from the project?	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	
d. Will you tell participants that their involvement is voluntary and that they may withdraw from the research at any time (without their having to give any reason and without any repercussions)?	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	
e. Will any monitoring or recording devices be used openly and only with the permission of participants?	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
f. With questionnaires or interviews, will you remind participants of their option of omitting questions they do not want to answer?	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
g. Will you automatically anonymise information in your work, or will you explicitly give all participants the right to remain anonymous?	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	
h. Will you offer to provide participants with a lay summary of the research findings?	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<p>Please provide any further relevant information regarding the information to be provided to participants, the arrangements for obtaining consent, and the basis for processing personal data.</p> <hr/> <p>Please indicate what documents will be provided for participants, and upload copies of all relevant documents, including your consent form, privacy notice, information sheet and debriefing sheet (where applicable).</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Information Sheet  <i>Most projects involving people will require an information sheet, and a copy should be provided with this application. If you do not have an information sheet, make sure the reasons for this are clear in the 'information and consent' section above.</i></p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Separate Privacy Notice  <i>You should normally provide a privacy notice if you are collecting any form of identifiable personal data (this includes collecting the name/signature on a consent form). This information can be provided separately or as part of the information sheet.</i></p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Consent Form  <i>Most projects involving people will require a consent form, and a copy should be provided with this application. If you do not have a consent form, make sure the reasons for this are clear in the 'information and consent' section above.</i></p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Debriefing Sheet</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Other documentation for participants</p>			
<p>Please indicate how you will ensure confidentiality and security of personal data, including at what stage your participants' data will be anonymised. NB. If non anonymised personal data will be released e.g. attributed verbatim quotes, then the circumstances and methods for obtaining consent must be highlighted.</p> <hr/> <p>The data will be handled in high confidentiality in the designated computer with restricted access from</p>			

What will happen in the event that a participant withdraws their consent (and what will happen to the data for that participant)?

The participant's data will be excluded from the study if they withdraw their consent

### Conflicts of Interest

*A conflict of interest is defined as a relationship or interest that could lead to bias or perceived bias in the design or delivery of the work.*

Please provide details regarding any conflict of interest involved in the project: *(Optional)*

Conflict of Interest

Management Strategy

If the management strategy has been approved, please provide details (i.e. approved by, date of approval)

Please upload any relevant documentation

### Other Issues

Please provide any relevant information not addressed elsewhere in this form. If your project raises any ethical issues not covered above, please provide a full description of the issues and how you intend to deal with them. This should include any issues relating to source of funding / resource or collaborator (where applicable). *(Optional)*

### Governance

#### PROJECT RISK ASSESSMENT AND INSURANCE

***Some departments require evidence of a project risk assessment and confirmation of insurance cover as part of the ethical review process. Please check your departmental guidance before completing this section.***

Will you provide the following as part of this application?

	No: Not required or not applicable	Yes: I will upload relevant documentation	Yes: I will provide further details below
a) Risk assessment regarding risk to participants and/or the project team	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
b) Indication of insurance cover <i>This is required for activities not covered by standard University insurance. If in doubt consult the <a href="#">guidance on insurance</a> and / or <a href="#">contact University insurance staff</a> (please upload a copy of their response).</i>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

## DATA MANAGEMENT PLAN

Please indicate whether you agree that your project data will be handled in accordance with the following statement:  Yes  No

*Data processing and short term storage will take place using University hardware / software, or systems which meet equivalent security standards. Access to project data will be restricted to the project (and supervisory) team. Any Project data required to validate the outcomes or for assessment (anonymised where applicable) will be retained in line with the University's [Data Management Policy](#) for 10 years from the date of publication or end of the project if there are no publications. Any personal data will be deleted at the earliest opportunity, and no later than the end of the project, unless explicit consent has been given to retain data.*

## OTHER PERMISSIONS AND LICENCES

Please provide details of any other permissions or licences required for the project (e.g. DBS check, SSI licence, permission from colleges for involvement of their students etc)?

Permission needed	Granting body	Status	Date of approval
<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	Select...	<input type="text"/>

Please upload any relevant documentation e.g. evidence of permission.

## Supporting Documentation

***Before submitting this form, please ensure that you have included all relevant supporting documentation***

Currently attached documents:

[Data collection tool](#)

[Questionnaire for FMBA2022 Regarding Identity Change - Sept.2022- V3.docx](#)

[Data collection tool](#)

[Questionnaire for FMBA2022 Regarding Identity Change - Feb. 2023.docx](#)

Please tick to confirm:

I have uploaded all relevant documentation

## Declaration

***Thank you for completing the University's Ethical Review Form. Please be aware that if you make any significant changes to your project you should complete this form again as further review may be required. Please complete the declaration to submit your application.***

I confirm that:

I acknowledge my obligation to (and rights of) any participants, and my responsibility to be up to date and comply with the requirements of the law and relevant guidelines

relating to security and confidentiality of personal data.

- The information contained within this application is accurate and complete.
- Any risks that may arise in conducting this project have been identified to the best of my ability.
- I undertake to abide by the [University's ethical guidelines](#) and the ethical principles underlying good practice provided in the guidelines appropriate to my field.
- The project will be undertaken in line with all applicable University, funder, legislative and local standards and regulations.
- If the project is approved, I undertake to adhere to the study protocol, the terms of this application and any conditions set out by the ethics committee.
- No work will begin until all appropriate permissions are in place.

**To be completed by the supervisor:**

As supervisor, I am satisfied with the content of this form and any accompanying documents.  Yes  No

Your department (or a programme within your department) has established parameters within which supervisors may give final approval to student projects. Please check the [documentation available](#) to determine whether this project is in scope of these parameters, and then select the relevant option below. If in doubt, please contact the relevant ethics co-ordinator in your department for advice.

- I confirm that this project is within the scope of the authorisation given for supervisor approval, and that I am willing to approve it on this basis. I am content that all relevant ethical considerations have been identified and adequately addressed, and that the project does not require further ethical review.
- This project is outside the scope of the authorisation given for supervisor approval, or contains elements which I believe need further ethical review. Please provide your comments on the application in the box below, highlighting any particular issues which require further scrutiny.

Please add any comments below.

---

## Form Administration

Form version 5

Application Reference

DUBS-2022-08-27T16\_07\_26-fngg25

Form url

[https://durhamuniversity.sharepoint.com/teams/researchoffice/ethics/FormRedirect.html?qd=%2fteams%2fresearchoffice%2fethics%2fDUBS%20Forms%2fDUBS-2022-08-27T16\\_07\\_26-fngg25.xml](https://durhamuniversity.sharepoint.com/teams/researchoffice/ethics/FormRedirect.html?qd=%2fteams%2fresearchoffice%2fethics%2fDUBS%20Forms%2fDUBS-2022-08-27T16_07_26-fngg25.xml)

## Ethical Assessment Form

*The purpose of ethical review is to ensure that any ethical risks are managed appropriately, and to protect those involved. It is not intended to prevent work, but to ensure that risks have been suitably identified and addressed in the design of the project. This form is intended to assist review in line with the University's ethics policy, to identify possible risks and to gather further information where needed. The form will automatically direct you to the most appropriate review panel (if required).*

*In the first section you will provide the key project information, and you will then be asked to confirm whether your project involves any considerations which the University has identified as areas of potential ethical risk. If you select any of these areas you will be directed to some further screening questions to identify whether your project involves any significant risk areas. If your project does not involve any significant risk areas your project will not require any further review: you will be directed to the declaration and the process will be complete.*

*If your project does involve a significant risk area, you will be asked to complete some further questions relevant to the risks you have selected. Once you submit the form, it will be directed to the relevant review process. This process will vary according to the type of risk, and you can find further information at*

*<https://www.dur.ac.uk/research.innovation/governance/ethics/process/>.*

*All fields are required, unless indicated as 'Optional'.*

### Overview

*This section is designed to collect the key project information.*

Applicant	MA, NING
Preferred Name	<input type="text" value="Ning"/> <i>This will be used in emails sent to you by the system.</i>
Applicant Email	<input type="text" value="ning.ma@durham.ac.uk"/>
Department/School to which this application relates.	<u>Business School</u>
Applicant's primary Department/School (if different to above). (Optional)	<u>Business School</u>
Status	<u>Postgraduate Taught</u>

Student ID  
(Optional)

Degree Programme Doctor of Business Administration (Fudan) (N1A460)

Year of study Year 3

Module Supervisor or module leader

**Students on the Durham and EBS Executive MBA Programme ONLY:**  
If your supervisor is from EBS, please select the Durham programme director as your supervisor above, and enter the name of your EBS supervisor below.

Title of Project

Type of Project Research / Scholarship

Expected Start Date

Expected End Date

Does the project involve external funding?  Yes  No

### Ethical Considerations

**The purpose of this section is to highlight whether your project involves any of the potential risk areas identified by the University. If you're not sure then select the area(s) that you think may apply and review the further screening questions.**

Does the project involve any of the following? (please tick all that apply):

- a) Living human participants/subjects, data about living individuals<sup>1</sup>, or human tissue from living or deceased subjects.

<sup>1</sup>This includes both primary data (i.e. data you intend to collect directly) and secondary data (i.e. data already collected by others).

- b) NHS or Social Care, including staff, patients, data or facilities.

- c) A 'protected animal' as defined by the Animals (Scientific Procedures) Act<sup>2</sup>

<sup>2</sup>The Act defines protected animals as: 'all living vertebrates, other than man, and any living cephalopod. Fish and amphibia are protected once they can feed independently and cephalopods at the point when they hatch. Embryonic and foetal forms of mammals, birds and reptiles are protected during the last third of their gestation or incubation period.'

- d) Study of an organisation categorised as terrorist or violent extremist, or viewing or usage of materials that are subject to statute (e.g. Official Secrets Act / Counter-Terrorism and Security Act) or otherwise illegal.

- e) Environmental implications, including any significant potential risk to a physical environment or material culture (including artefacts).

- f) International partners or work undertaken outside of the European Economic Area (EEA).
- g) Outputs which may be subject to export controls and which could: breach the UK's international commitments; present a risk to security; raise other significant ethical concerns, e.g. abuse of human rights, terrorism, contribution to conflict; or hamper sustainable development.
- h) Source of funding / resource (e.g. materials) or collaborator which raises ethical concerns. This includes (but is not limited to) organisations engaged with or closely connected to any of the following: arms manufacture, fossil fuel extraction, tobacco, alcohol, gambling or pornography.
- i) Any actual, potential or perceived conflict of interest.
- j) Other (please give details in the relevant section of the form)
- k) None of the above

Do any of the following apply to this project? (*You should take into account your own activity for the project, and that of any other Durham University staff or students involved*)

- A member of staff or postgraduate research student will travel outside the UK for the purposes of this project.
- An undergraduate or taught postgraduate student will travel more than 60 miles from Durham for the purposes of this project (or more than 60 miles from their home, if based at home while undertaking research).
- An undergraduate or taught postgraduate student will undertake offsite work for the purposes of this project involving an overnight stay (other than in their own home).

Yes - one or more applies

No - none of these apply

### Purpose of application

Please select the option which best applies:

- New project
- Amendment to a project which has received ethical approval
- Full application following provisional ethical approval / pre-funding application
- Continuation of a project which has received ethical approval (request for renewal)
- Other (please specify)

### Project Summary

Please provide a summary of the project, including its purpose, rationale, design and methods, making clear any expected benefits (this should be written in a way that would be intelligible to non-specialists).

---

*The survey focusing on leader identity, leader efficacy, employability, and career success will be administered to alumni from the independent graduate school in Shanghai, China, and some participants who have not completed their MBA education.*

Where applicable, please upload relevant supporting documentation, e.g. a copy of the project proposal detailing methods and reporting strategies.

### Existing or external ethical approval

- Do any of the following apply to your project?  Yes  No
- The project requires ethical approval from an external body
  - The project has already received ethical approval from an external body
  - The project is part of a larger project or activity which has already received ethical approval from the University

### Screening Questions

*The purpose of this section is to identify whether your project involves any of the higher risk factors relating to the areas you have selected. If you are unsure whether any of the factors apply, then seek further advice from your departmental ethics convenor, or from Research and Innovation Services (research.policy@durham.ac.uk)*

### HUMAN PARTICIPANTS / DATA / TISSUES

Please indicate which of the following are involved in your project (tick all that apply):

- a. Human participants / subjects. This includes primary data collection e.g. through interaction, observation or provision of data by individuals.
- b. Secondary data that includes data relating to living individuals
- c. Physical samples from humans / Human tissue

### Secondary Data

- Can individuals be recognised or identified from the data in any way?  Yes  No - the data is fully anonymised

*When completing the remainder of this form, please consider the data subjects to be included in the definition of 'participants'.*

Does the project involve any of the following risk factors?

- a) The intentional recruitment of participants in any of the following categories / raising the following issues:  Yes  No
- Children or Minors
    - participants aged 15 years or under;
    - participants aged 16-18 years;
  - Vulnerable adults\*;
  - People in custody or on parole;
  - Welfare recipients;

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• People engaged in illegal activity (e.g. drug taking);</li> <li>• Communication issues may arise due to the language in which the study is conducted;</li> <li>• Small sample sizes where anonymisation is impractical.</li> </ul> <p><i>* Vulnerable adults are defined as those who are relatively or absolutely incapable of protecting their own interests, or those in unequal relationships; e.g. people with learning or communication disabilities; people with dementia; participants who are subordinate to the researcher(s) in a context outside the research.</i></p>	
b) The project requires the co-operation of a 'gatekeeper' for initial access to the groups or individuals to be recruited (e.g. students at school, members of a self-help group, residents of a nursing home).	<input checked="" type="radio"/> Yes <input type="radio"/> No
c) Participants will take part in the study without full knowledge and consent at the time. <i>(Please note that this includes observation of public behaviour, whether covert or overt, in any space other than those where people would expect to be observed by strangers. It also includes collection of data without consent from interactive online spaces such as chat rooms and forums.)</i>	<input type="radio"/> Yes <input checked="" type="radio"/> No
d) Deliberately misleading participants.	<input type="radio"/> Yes <input checked="" type="radio"/> No
e) A potentially sensitive topic, including e.g. collection or analysis of data relating to racial/ethnic origin, politics, religious beliefs, Trade Union membership, physical or mental health, sexual activity or orientation, illegal activities.	<input type="radio"/> Yes <input checked="" type="radio"/> No
f) Risk to participants of physical or psychological harm, discomfort, stress, anxiety or any other negative consequence, beyond the risks encountered in their normal life.	<input type="radio"/> Yes <input checked="" type="radio"/> No
g) Participants will receive financial or other inducement (other than reasonable expenses and compensation for time) to participate.	<input type="radio"/> Yes <input checked="" type="radio"/> No
<p>h) The project involves a physical intervention or use of physical human samples or genetic/biometric data (including DNA).  This could include (but is not limited to):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Drugs, placebos or other substances (e.g. food, vitamins) administered to participants;</li> <li>• Invasive, intrusive or potentially harmful procedures of any kind;</li> <li>• Prolonged or repetitive testing;</li> <li>• Blood or tissue samples (including saliva or waste products) obtained from participants;</li> <li>• Other human tissue in scope of the HTA and not covered by an existing HTB approval*</li> <li>• Collection or analysis of genetic data (including DNA);</li> <li>• Collection or analysis of biometric data.</li> </ul> <p><i>* Refer to <a href="#">Human Tissue Authority guidance on relevant material</a></i></p>	<input type="radio"/> Yes <input checked="" type="radio"/> No
i) Collecting / processing special category data without explicit consent	<input type="radio"/> Yes <input checked="" type="radio"/> No
j) Transferring or transporting special category data outside the European Economic Area (EEA) (either travelling with data, or sending data to a third	<input type="radio"/> Yes <input checked="" type="radio"/> No

party outside the EEA)

k) Members of the public who are acting as researchers or as co-producers in the design or delivery of the research (e.g. participatory research, citizen science).  Yes  No

### Project Funding

Please add any further information regarding project funding. If the project is not in receipt of external funding, please indicate how any costs will be met. (Optional)

### Project Detail

Where will the work be undertaken? (please tick all that apply)

- On University premises
- Outside the University, within the UK
- Outside the UK

Please specify the location(s) outside the University where the work will be taking place

Shanghai, China

Please list other members of the project team at Durham.

If you have more than one supervisor, please include your additional supervisor(s) below.

Name	Department	Project Role

Does your project involve external collaborators?  Yes  No

What are the intended methods for dissemination of project findings, e.g. Dissertation, Academic Journal, Conference?

Dissertation, and hopefully academic journal

### Project Involving Human Participants / Data / Tissue

*NB If your project involves secondary data, or tissue samples obtained via a third party, please consider the data subjects or donors as 'participants'*

Who are the participants?

alumni from the graduated business school who are all seasoned business professionals, as well as some external participants who have either completed an MBA from a different school or those who haven't completed an MBA

How many participants are involved? about 200

Please describe how potential participants will be

- a) identified, including how you will select them (your sampling strategy) and any criteria for selection e.g. inclusion / exclusion criteria;  
 b) recruited, including who will contact them and method of contact.

*The survey link will be sent to alumni WeChat groups; the External participants' survey link will be sent through a public WeChat account; participants will join the survey voluntarily*

Please describe what the participants will be required to do. Please include:

- what is the activity (e.g interviews, questionnaires, other activity);
- where this will take place;
- how long are the sessions (for multiple sessions: how many sessions and total duration of participation in the study);
- any reward or remuneration for participants.

If the activity involves a sensitive topic or any risk to participants, please make clear what this is and how any risks will be mitigated.

*A survey will be conducted online; It is estimated that 25 minutes will be needed to complete a total of 151 questions in the survey. Alumni from the part-time Finance Program will be given 5 program points which can be used to redeem school-branded small gifts; while alumni from other programs and outside the business school will be given a book with a face value of about 30RMB (about 3.5 pounds); Chinese version of the survey will be used.*

Please upload copies of any data collection tools to be used (e.g. questionnaire, survey, example interview questions).

[Study 3 Questionnaire Combined.docx](#)

What types of data will be collected/analysed? (select relevant types below)

### INFORMATION AND CONSENT

*In this section you should ensure that you provide a full justification of any non-standard consent arrangements. If your project will involve covert observation or deception, please provide detail on the reasons for this and how it will be managed. If your project involves long term contact with participants, please indicate how continued informed consent will be ensured.*

	Yes	No	Not Applicable
a. Will you give participants a written summary of your project, including how you will store and use any information given to you? <i>(This is normally provided in an information sheet)</i>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	
b. Will you give participants an oral verbal summary of your project, including how you will store and use any information given to you?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>
c. Will you obtain written, informed consent from participants for participation and for all intended uses of the data arising from the project?	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	
d. Will you tell participants that their involvement is voluntary and that they may withdraw from the research at any time	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	

(without their having to give any reason and without any repercussions)?			
e. Will any monitoring or recording devices be used openly and only with the permission of participants?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>
f. With questionnaires or interviews, will you remind participants of their option of omitting questions they do not want to answer?	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>
g. Will you automatically anonymise information in your work, or will you explicitly give all participants the right to remain anonymous?	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	
h. Will you offer to provide participants with a lay summary of the research findings?	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
<p>Please provide any further relevant information regarding the information to be provided to participants, the arrangements for obtaining consent, and the basis for processing personal data.</p> <hr/>			
<p>Please indicate what documents will be provided for participants, and upload copies of all relevant documents, including your consent form, privacy notice, information sheet and debriefing sheet (where applicable).</p>			
<p><input type="checkbox"/> Information Sheet  <i>Most projects involving people will require an information sheet, and a copy should be provided with this application. If you do not have an information sheet, make sure the reasons for this are clear in the 'information and consent' section above.</i></p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Separate Privacy Notice  <i>You should normally provide a privacy notice if you are collecting any form of identifiable personal data (this includes collecting the name/signature on a consent form). This information can be provided separately or as part of the information sheet.</i></p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Consent Form  <i>Most projects involving people will require a consent form, and a copy should be provided with this application. If you do not have a consent form, make sure the reasons for this are clear in the 'information and consent' section above.</i></p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Debriefing Sheet</p> <p><input type="checkbox"/> Other documentation for participants</p>			
<p>Please indicate how you will ensure confidentiality and security of personal data, including at what stage your participants' data will be anonymised. NB. If non anonymised personal data will be released e.g. attributed verbatim quotes, then the circumstances and methods for obtaining consent must be highlighted.</p> <hr/> <p>Survey data will only be analyzed by the researcher, while data collected for program points and small gift allocation will be processed by another program staff.</p>			
<p>What will happen in the event that a participant withdraws their consent (and what will happen to the data for that participant)?</p> <hr/> <p>their data will be excluded</p>			

## Conflicts of Interest

*A conflict of interest is defined as a relationship or interest that could lead to bias or perceived bias in the design or delivery of the work.*

Please provide details regarding any conflict of interest involved in the project: *(Optional)*

Conflict of Interest

Management Strategy

If the management strategy has been approved, please provide details (i.e. approved by, date of approval)

Please upload any relevant documentation

## Other Issues

Please provide any relevant information not addressed elsewhere in this form. If your project raises any ethical issues not covered above, please provide a full description of the issues and how you intend to deal with them. This should include any issues relating to source of funding / resource or collaborator (where applicable). *(Optional)*

## Governance

### PROJECT RISK ASSESSMENT AND INSURANCE

***Some departments require evidence of a project risk assessment and confirmation of insurance cover as part of the ethical review process. Please check your departmental guidance before completing this section.***

Will you provide the following as part of this application?

	No: Not required or not applicable	Yes: I will upload relevant documentation	Yes: I will provide further details below
a) Risk assessment regarding risk to participants and/or the project team	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
b) Indication of insurance cover <i>This is required for activities not covered by standard University insurance. If in doubt consult the <a href="#">guidance on insurance</a> and / or <a href="#">contact University insurance staff</a> (please upload a copy of their response).</i>	<input checked="" type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

### DATA MANAGEMENT PLAN

Please indicate whether you agree that your project data will be handled in  Yes

accordance with the following statement:

No

*Data processing and short term storage will take place using University hardware / software, or systems which meet equivalent security standards. Access to project data will be restricted to the project (and supervisory) team. Any Project data required to validate the outcomes or for assessment (anonymised where applicable) will be retained in line with the University's [Data Management Policy](#) for 10 years from the date of publication or end of the project if there are no publications. Any personal data will be deleted at the earliest opportunity, and no later than the end of the project, unless explicit consent has been given to retain data.*

### OTHER PERMISSIONS AND LICENCES

Please provide details of any other permissions or licences required for the project (e.g. DBS check, SSI licence, permission from colleges for involvement of their students etc)?

Permission needed	Granting body	Status	Date of approval
<input type="text"/>	<input type="text"/>	Select...	<input type="text"/>

Please upload any relevant documentation e.g. evidence of permission.

### Supporting Documentation

***Before submitting this form, please ensure that you have included all relevant supporting documentation***

Currently attached documents:

[Data collection tool](#)

[Study 3 Questionnaire Combined.docx](#)

Please tick to confirm:

I have uploaded all relevant documentation

### Declaration

***Thank you for completing the University's Ethical Review Form. Please be aware that if you make any significant changes to your project you should complete this form again as further review may be required. Please complete the declaration to submit your application.***

I confirm that:

- I acknowledge my obligation to (and rights of) any participants, and my responsibility to be up to date and comply with the requirements of the law and relevant guidelines relating to security and confidentiality of personal data.
- The information contained within this application is accurate and complete.
- Any risks that may arise in conducting this project have been identified to the best of my ability.
- I undertake to abide by the [University's ethical guidelines](#) and the ethical principles

underlying good practice provided in the guidelines appropriate to my field.

- The project will be undertaken in line with all applicable University, funder, legislative and local standards and regulations.
- If the project is approved, I undertake to adhere to the study protocol, the terms of this application and any conditions set out by the ethics committee.
- No work will begin until all appropriate permissions are in place.

**To be completed by the supervisor:**

As supervisor, I am satisfied with the content of this form and any accompanying documents.  Yes  No

Your department (or a programme within your department) has established parameters within which supervisors may give final approval to student projects. Please check the [documentation available](#) to determine whether this project is in scope of these parameters, and then select the relevant option below. If in doubt, please contact the relevant ethics co-ordinator in your department for advice.

- I confirm that this project is within the scope of the authorisation given for supervisor approval, and that I am willing to approve it on this basis. I am content that all relevant ethical considerations have been identified and adequately addressed, and that the project does not require further ethical review.
- This project is outside the scope of the authorisation given for supervisor approval, or contains elements which I believe need further ethical review. Please provide your comments on the application in the box below, highlighting any particular issues which require further scrutiny.

Please add any comments below.

---

### Form Administration

Form version 5

Application Reference

DUBS-2023-09-01T12\_49\_42-fngg25

Form url

https://durhamuniversity.sharepoint.com/teams/researchoffice/ethics/FormRedirect.html?qd=%2fteams%2fresearchoffice%2fethics%2fDUBS%20Forms%2fDUBS-2023-09-01T12\_49\_42-fngg25.xml

## Appendix B Study 1 Materials

### Appendix C-1 Study 1 Survey Questionnaire Administered (Chinese Version)

#### FMBA2019 & 2020 Regarding Identity Change, Employability, and Career Success Nov.

2022


亲爱的 FMBA2019&2020 级同学：

值此毕业季，FMBA 课程部有幸陪伴您度过学习时光。我们诚邀您对入学后个人情况、中欧的学习生活进行一次认真地回顾，让我们了解您的体验和反馈，为后续工作的开展和提升提供有力的依据。

本系列调研将分 2 次进行，分别是领导力职业发展调研及毕业调研。每完成一次调研，您将获得 5 个小金牛积分；完成两次调研，可在毕业典礼当天抽取一款中欧小熊盲盒。

以下链接为领导力职业发展调研，旨在了解您在中欧学习后的成长轨迹。为全面客观反映您当下的真实情况，请注意如下事项：

1. 本次调研约 150 题，约需 20 分钟完成，请您预留完整时间并在不被打扰的环境下进行。题目选项无对错之分，请选择最符合自己情况的选项。
2. 为确保评估的准确性，有些问题会以较类似的形式出现，请注意甄别。

 请在 11 月 10 日（周四）晚 24 点前完成本次问卷，谢谢~

1. 您的中文姓名
2. 您的班级

**请用 1-7 分评估以下内容 (1=非常不同意, 7=非常同意)**

1. 我很容易就能想象到自己未来作为领导者的样子。
2. 我对于自己作为领导者的未来有着非常清晰的心理图景。
3. 对我来说，要想象自己作为领导者的未来是一件很容易的事。
4. 我非常清楚在未来的工作中，我希望自己作为领导者将扮演什么角色、起到怎样的作用。

5. 关于自己作为领导者想要的是何种未来，我的头脑中有非常明确的期许。

**与你所知最自信的领导者相比，你对自己的以下能力有多少信心？**

**请用 1-7 分评估以下表述 (1= 非常没有信心, 7= 非常有信心)**

8. 我能履行作为一名成功的领导者所必须完成的各种任务。

9. 我有足够的专注力去取得成功。

10. 我能在各种领导力情境中进行有效的思考并成功加以应对。

11. 我能在领导工作遭遇重大挫折后迅速重整旗鼓并取得成功。

12. 我能适应不同的领导力情境并取得成功。

**请用 1-7 分评估以下内容 (1=非常不同意, 7=非常同意)**

13. 有机会做富有挑战性的工作对我来说很重要。

14. 当我没能完成一项艰难的任务时，我会谋划下次再做同样的任务时要尝试更加努力。

15. 我更喜欢做那些会迫使我学习新事物的任务。

16. 有机会学习新事物对我来说很重要。

17. 我在做一项相当困难的任务时会竭尽所能。

18. 我努力在以往绩效表现的基础上改进提升。

19. 有机会拓展自己的能力对我来说很重要。

20. 如果我在解决问题时遇到困难，我会乐于尝试多种不同方法，看其中哪种方法奏效。

21. 我更喜欢做自己能做好的事，而不太喜欢做自己做不好的事。

22. 工作中最让我感到开心的情形就是我在履行某些任务，而我知道自己不会在这些任务上出任何差错。

23. 我最乐于做自己最擅长的事。

24. 别人认为我能在某些事上做到多好，此类看法对于我来说十分重要。

25. 当我做某件事不出差错时，我觉得自己很聪明。

26. 我喜欢在尝试做一项任务之前，对于自己能够成功履行该项任务充满信心。

27. 我喜欢做自己以往擅长的任务。

28. 当我做某件事能做得比大多数人更好时，我觉得自己很聪明。

29. 即使我知道自己在某件事上做得很好，但只有得到他人的认可，我才会感到满意。\*

30. 通过出色完成任务给别人留下深刻的印象，这一点很重要。\*

**- 以下描述与你的相符程度如何？**

**请用 1-7 分进行评估 (1= 完全不相符, 7= 极为相符)**

31. 我是一个领导者。

32. 我视自己为一个领导者。

33. 如果我要向别人描述自己，我会在描述中用到“领导者”这个词。

34. 我更喜欢被别人视为一个领导者。

**- 你对以下这项上述自己的评分有多肯定？**

**请用 1-7 分进行评估 (1= 完全不确定, 7= 极为确定)**

35. 我是一个领导者。

36. 我视自己为一个领导者。

37. 如果我要向别人描述自己，我会在描述中用到“领导者”这个词。  
38. 我更喜欢被别人视为一个领导者。

-以下这项关于自己的看法对你来说有多重要？

**请用 1-7 分进行评估 (1 = 完全不重要, 7 = 极为重要)**

39. 我是一个领导者。  
40. 我视自己为一个领导者。  
41. 如果我要向别人描述自己，我会在描述中用到“领导者”这个词。  
42. 我更喜欢被别人视为一个领导者。

- 以下描述与你的相符程度如何？

**请用 1-7 分进行评估 (1 = 完全不相符, 7 = 极为相符)**

43. 我是一个追随者。  
44. 我视自己为一个追随者。  
45. 如果我要向别人描述自己，我会在描述中用到“追随者”这个词。  
46. 我更喜欢被别人视为一个追随者。

**请用 1-7 分评估以下内容 (1 = 非常不同意, 7 = 非常同意)**

47. 我觉得做一个好的领导者和做一个好的追随者会相互干扰。  
48. 我觉得做领导者和做追随者是相反的。  
49. 我很高兴我既是追随者又是领导者。  
50. 我是一个更好的领导者，因为我也是一个追随者。  
51. 我是一个更好的追随者，因为我也是一个领导者。  
52. 如果我只是一个追随者，或者只是一个领导者，而不是兼具两种角色，生活会更容易一些。  
53. 我庆幸自己是一个追随者，因为这有助于我做一个领导者。  
54. 我庆幸自己是一个领导者，因为这有助于我做一个追随者。  
55. 在我的想象中，做领导者就不能做追随者。  
56. 我认为自己一旦获得了领导经验，就会变得不愿做一个追随者。  
57. 我相信追随者应该竭尽全力成为领导者，而不再做追随者。  
58. 如果我同时也是一个追随者，我能成为一个更好的领导者。  
59. 如果我同时也是一个领导者，我能成为一个更好的追随者。  
60. 我相信没有追随就没有领导。  
61. 如果是在一个群体中工作，我大多数时候更喜欢做领导者而非追随者。  
62. 我是那种对领导他人不感兴趣的人。(R)  
63. 我绝对不是个天生的领导者。(R)  
64. 我是那种喜欢负责管理他人的人。  
65. 我相信，如果我在一个群体中是追随者而非领导者，我将能够为这个群体做出更多贡献。(R)  
66. 当我在群体中工作时，我通常想要成为所在群体的领导者。  
67. 我是那种积极支持领导者的人，但不愿意被任命为领导者。(R)  
68. 我在群体或团队中工作时，大多会倾向于成为所在群体或团队的负责人。

69. 我很少会不愿做一个群体中的领导者。
70. 我觉得我有义务应要求去领导他人。
71. 只要其他成员对我提出要求或作出提名，我就会同意成为领导者。
72. 我接受的教导是：要相信领导他人是有价值的。
73. 应要求去承担领导角色或担任领导职位是一种恰当的行为。
74. 我一直以来接受的教导是：如果可能的话，我应该总是自告奋勇地去领导别人。
75. 拒绝承担领导角色是不对的。
76. 被要求成为领导者是一种荣耀。
77. 人们应该自告奋勇地去成为领导者，而不是等着别人要求他们或投票给他们。
78. 我绝不会只是因为别人投票给我就同意成为领导者。(R)
79. 只有在对我有明显好处的情况下，我才有兴趣领导一个群体。(R)
80. 如果我看不到承担领导角色能给我带来什么惠益，我是绝不会同意成为领导者的。(R)
81. 只有知道自己可以从中受益时，我才会同意担任一个群体的领导者。(R)
82. 即使没有特殊的报酬或福利，我也会同意去领导他人。
83. 在我同意领导一个群体之前，我会想要知道“这对我有何益处”。(R)
84. 如果我同意领导一个群体，我从不期望能因此获得更多特权。
85. 如果我同意领导一个群体，我从不期望能因此得到任何好处或特殊利益。
86. 我更多地是担心自己的问题，而不是群体中其他成员的问题。
87. 领导他人其实更多的是一项吃力不讨好的苦差事，而不是什么荣耀的工作。(R)
88. 你可以学习新事物，但你无法真正改变自己的智力。
89. 一些基本要素造就了你是哪种人，而你总是可以改变这些基本要素。
90. 无论你的智力有多高，你总是能令其发生相当大的改变。
91. 你可以改变做事方式，但有些重要的部分造就了你是谁，这些是无法真正改变的。
92. 你是某一种人，而这基本上无法真正改变。
93. 无论你是哪一种人，你总是可以发生实质性的改变。
94. 你的智力是非常基本的东西，无法有实质性的改变。
95. 你总是可以让自己的智力发生实质性的改变。
96. 我能够认真考虑多种可行的选择方案，来帮助我应对新局面。
97. 我能够改变对新局势的思考方式，来帮助我顺利过渡。
98. 我能够调整我的想法和预期，来帮助我应对新局面。
99. 我能够找到新的信息、有帮助的人或资源，来有效应对新局面。
100. 在不确定的情况下，我能够找到并形成新的处理方法（例如，换一种方式提问或查找信息），来帮助我度过难关。
101. 为了适应新局面，我能够改变我的做事方式。
102. 我能够减少负面情绪（例如，恐惧），来帮助我处理不确定的情况。
103. 出现不确定性时，我能够尽量减少沮丧或不悦情绪，以便以最好的状态应对它。
104. 为了帮助我顺利应对新局面，我能够利用积极的感受和情绪（例如，愉悦感，满足感）。
105. 在经历了困难时期之后，我往往能很快就重整旗鼓。
106. 我很难度过高压力事件。
107. 我不用很长时间就能从高压力事件中恢复过来。

108. 当不好的事情发生时，我很难迅速振作起来。
109. 度过困难时期对我来说通常不成问题。
110. 当生活中遭遇挫折时，我往往要花很长时间才能缓过劲来。
111. 即使公司要裁员，我也有信心会继续留下来。
112. 我在公司中的人际关系网对我的事业有帮助。
113. 我会留意到公司中出现的机，即使它们与我目前从事的工作有所不同。
114. 我在目前的工作中所获得的技能可以应用到公司之外的其他职业。
115. 我可以很容易地接受再培训，使自己在其他领域更具就业优势。
116. 我对公司以外的机会非常了解，即使它们与我现在的工作有很大不同。
117. 在从事相同工作的人群中，我很受公司尊敬。
118. 如有需要，我可以很容易地在同类组织中找到另一份像现在这样的工作。
119. 我几乎可以在任何组织中轻松找到与现在类似的工作。
120. 任何具备我这样的技能和知识水平，又有类似工作和组织经验的人，都会受到雇主的青睐。
121. 只要与我的技能和经验相关，我可以在任何地方找到任何工作。
122. 我对自己在职业生涯中取得的成功感到满意。
123. 我对自己在实现整体职业目标方面所取得的进展感到满意。
124. 我对自己在实现收入目标方面所取得的进展感到满意。
125. 我对自己在实现晋升目标方面所取得的进展感到满意。
126. 我对自己在实现新技能发展目标方面所取得的进展感到满意。
127. 我在工作中收到了有关我表现的积极反馈。
128. 公司为我提供了继续深造的机会。
129. 我在工作中有足够的责任感。
130. 我在工作中得到了领导的全力支持。
131. 我的工作为我提供了学习新技能的机会。
132. 我在工作的时候最开心。
133. 我全身心投入到我的工作中。
134. 我的工作内容基本都是我真正喜欢做的。
135. 我受到同事们的尊敬。
136. 我收到很好的绩效评估反馈。
137. 我得到同事们的接纳认可。
138. 我受到上级的信任。
139. 与同事相比，我获得了公平的报酬。
140. 与同事相比，我的收入很高。
141. 我认为我的收入和付出的努力成正比。
142. 我对迄今所获得的晋升感到满意。
143. 我正在自己所设定的时间范围内实现我的职业目标。
144. 我目前的工作有晋升机会。
145. 我对自己的个人生活很满意。
146. 我很享受我的业余活动。
147. 我对我的生活总体上感到满意。

148. 我全身心投入到我的工作中。

请回顾一下新冠疫情危机，并用 1-7 分（1=非常不同意，7=非常同意）的评估标准回答以下问题：

149. 我觉得这件事已成为我生活的一部分

150. 这件事已成为我理解自己和世界的一个参考点

151. 我觉得这件事已成为我人生阅历的核心部分

152. 这件事影响了我对其他经验的思考和感受

153. 这件事永久地改变了我的生活

154. 我经常想这件事对我的未来会有何影响

155. 这件事是我人生的一个转折点

156. 请用 1-7 分对您在中欧的学习体验进行打分。

157. 在 FMBA 课程学习期间，您一共上过多少节线上课程？

## Appendix A-2. Study 1 Survey Questionnaire English version

Dear FMBA Class of 2019 & 2020,


As graduation season approaches, the FMBA Program Office is honored to have shared this learning journey with you. We invite you to review your personal progress and study experience at CEIBS so we can learn from your feedback and keep improving.

This series of surveys has two parts: the Leadership & Career Development Survey and the Graduation Survey. You'll receive 5 Golden Bull points for each survey you complete, and finishing both lets you draw a CEIBS Bear blind box at the graduation ceremony.

The link below is for the Leadership & Career Development Survey, aimed at tracking your growth since joining CEIBS. To ensure your answers reflect your current situation accurately, please note:

The survey has about 150 questions and takes roughly 20 minutes. Set aside uninterrupted time. There are no right or wrong answers—choose what best matches your circumstances.

Some questions appear in similar forms to improve accuracy; read them carefully.

 Please submit the questionnaire by 24:00 on Thursday, 10 November. Thank you!

1. Name
2. Class

***Please evaluate the following contents with 1-7 points (1=very disagree, 7=very agree)***

3. I can easily imagine my future self as a leader.
4. The mental picture of this future as a leader is very clear.
5. This future as a leader is very easy for me to imagine.
6. I am very clear about who and what I want to become as a leader in my future work. What type of future I want in relation to being a leader is very clear in my mind.
7. Perform the tasks necessary to be a successful leader.
8. Concentrate well enough to be successful.
9. Think and respond successfully in leadership situations.
10. Bounce back from a major leadership setback and succeed.
11. Adapt to different leadership situations and be successful.
12. The opportunity to do challenging work is important to me.
13. When I fail to complete a difficult task, I plan to try harder the next time I work on it.
14. I prefer to work on tasks that force me to learn new things.
15. The opportunity to learn new things is important to me.
16. I do my best when I' m working on a fairly difficult task.
17. I try hard to improve on my past performance.
18. The opportunity to extend the range of my abilities is important to me.
19. When I have difficulty solving a problem, I enjoy trying different approaches to see which one will work.
20. I prefer to do things that I can do well rather than things that I do poorly.
21. I' m happiest at work when I perform tasks on which I know that I won' t make any errors.
22. The things I enjoy the most are the things I do the best.
23. The opinions others have about how well I can do certain things are important to me.
24. I feel smart when I do something without making any mistakes.
25. I like to be fairly confident that I can successfully perform a task before I attempt it.
26. I like to work on tasks that I have done well on in the past.
27. I feel smart when I can do something better than most other people.
28. Even if I know that I did a good job on something, I' m satisfied only if others recognize my accomplishments. \*
29. It is important to impress others by doing a good job. \*

***“How descriptive is each statement of you?”***

***(1 = Not at all descriptive, 7 = Extremely descriptive)***

30. I am a leader.
31. I see myself as a leader.
32. If I had to describe myself to others, I would include the word "leader".
33. I prefer being seen by others as a leader.
34. I am a leader.
35. I see myself as a leader.
36. If I had to describe myself to others, I would include the word "leader".
37. I prefer being seen by others as a leader.
38. I am a leader.
39. I see myself as a leader.
40. If I had to describe myself to others, I would include the word "leader".
41. I prefer being seen by others as a leader.
42. I am a follower.

43. I see myself as a follower.
44. If I had to describe myself to others, I would include the word "follower" .
45. I prefer being seen by others as a follower.
46. I feel like being a good leader interferes with being a good follower.
47. I feel like being a leader is opposite to being a follower.
48. I am glad that I am both a follower and a leader.
49. I am a better leader because I am also a follower.
50. I am a better follower because I am also a leader.
51. Life would be easier if I were only a follower or a leader, not both.
52. I appreciate being a follower because it helps me be a leader.
53. I appreciate being a leader because it helps me be a follower.
54. I imagine being a leader excludes me from being a follower
55. I think once I had gained leadership experience, I became reluctant to be a follower.
56. I believe followers should make every effort to become a leader and stop being a follower.
57. I could be a better leader if I were a follower at the same time.
58. I could be a better follower if I were a leader at the same time.
59. I believe there is no leadership without followership.
60. Most of the time, I prefer being a leader rather than a follower when working in a group.
61. I am the type of person who is not interested to lead others (R).
62. I am definitely not a leader by nature (R).
63. I am the type of person who likes to be in charge of others.
64. I believe I can contribute more to a group if I am a follower rather than a leader (R).
65. I usually want to be the leader in the groups that I work in.
66. I am the type who would actively support a leader but prefers not to be appointed as leader (R).
67. I have a tendency to take charge in most groups or teams that I work in.
68. I am seldom reluctant to be the leader of a group.
69. I feel that I have a duty to lead others if I am asked.
70. I agree to lead whenever I am asked or nominated by the other members.
71. I was taught to believe in the value of leading others.
72. It is appropriate for people to accept leadership roles or positions when they are asked.
73. I have been taught that I should always volunteer to lead others if I can.
74. It is not right to decline leadership roles.
75. It is an honour and a privilege to be asked to lead.
76. People should volunteer to lead rather than wait for others to ask or vote for them.
77. I would never agree to lead just because others voted for me to be a leader (R).
78. I am only interested to lead a group if there are clear advantages for me (R).
79. I will never agree to lead if I cannot see any benefits from accepting that role (R).
80. I would only agree to be a group leader if I know I can benefit from that role (R).
81. I would agree to lead others even if there are no special rewards or benefits with that role.
82. I would want to know "what' s in it for me" if I am going to agree to lead a group (R).
83. I never expect to get more privileges if I agree to lead a group.
84. If I agree to lead a group, I would never expect any advantages or special benefits.
85. I have more of my own problems to worry about than to be concerned about the rest of the group (R).
86. Leading others is really more of a dirty job rather than an honourable one (R).
87. You can learn new things, but you can' t really change how intelligent you are.
88. You can always change basic things about the kind of person that you are.
89. No matter how much intelligence you have, you can always change it quite a bit.

90. You can do things differently, but the important parts of who you are can't really be changed.
91. You are a certain kind of person, and there is not much that can really be done to change that
92. No matter what kind of person you are, you can always change substantially
93. Your intelligence is something very basic about you that can't change very much.
94. You can always substantially change how intelligent you are.
95. I am able to think through a number of possible options to assist me in a new situation.
96. I am able to revise the way I think about a new situation to help me through it.
97. I am able to adjust my thinking or expectations to assist me in a new situation.
98. I am able to seek out new information, helpful people, or useful resources to effectively deal with new situations.
99. In uncertain situations, I am able to develop new ways of going about things (e.g., a different way of asking questions or finding information) to help me through.
100. To assist me in a new situation, I am able to change the way I do things.
101. I am able to reduce negative emotions (e.g., fear) to help me deal with uncertain situations.
102. When uncertainty arises, I am able to minimize frustration or irritation so I can deal with it best.
103. To help me through new situations, I am able to draw on positive feelings and emotions (e.g., enjoyment, satisfaction).
104. I tend to bounce back quickly after hard times.
105. I have a hard time making it through stressful events.
106. It does not take me long to recover from a stressful event.
107. It is hard for me to snap back when something bad happens.
108. I usually come through difficult times with little trouble.
109. I tend to take a long time to get over set-backs in my life.
110. Even if there was downsizing in this organisation I am confident that I would be retained;
111. My personal networks in this organization help me in my career.
112. I am aware of the opportunities arising in this organisation even if they are different to what I do now.
113. The skills I have gained in my present job are transferable to other occupations outside this organisation.
114. I could easily retrain to make myself more employable elsewhere.
115. I have a good knowledge of opportunities for me outside of this organisation even if they are quite different to what I do now.
116. Among the people who do the same job as me, I am well respected in this organisation.
117. If I needed to, I could easily get another job like mine in a similar organisation.
118. I could easily get a similar job to mine in almost any organization
119. Anyone with my level of skills and knowledge, and similar job and organisational experience, will be highly sought after by employers
120. I could get any job, anywhere, so long as my skills and experience were reasonably relevant.
121. I can find any job, anywhere, as long as it is relevant to my skills and experience.
122. I am satisfied with the success I have achieved in my career.
123. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my overall career goals.
124. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for income.
125. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for advancement.
126. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for the development of new skills.
127. I am receiving positive feedback about my performance from all quarters.
128. I am offered opportunities for further education by my employer.
129. I have enough responsibility on my job.
130. I am fully backed by managers in my work.

- 131. I am in a job which offers me the chance to learn new skills.
- 132. I am most happy when I am at work.
- 133. I am dedicated to my work.
- 134. I am in a position to do mostly work which I really like.
- 135. I am respected by my peers.
- 136. I am getting good performance evaluations.
- 137. I am accepted by my peers.
- 138. I have my superior's confidence
- 139. I am receiving fair compensation compared to my peers.
- 140. I am drawing a high income compared to my peers.
- 141. I am earning as much as I think my work is worth.
- 142. I am pleased with the promotions I have received so far.
- 143. I am reaching my career goals within the time frame I set for myself.
- 144. I am in a job which offers promotional opportunities.
- 145. I am happy with my private life.
- 146. I am enjoying my non-work activities.
- 147. I am satisfied with my life overall.
- 148. I am dedicated to my work.

**Please think back on the Covid-19 health crisis and answer the following questions using a scale from 1 (Totally disagree) to 5 (Totally agree).**

**1**Totally disagree      **5**Totally agree

- 149. I feel that this event has become part of my identity
- 150. This event has become a reference point for the way I understand myself and the world
- 151. I feel that this event has become a central part of my life story
- 152. This event has colored the way I think and feel about other experiences
- 153. This event permanently changed my life
- 154. I often think about the effects this event will have on my future
- 155. This event was a turning point in my life
- 156. Overall rating of CEIBS Experience
- 157. No. of online courses taken

## Appendix C Study 2 Materials

### Appendix C-1. Survey Questionnaire Administered for Study 2 Time 1 (Chinese Version)

#### FMBA2022 级 问卷


各位 FMBA2022 级的同学，

以下调查是中欧金融 MBA“领导力发展之旅”的重要组成部分，旨在了解您中欧学习期间的成长轨迹，以更好地帮助课程部为您安排相应的课程及活动，助力您的个人发展与成长。

本系列调查将分 3 次进行，分别是 2022 年 9 月、2023 年 2 月以及 2024 年 11 月。我们后续会对收集到的信息进行数据分析，并将结果反馈给您。

为全面客观反映您当下的真实情况，请注意如下事项：

1. 本次调研共有 116 题，约需 20 分钟完成，请您预留完整时间并在不被打扰的环境下进行。
2. 为确保评估的准确性，有些问题会以较类似的形式出现，请注意甄别。

 请在 9 月 13 日（下周二）晚 24 点前完成本次问卷。

#### 背景信息

1. 您的姓名
2. 您的班级
3. 您参加过多少次领导力相关的研讨会或工作坊

**请用 1-7 分评估以下内容 (1=非常不同意, 7=非常同意)**

4. 我很容易就能想象到自己未来作为领导者的样子。
5. 我对于自己作为领导者的未来有着非常清晰的心理图景。
6. 对我来说，要想象自己作为领导者的未来是一件很容易的事。
7. 我非常清楚在未来的工作中，我希望自己作为领导者将扮演什么角色、起到怎样的作用。
8. 关于自己作为领导者想要的是何种未来，我的头脑中有非常明确的期许。
9. 如果是在一个群体中工作，我大多数时候更喜欢做领导者而非追随者。
10. 我是那种对领导他人不感兴趣的人。(R)
11. 我绝对不是个天生的领导者。(R)
12. 我是那种喜欢负责管理他人的人。

13. 我相信，如果我在一个群体中是追随者而非领导者，我将能够为这个群体做出更多贡献。(R)
14. 当我在群体中工作时，我通常想要成为所在群体的领导者。
15. 我是那种积极支持领导者的人，但不愿意被任命为领导者。(R)
16. 我在群体或团队中工作时，大多会倾向于成为所在群体或团队的负责人。
17. 我很少会不愿做一个群体中的领导者。
18. 只有在对我有明显好处的情况下，我才有兴趣领导一个群体。(R)
19. 如果我看不到承担领导角色能给我带来什么惠益，我是绝不会同意成为领导者的。(R)
20. 只有知道自己可以从中受益时，我才会同意担任一个群体的领导者。(R)
21. 即使没有特殊的报酬或福利，我也会同意去领导他人。
22. 在我同意领导一个群体之前，我会想要知道“这对我有何益处”。(R)
23. 如果我同意领导一个群体，我从不期望能因此获得更多特权。
24. 如果我同意领导一个群体，我从不期望能因此得到任何好处或特殊利益。
25. 我更多地是担心自己的问题，而不是群体中其他成员的问题。
26. 领导他人其实更多的是一项吃力不讨好的苦差事，而不是什么荣耀的工作。(R)
27. 我觉得我有义务应要求去领导他人。
28. 只要其他成员对我提出要求或作出提名，我就会同意成为领导者。
29. 我接受的教导是：要相信领导他人是有价值的。
30. 应要求去承担领导角色或担任领导职位是一种恰当的行为。
31. 我一直以来接受的教导是：如果可能的话，我应该总是自告奋勇地去领导别人。
32. 拒绝承担领导角色是不对的。
33. 被要求成为领导者是一种荣耀。
34. 人们应该自告奋勇地去成为领导者，而不是等着别人要求他们或投票给他们。
35. 我绝不会只是因为别人投票给我就同意成为领导者。(R)

**与你所知最自信的领导者相比，你对自己的以下能力有多少信心？**

**请用 1-7 分评估以下表述 (1= 非常没有信心, 7= 非常有信心) :**

36. 我能履行作为一名成功的领导者所必须完成的各种任务。
37. 我有足够的专注力去取得成功。
38. 我能在各种领导力情境中进行有效的思考并成功加以应对。
39. 我能在领导工作遭遇重大挫折后迅速重整旗鼓并取得成功。
40. 我能适应不同的领导力情境并取得成功。

**请用 1-7 分评估以下内容 (1=非常不同意, 7=非常同意)**

41. 我更喜欢做自己能做好的事，而不太喜欢做自己做不好的事。
42. 工作中最让我感到开心的情形就是我在履行某些任务，而我知道自己不会在这些任务上出任何差错。
43. 我最乐于做自己最擅长的事。
44. 别人认为我能在某些事上做到多好，此类看法对于我来说十分重要。
45. 当我做某件事不出差错时，我觉得自己很聪明。
46. 我喜欢在尝试做一项任务之前，对于自己能够成功履行该项任务充满信心。
47. 我喜欢做自己以往擅长的任务。

48. 当我做某件事能做得比大多数人更好时，我觉得自己很聪明。
49. 即使我知道自己在某件事上做得很好，但只有得到他人的认可，我才会感到满意。
50. 通过出色完成任务给别人留下深刻的印象，这一点很重要。\*
51. 有机会做富有挑战性的工作对我来说很重要。
52. 当我没能完成一项艰难的任务时，我会谋划下次再做同样的任务时要尝试更加努力。
53. 我更喜欢做那些会迫使我学习新事物的任务。
54. 有机会学习新事物对我来说很重要。
55. 我在做一项相当困难的任务时会竭尽所能。
56. 我努力在以往绩效表现的基础上改进提升。
57. 有机会拓展自己的能力对我来说很重要。
58. 如果我在解决问题时遇到困难，我会乐于尝试多种不同方法，看其中哪种方法奏效。

- 以下描述与你的相符程度如何？（1 = 完全不相符, 7 = 极为相符）

- 你对上述评分有多确定？（1 = 完全不确定, 7 = 极为确定）

59. 我是一个领导者。
60. 我视自己为一个领导者。
61. 如果我要向别人描述自己，我会在描述中用到“领导者”这个词。
62. 我更喜欢被别人视为一个领导者。

你对以下这项上述自己的评分有多肯定？

63. 我是一个领导者。
64. 我视自己为一个领导者。
65. 如果我要向别人描述自己，我会在描述中用到“领导者”这个词。
66. 我更喜欢被别人视为一个领导者。

这每一项关于自己的看法对你来说有多重要？（1 = 完全不重要, 7 = 极为重要）

67. 我是一个领导者。
68. 我视自己为一个领导者。
69. 如果我要向别人描述自己，我会在描述中用到“领导者”这个词。
70. 我更喜欢被别人视为一个领导者。

以下描述与你的相符程度如何？

**（1 = 完全不相符, 7 = 极为相符）**

71. 我是一个追随者。
72. 我视自己为一个追随者。
73. 如果我要向别人描述自己，我会在描述中用到“追随者”这个词。
74. 我更喜欢被别人视为一个追随者。

**请用 1-7 分评估以下内容（1=非常不同意, 7=非常同意）**

75. 我觉得做一个好的领导者和做一个好的追随者会相互干扰。
76. 我觉得做领导者和做追随者是相反的。
77. 我很高兴我既是追随者又是领导者。

78. 我是一个更好的领导者，因为我也是一个追随者。
79. 我是一个更好的追随者，因为我也是一个领导者。
80. 如果我只是一个追随者，或者只是一个领导者，而不是兼具两种角色，生活会更容易一些。
81. 我庆幸自己是一个追随者，因为这有助于我做一个领导者。
82. 我庆幸自己是一个领导者，因为这有助于我做一个追随者。
83. 在我的想象中，做领导者就不能做追随者。
84. 我认为自己一旦获得了领导经验，就会变得不愿做一个追随者。
85. 我相信追随者应该竭尽全力成为领导者，而不再做追随者。
86. 如果我同时也是一个追随者，我能成为一个更好的领导者。
87. 如果我同时也是一个领导者，我能成为一个更好的追随者。
88. 我相信没有追随就没有领导。
89. 我正在规划未来几年自己作为领导者所要实现的目标。
90. 我正在对未来几年进行前瞻性的思考，并规划自己作为领导者需要采取哪些行动来得到进一步的发展。
91. 我致力于规划自己作为领导者的未来发展。
92. 我最近开始更多地思考自己作为领导者，希望在未来一两年内取得什么成绩。
93. 我所发展的领导力技能也许眼下不太需要，但在未来的领导岗位上有用。
94. 我在各种领域获取领导经验，以提升我作为领导者的知识和技能。
95. 我通过各种任务发展自己的领导力知识和技能，这对于我作为领导者的未来具有至关重要的意义。
96. 我向我的上司或同事寻求建议，了解我作为领导者需要增加哪些培训或经验来获得改进提升。
97. 我会主动和我的上司讨论，看我需要通过哪些培训或工作任务来发展自己的技能，以助力我作为领导者的未来发展。
98. 我让我的上司知晓我在领导力方面的抱负和目标。
99. 我正在打造同事中的人脉网络，以获取有关如何发挥领导力的信息，并/或确定人们对于我的期望和要求。
100. 我正在打造人脉网络，希望藉此获得帮助和/或建议，从而进一步推动我作为领导者的发展。
101. 我正在打造同事关系网络，以期在我作为领导者的发展过程中能够寻求并获得支持。
102. 你可以学习新事物，但你无法真正改变自己的智力。
103. 一些基本要素造就了你是哪种人，而你总是可以改变这些基本要素。
104. 无论你的智力有多高，你总是能令其发生相当大的改变。
105. 你可以改变做事方式，但有些重要的部分造就了你是谁，这些是无法真正改变的。
106. 你是某一种人，而这基本上无法真正改变。
107. 无论你是哪一种人，你总是可以发生实质性的改变。
108. 你的智力是非常基本的东西，无法有实质性的改变。
109. 你总是可以让自己的智力发生实质性的改变。
110. 在经历了困难时期之后，我往往能很快就重整旗鼓。

- 111. 我很难度过高压事件。
  - 112. 我不用很长时间就能从高压事件中恢复过来。
  - 113. 当不好的事情发生时，我很难迅速振作起来。
  - 114. 度过困难时期对我来说通常不成问题。
  - 115. 当生活中遭遇挫折时，我往往要花很长时间才能缓过劲来。
  - 116. 请想出一个你心目中理想领导者的形象，然后再想想你自己。你个人的形象有多接近于这个理想领导者的形象？
- 请从-10到10，选择一个分数来你自己的形象和你心目中理想领导者的形象之间的契合度。
- 10=完全相左    0=不相符    10=完全契合

## Appendix C-2. Survey Questionnaire Administered for Study 2 Time 1 (English Version)


Dear FMBA Class of 2022,

This survey is a key part of the CEIBS Finance MBA “Leadership Development Journey.” It aims to capture your growth during your studies so the Program Office can better design courses and activities that support your development.

The series will run three times: September 2022, February 2023, and November 2024. We will analyze the data collected and share the findings with you.

To ensure an accurate picture of your current situation, please note:

1. The survey has 116 questions and takes about 20 minutes. Set aside uninterrupted time to complete it.
2. Some questions appear in similar forms to improve accuracy; read them carefully.

 Please submit the questionnaire by 24:00 on Tuesday, 13 September. Thank you!

### ***Background Information***

1. Name
2. Student ID
3. How many years of team management experience do you have?

### ***Please evaluate the following contents with 1-7 points (1=very disagree, 7=very agree)***

4. I can easily imagine my future self as a leader.
5. The mental picture of this future as a leader is very clear.
6. This future as a leader is very easy for me to imagine.
7. I am very clear about who and what I want to become as a leader in my future work.
8. What type of future I want in relation to being a leader is very clear in my mind.
9. Most of the time, I prefer being a leader rather than a follower when working in a group.
10. I am the type of person who is not interested to lead others (R).
11. I am definitely not a leader by nature (R).
12. I am the type of person who likes to be in charge of others.
13. I believe I can contribute more to a group if I am a follower rather than a leader (R).
14. I usually want to be the leader in the groups that I work in.
15. I am the type who would actively support a leader but prefers not to be appointed as leader (R).
16. I have a tendency to take charge in most groups or teams that I work in.
17. I am seldom reluctant to be the leader of a group.
18. I am only interested to lead a group if there are clear advantages for me (R).
19. I will never agree to lead if I cannot see any benefits from accepting that role (R).
20. I would only agree to be a group leader if I know I can benefit from that role (R).
21. I would agree to lead others even if there are no special rewards or benefits with that role.
22. I would want to know "what's in it for me" if I am going to agree to lead a group (R).
23. I never expect to get more privileges if I agree to lead a group.
24. If I agree to lead a group, I would never expect any advantages or special benefits.
25. I have more of my own problems to worry about than to be concerned about the rest of the group (R).

26. Leading others is really more of a dirty job rather than an honourable one (R).
27. I feel that I have a duty to lead others if I am asked.
28. I agree to lead whenever I am asked or nominated by the other members.
29. I was taught to believe in the value of leading others.
30. It is appropriate for people to accept leadership roles or positions when they are asked.
31. I have been taught that I should always volunteer to lead others if I can.
32. It is not right to decline leadership roles.
33. It is an honour and a privilege to be asked to lead.
34. People should volunteer to lead rather than wait for others to ask or vote for them.
35. I would never agree to lead just because others voted for me to be a leader (R).
36. Perform the tasks necessary to be a successful leader.
37. Concentrate well enough to be successful.
38. Think and respond successfully in leadership situations.
39. Bounce back from a major leadership setback and succeed.
40. Adapt to different leadership situations and be successful.
41. I prefer to do things that I can do well rather than things that I do poorly.
42. I'm happiest at work when I perform tasks on which I know that I won't make any errors.
43. The things I enjoy the most are the things I do the best.
44. The opinions others have about how well I can do certain things are important to me.
45. I feel smart when I do something without making any mistakes.
46. I like to be fairly confident that I can successfully perform a task before I attempt it.
47. I like to work on tasks that I have done well on in the past.
48. I feel smart when I can do something better than most other people.
49. Even if I know that I did a good job on something, I'm satisfied only if others recognize my accomplishments. \*
50. It is important to impress others by doing a good job. \*
51. The opportunity to do challenging work is important to me.
52. When I fail to complete a difficult task, I plan to try harder the next time I work on it.
53. I prefer to work on tasks that force me to learn new things.
54. The opportunity to learn new things is important to me.
55. I do my best when I'm working on a fairly difficult task.
56. I try hard to improve on my past performance.
57. The opportunity to extend the range of my abilities is important to me.
58. When I have difficulty solving a problem, I enjoy trying different approaches to see which one will work.

- **"How descriptive is each statement of you?"**

*(1 = Not at all descriptive, 7 = Extremely descriptive)*

59. I am a leader.
60. I see myself as a leader.
61. If I had to describe myself to others, I would include the word "leader".
62. I prefer being seen by others as a leader.

-**"How certain are you about the rating you gave for each statement above?"**

*(1 = Not at all certain, 7 = Extremely certain)*

63. I am a leader.
64. I see myself as a leader.
65. If I had to describe myself to others, I would include the word "leader".
66. I prefer being seen by others as a leader.

**-“How important to you is this view of yourself?”**

**(1 = Not at all important, 7 = Extremely important)**

67. I am a leader.
68. I see myself as a leader.
69. If I had to describe myself to others, I would include the word "leader".
70. I prefer being seen by others as a leader.

**- “How descriptive is each statement of you?”**

**(1 = Not at all descriptive, 7 = Extremely descriptive)**

71. I am a follower.
72. I see myself as a follower.
73. If I had to describe myself to others, I would include the word “follower”.
74. I prefer being seen by others as a follower.

***Please evaluate the following contents with 1-7 points (1=very disagree, 7=very agree)***

75. I feel like being a good leader interferes with being a good follower.
76. I feel like being a leader is opposite to being a follower.
77. I am glad that I am both a follower and a leader.
78. I am a better leader because I am also a follower.
79. I am a better follower because I am also a leader.
80. Life would be easier if I were only a follower or a leader, not both.
81. I appreciate being a follower because it helps me be a leader.
82. I appreciate being a leader because it helps me be a follower.
83. I imagine being a leader excludes me from being a follower
84. I think once I had gained leadership experience, I became reluctant to be a follower.
85. I believe followers should make every effort to become a leader and stop being a follower.
86. I could be a better leader if I were a follower at the same time.
87. I could be a better follower if I were a leader at the same time.
88. I believe there is no leadership without followership.
89. I am planning what I want to achieve as a leader in the next few years.
90. I am thinking ahead to the next few years and planning what I need to do to develop further as a leader.
91. I engage in planning for my future development as a leader.
92. I have recently begun to think more about what I would like to accomplish as a leader during the next year or two.
93. I develop leadership skills which may not be needed so much now, but in future leadership positions.
94. I gain leadership experience in a variety of areas to increase my knowledge and skills as a leader.
95. I develop leadership knowledge and skill in tasks critical to my future as a leader.
96. I seek advice from my supervisor(s) or colleagues about additional training or experience I need in order to improve myself as a leader.
97. I initiate talks with my supervisor about training or work assignments I need to develop skills that will help my future development as a leader.
98. I make my supervisor aware of my aspirations and goals to lead.
99. I am building a network of contacts or friendships with colleagues to obtain information about how to lead and/or to determine what is expected of me.

100. I am building a network of contacts or friendships to provide me with help and/or advice that will further my chances to develop as a leader.
101. I am building a network of colleagues I can call on for support as I develop as a leader.
102. You can learn new things, but you can't really change how intelligent you are.
103. You can always change basic things about the kind of person that you are.
104. No matter how much intelligence you have, you can always change it quite a bit.
105. You can do things differently, but the important parts of who you are can't really be changed.
106. You are a certain kind of person, and there is not much that can really be done to change that
107. No matter what kind of person you are, you can always change substantially
108. Your intelligence is something very basic about you that can't change very much.
109. You can always substantially change how intelligent you are.
110. I tend to bounce back quickly after hard times.
111. I have a hard time making it through stressful events.
112. It does not take me long to recover from a stressful event.
113. It is hard for me to snap back when something bad happens.
114. I usually come through difficult times with little trouble.
115. I tend to take a long time to get over set-backs in my life.
116. Please think of an image of your ideal leader, and then think about yourself. How close is your personal image to the image of the ideal leader?

***-10= completely to the left, 0=not to match, 10=completely to match***

Please choose a score from -10 to 10 to measure how you match your ideal leader.

## Appendix C-3 Study 2 Survey Questionnaire Administered Time 2 (Chinese Version)

各位 FMBA2022 级的同学,

领导力发展调研问卷旨在了解您中欧学习期间的成长轨迹, 以更好地帮助课程部为您安排相应的课程及活动、助力您的个人发展与成长。

本次是领导力发展系列调研的第二轮问卷, 第一轮调研已在 2022 年 9 月进行, 为确保调研结果的有效性, 需要全体同学的积极参与。

为全面客观反映您当下的真实情况, 请注意如下事项:

1. 本次调研共有 96 题, 约需 15 分钟完成, 请您预留完整时间并在不被打扰的环境下进行。
2. 为确保评估的准确性, 有些问题会以较类似的形式出现, 请注意甄别。
3. 题目选项无对错之分, 请选择最符合自己情况的选项。

🕒 请在 2 月 28 日 (周二) 晚 24 点前完成本次问卷。

### 背景信息

1. 您的姓名
2. 您的班级

**请用 1-7 分评估以下内容 (1=非常不同意, 7=非常同意)**

3. 我很容易就能想象到自己未来作为领导者的样子。
4. 我对于自己作为领导者的未来有着非常清晰的心理图景。
5. 对我来说, 要想象自己作为领导者的未来是一件很容易的事。
6. 我非常清楚在未来的工作中, 我希望自己作为领导者将扮演什么角色、起到怎样的作用。
7. 关于自己作为领导者想要的是何种未来, 我的头脑中有非常明确的期许。

**与你所知最自信的领导者相比, 你对自己的以下能力有多少信心?**

**请用 1-7 分评估以下表述 (1=非常没有信心, 7=非常有信心)**

8. 我能履行作为一名成功的领导者所必须完成的各种任务。
9. 我有足够的专注力去取得成功。
10. 我能在各种领导力情境中进行有效的思考并成功加以应对。
11. 我能在领导工作遭遇重大挫折后迅速重整旗鼓并取得成功。

12. 我能适应不同的领导力情境并取得成功。

以下描述与你的相符程度如何？（1 = 完全不相符, 7 = 极为相符）

13. 我是一个领导者。

14. 我视自己为一个领导者。

15. 如果我要向别人描述自己，我会在描述中用到“领导者”这个词。

16. 我更喜欢被别人视为一个领导者。

你对上述评分有多确定？（1 = 完全不确定, 7 = 极为确定）

17. 我是一个领导者。

18. 我视自己为一个领导者。

19. 如果我要向别人描述自己，我会在描述中用到“领导者”这个词。

20. 我更喜欢被别人视为一个领导者。

这每一项关于自己的看法对你来说有多重要？（1 = 完全不重要, 7 = 极为重要）

21. 我是一个领导者。

22. 我视自己为一个领导者。

23. 如果我要向别人描述自己，我会在描述中用到“领导者”这个词。

24. 我更喜欢被别人视为一个领导者。

以下描述与你的相符程度如何？（1 = 完全不相符, 7 = 极为相符）

25. 我是一个追随者。

26. 我视自己为一个追随者。

27. 如果我要向别人描述自己，我会在描述中用到“追随者”这个词。

28. 我更喜欢被别人视为一个追随者。

请用 1-7 分评估以下内容（1 = 非常不同意, 7 = 非常同意）

29. 我觉得做一个好的领导者和做一个好的追随者会相互干扰。

30. 我觉得做领导者和做追随者是相反的。

31. 我很高兴我既是追随者又是领导者。

32. 我是一个更好的领导者，因为我也是一个追随者。
33. 我是一个更好的追随者，因为我也是一个领导者。
34. 如果我只是一个追随者，或者只是一个领导者，而不是兼具两种角色，生活会更容易一些。
35. 我庆幸自己是一个追随者，因为这有助于我做一个领导者。
36. 我庆幸自己是一个领导者，因为这有助于我做一个追随者。
37. 在我的想象中，做领导者就不能做追随者。
38. 我认为自己一旦获得了领导经验，就会变得不愿做一个追随者。
39. 我相信追随者应该竭尽全力成为领导者，而不再做追随者。
40. 如果我同时也是一个追随者，我能成为一个更好的领导者。
41. 如果我同时也是一个领导者，我能成为一个更好的追随者。
42. 我相信没有追随就没有领导。
43. 即使公司要裁员，我也有信心会继续留下来。
44. 我在公司中的人际关系网对我的事业有帮助。
45. 我会留意到公司中出现的机，即使它们与我目前从事的工作有所不同。
46. 我在目前的工作中所获得的技能可以应用到公司之外的其他职业。
47. 我可以很容易地接受再培训，使自己在其他领域更具就业优势。
48. 我对公司以外的机会非常了解，即使它们与我现在的工作有很大不同。
49. 在从事相同工作的人群中，我很受公司尊敬。
50. 如有需要，我可以很容易地在同类组织中找到另一份像现在这样的工作。
51. 我几乎可以在任何组织中轻松找到与现在类似的工作。
52. 任何具备我这样的技能和知识水平，又有类似工作和组织经验的人，都会受到雇主的青睐。
53. 只要与我的技能和经验相关，我可以在任何地方找到任何工作。
54. 我能够认真考虑多种可行的选择方案，来帮助我应对新局势。
55. 我能够改变对新局势的思考方式，来帮助我顺利过渡。
56. 我能够调整我的想法和预期，来帮助我应对新局势。
57. 我能够找到新的信息、有帮助的人或资源，来有效应对新局势。

58. 在不确定的情况下，我能够找到并形成新的处理方法（例如，换一种方式提问或查找信息），来帮助我度过难关。
59. 为了适应新局势，我能够改变我的做事方式。
60. 我能够减少负面情绪（例如，恐惧），来帮助我处理不确定的情况。
61. 出现不确定性时，我能够尽量减少沮丧或不悦情绪，以便以最好的状态应对它。
62. 为了帮助我顺利应对新局势，我能够利用积极的感受和情绪（例如，愉悦感，满足感）。
63. 我对自己在职业生涯中取得的成功感到满意。
64. 我对自己在实现整体职业目标方面所取得的进展感到满意。
65. 我对自己在实现收入目标方面所取得的进展感到满意。
66. 我对自己在实现晋升目标方面所取得的进展感到满意。
67. 我对自己在实现新技能发展目标方面所取得的进展感到满意。
68. 我收到了来自各方有关我表现的积极反馈。
69. 我的公司为我提供了继续深造的机会。
70. 我在工作中有足够的责任感。
71. 我在工作中得到了领导的全力支持。
72. 我的工作为我提供了学习新技能的机会。
73. 我在工作的时候最开心。
74. 我全身心投入到我的工作中。
75. 我的工作内容基本都是我真正喜欢做的。
- 76.**我受到同事们的尊敬。
- 77.**我收到很好的绩效评估反馈。
- 78.**我得到同事们的接纳认可。
- 79.**我受到上级的信任。
80. 与同事相比，我获得了公平的报酬。
81. 与同事相比，我的收入很高。
82. 我认为我的收入和付出的努力成正比。
83. 我对迄今所获得的晋升感到满意。
84. 我正在自己所设定的时间范围内实现我的职业目标。

- 85. 我现在的工作有晋升机会。
- 86. 我对自己的个人生活很满意。
- 87. 我很享受我的业余活动。
- 88. 我对我的生活总体上感到满意。
- 89. 我全身心投入到我的工作中。

请回顾一下新冠疫情危机，并用 1-7 分（1=非常不同意，7=非常同意）的评估标准回答以下问题：

- 90. 我觉得这件事已成为我生活的一部分
- 91. 这件事已成为我理解自己和世界的一个参考点
- 92. 我觉得这件事已成为我人生阅历的核心部分
- 93. 这件事影响了我对其他经历思考和感受
- 94. 这件事永久地改变了我的生活
- 95. 我经常想这件事对我的未来会有何影响
- 96. 这件事是我人生的一个转折点

## Appendix C-4. Study 2 Time 2 Survey Questionnaire Administered (English Version)


Dear FMBA Class of 2022,

The Leadership Development Survey tracks your growth at CEIBS so the Program Office can better tailor courses and activities to support you.

This is the second round of the survey; the first ran in September 2022. Your participation is essential for valid results.

To ensure an accurate picture of your current situation, please note:

1. The survey has 96 questions and takes about 15 minutes. Set aside uninterrupted time to complete it.
2. Some questions appear in similar forms to improve accuracy; read them carefully.
3. There are no right or wrong answers—select the option that best matches your circumstances.

 Please submit your responses by 24:00 on Tuesday, 28 February. Thank you!

### ***Background Information***

1. Name
2. Class

***Please evaluate the following contents with 1-7 points (1=very disagree, 7=very agree)***

3. I can easily imagine my future self as a leader.
4. The mental picture of this future as a leader is very clear.
5. This future as a leader is very easy for me to imagine.
6. I am very clear about who and what I want to become as a leader in my future work.
7. What type of future I want in relation to being a leader is very clear in my mind.

***- “Compared to the most confident leader you know, how would you rate your confidence in your ability to:” (1= Strongly disagree, 7 = Strongly agree)***

8. Perform the tasks necessary to be a successful leader.
9. Concentrate well enough to be successful.
10. Think and respond successfully in leadership situations.
11. Bounce back from a major leadership setback and succeed.
12. Adapt to different leadership situations and be successful.

***- “How descriptive is each statement of you?” (1 = Not at all descriptive, 7 = Extremely descriptive)***

13. I am a leader.
14. I see myself as a leader.
15. If I had to describe myself to others, I would include the word "leader".
16. I prefer being seen by others as a leader.

***-“How certain are you about the rating you gave for each statement above?” (1 = Not at all certain, 7 = Extremely certain)***

17. I am a leader.

18. I see myself as a leader.
19. If I had to describe myself to others, I would include the word "leader".
20. I prefer being seen by others as a leader.
- "How certain are you about the rating you gave for each statement above?"***  
(1 = *Not at all certain*, 7 = *Extremely certain*)
21. I am a leader.
22. I see myself as a leader.
23. If I had to describe myself to others, I would include the word "leader".
24. I prefer being seen by others as a leader.
- ***"How descriptive is each statement of you?"*** (1 = *Not at all descriptive*, 7 = *Extremely descriptive*)
25. I am a follower.
26. I see myself as a follower.
27. If I had to describe myself to others, I would include the word "follower".
28. I prefer being seen by others as a follower.
- Please evaluate the following contents with 1-7 points (1=very disagree, 7=very agree)**
29. I feel like being a good leader interferes with being a good follower.
30. I feel like being a leader is opposite to being a follower.
31. I am glad that I am both a follower and a leader.
32. I am a better leader because I am also a follower.
33. I am a better follower because I am also a leader.
34. Life would be easier if I were only a follower or a leader, not both.
35. I appreciate being a follower because it helps me be a leader.
36. I appreciate being a leader because it helps me be a follower.
37. I imagine being a leader excludes me from being a follower
38. I think once I had gained leadership experience, I became reluctant to be a follower.
39. I believe followers should make every effort to become a leader and stop being a follower.
40. I could be a better leader if I were a follower at the same time.
41. I could be a better follower if I were a leader at the same time.
42. I believe there is no leadership without followership.
43. Even if there was downsizing in this organisation I am confident that I would be retained;
44. My personal networks in this organization help me in my career.
45. I am aware of the opportunities arising in this organisation even if they are different to what I do now.
46. The skills I have gained in my present job are transferable to other occupations outside this organisation.
47. I could easily retrain to make myself more employable elsewhere.
48. I have a good knowledge of opportunities for me outside of this organisation even if they are quite different to what I do now.
49. Among the people who do the same job as me, I am well respected in this organisation.

50. If I needed to, I could easily get another job like mine in a similar organisation.
51. I could easily get a similar job to mine in almost any organization
52. Anyone with my level of skills and knowledge, and similar job and organisational experience, will be highly sought after by employers
53. I could get any job, anywhere, so long as my skills and experience were reasonably relevant.
54. I am able to think through a number of possible options to assist me in a new situation.
55. I am able to revise the way I think about a new situation to help me through it.
56. I am able to adjust my thinking or expectations to assist me in a new situation.
57. I am able to seek out new information, helpful people, or useful resources to effectively deal with new situations.
58. In uncertain situations, I am able to develop new ways of going about things (e.g., a different way of asking questions or finding information) to help me through.
59. To assist me in a new situation, I am able to change the way I do things.
60. I am able to reduce negative emotions (e.g., fear) to help me deal with uncertain situations.
61. When uncertainty arises, I am able to minimize frustration or irritation so I can deal with it best.
62. To help me through new situations, I am able to draw on positive feelings and emotions (e.g., enjoyment, satisfaction).
63. I am satisfied with the success I have achieved in my career.
64. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my overall career goals.
65. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for income.
66. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for advancement.
67. I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for the development of new skills.
68. I am receiving positive feedback about my performance from all quarters.
69. I am offered opportunities for further education by my employer.
70. I have enough responsibility on my job.
71. I am fully backed my managers in my work.
72. I am in a job which offers me the chance to learn new skills.
73. I am most happy when I am at work.
74. I am dedicated to my work.
75. I am in a position to do mostly work which I really like.
76. I am respected by my peers.
77. I am getting good performance evaluations.
78. I am accepted by my peers.
79. I have my superior 's confidence
80. I am receiving fair compensation compared to my peers.
81. I am drawing a high income compared to my peers.
82. I am earning as much as I think my work is worth.

83. I am pleased with the promotions I have received so far.
84. I am reaching my career goals within the time frame I set for myself.
85. I am in a job which offers promotional opportunities.
86. I am happy with my private life.
87. I am enjoying my non-work activities.
88. I am satisfied with my life overall.
89. I am dedicated to my work.
- Please think back on the Covid-19 health crisis and answer the following questions using a scale from 1 (Totally disagree) to 7 (Totally agree)***
90. I feel that this event has become part of my identity
91. This event has become a reference point for the way I understand myself and the world
92. I feel that this event has become a central part of my life story
93. This event has colored the way I think and feel about other experiences
94. This event permanently changed my life
95. I often think about the effects this event will have on my future
96. This event was a turning point in my life

Appendix C- 5 Summary of Study 2 Hypotheses Testing Results H4-H5

VARIABLES	(1) H4a Leader Self Efficacy T2	(2) H4a Employability	(3) H4a Subjective Career Success	(5) H4b Leader Self Efficacy T2	(6) H4b Employability	(7) H4b Career Satisfaction	(9) H5a Leader Self - Efficacy T1	(10) H5a Employability	(11)H5a Subjective Career Success	(13) H5b Leader Self - Efficacy T1	(14) H5b Employability	(15)H5b Subjective Career Success
Leader Self-Efficacy T1	0.13* (0.08)			0.13* (0.08)								
Leader Self-Efficacy T2		0.45*** (0.06)	0.21** (0.10)		0.45*** (0.06)	0.40*** (0.14)						
Leader Identity T1							0.50*** (0.08)			0.50*** (0.08)		
Leader Identity T2								0.22*** (0.05)	0.24*** (0.06)		0.22*** (0.05)	0.36*** (0.09)
Employability			0.51*** (0.12)			0.38** (0.17)			0.52*** (0.10)			0.44*** (0.15)
var(e. Leader Self-Efficacy T2)			0.59*** (0.08)			0.59*** (0.08)						
var(e. Employability)			0.28*** (0.04)			0.28*** (0.04)			0.35*** (0.04)			0.35*** (0.04)
var(e. Subjective Career Success)			0.48*** (0.06)						0.44*** (0.06)			
var(e. Career Satisfaction)						0.98*** (0.13)						0.93*** (0.12)
var(e. Leader Identity T2)									0.74*** (0.10)			0.74*** (0.10)
Observations	121	121	121	121	121	121	121	121	121	121	121	121

Note: T1 is Time 1, T2 is Time 2; Standard errors in parentheses \*\*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*  $p < 0.1$

Appendix C -6 Summary of Study 2 Hypotheses Testing Results H6

VARIABLES	(1) H6a Leader Identity T2	(2) H6a Employab ility	(3) H6a Career Satisfacti on	(4) H6a Leader Identity T2	(5) H6a Employab ility	(6) H6a Subjectiv e Career Success	(7) H6b Leader Self- efficacy T2	(8) H6b Employab ility	(9) H6b Career Satisfacti on	(10) H6b Leader Self- efficacy T2	(11) H6b Employab ility	(12) H6b Subjective Career Success
Leader Identity T1	0.50*** (0.08)	-0.12* (0.07)		0.50*** (0.08)	-0.12* (0.07)							
Leader Identity T2		0.74** (0.30)	0.09 (0.51)		0.74** (0.30)	0.65* (0.35)						
Motivation to Lead		0.81** (0.36)	-0.20 (0.62)		0.81** (0.36)	0.53 (0.43)		-0.02 (0.51)	-1.53 (0.97)		-0.02 (0.51)	-1.14* (0.68)
Leader Identity T2 x MTL		-0.11* (0.07)	0.06 (0.11)		-0.11* (0.07)	-0.09 (0.08)						
Employability			0.43*** (0.15)			0.49*** (0.10)			0.35** (0.17)			0.50*** (0.12)
Leader Self-Efficacy T1							0.13* (0.08)	0.14** (0.06)		0.13* (0.08)	0.14** (0.06)	
var(e.Leader Self Efficacy T2)									0.59*** (0.08)			0.59*** (0.08)
Leader Self-Efficacy T2								0.42 (0.37)	-0.79 (0.70)		0.42 (0.37)	-0.63 (0.49)
Leader Self- Efficacy x MTL								0.00 (0.09)	0.29* (0.17)		0.00 (0.09)	0.21* (0.12)
var(e. Leader Identity T2)			0.74*** (0.10)			0.74*** (0.10)						
var(e. Employability )			0.32*** (0.04)			0.32*** (0.04)			0.26*** (0.03)			0.26*** (0.03)
var(e.Career Satisfacation)			0.93*** (0.12)			0.93*** (0.12)			0.95*** (0.12)			
var(e.Subjective Career Success)						0.44*** (0.06)						0.46*** (0.06)
Observations	121	121	121	121	121	121	121	121	121	121	121	121

Note: T1 is Time one, T2 is Time two;

Standard errors in parentheses\*\*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*  $p < 0.1$

Appendix C -7 Summary of Study 2 Hypotheses Testing Results H7

VARIABLES	(1) H7a Leader Identity T2	(2) H7a Employability	(3) H7a Career Satisfaction	(4) H7a Leader Identity T2	(5) H7a Employability	(6) H7a Subjective Career Success	(7) H7b Leader Self- efficacy T2	(8) H7b Employabilit y	(9) H7b Career Satisfaction	(10) H7b Leader Self- efficacy T2	(11) H7b Employabilit y	(12) H7b Subjective Career Success
Leader Identity T1	0.50*** (0.08)	-0.04 (0.06)		0.50*** (0.08)	-0.04 (0.06)							
Leader Identity T2		0.31*** (0.07)	0.37*** (0.11)		0.31*** (0.07)	0.37*** (0.08)						
Gender		1.19* (0.64)	0.64 (1.07)		1.19* (0.64)	2.17*** (0.72)		0.82 (0.78)	0.16 (1.50)		0.82 (0.78)	1.67 (1.04)
Leader Identity T2 * Gender		-0.21* (0.11)	-0.07 (0.19)		-0.21* (0.11)	-0.38*** (0.13)						
Employability			0.43*** (0.15)			0.47*** (0.10)			0.36** (0.17)			0.49*** (0.12)
Leader Self-Efficacy T1							0.13* (0.08)	0.14*** (0.05)		0.13* (0.08)	0.14*** (0.05)	
Leader Self-Efficacy T2								0.46*** (0.07)	0.40** (0.16)		0.46*** (0.07)	0.30*** (0.11)
Leader Self-Efficacy T2 * Gender								-0.14 (0.14)	0.03 (0.26)		-0.14 (0.14)	-0.27 (0.18)
var(e.T2 Leader Identity)			0.74*** (0.10)			0.74*** (0.10)						
var(e.Employability)			0.34*** (0.04)			0.34*** (0.04)			0.26*** (0.03)			0.26*** (0.03)
var(e.Career Satisfaction)			0.92*** (0.12)						0.96*** (0.12)			
var(e. Subjective Career Success)						0.41*** (0.05)						0.46*** (0.06)
var(e.Leader self- efficacy T2)									0.59*** (0.08)			0.59*** (0.08)
Observations	121	121	121	121	121	121	121	121	121	121	121	121

Note: T1 is Time 1, T2 is Time 2; Standard errors in parentheses \*\*\*  $p < 0.01$ , \*\*  $p < 0.05$ , \*  $p < 0.1$

## Appendix D. Study 3 Materials

### Appendix D-1 Study 3 Questionnaire Administered (Chinese Version)

亲爱的校友，感谢您参与本次调研。本次调研为匿名形式，旨在了解您的领导力发展状况、您对自己就业潜力的认识以及您对自己职业发展的满意程度等方面。题目选项无对错之分，请选择最符合自己情况的选项。本次调研约需 25 分钟，感谢您的支持！

我们会坚守研究伦理和政策，您的所有回复都会被严格保密，未经您明确的许可，任何可能泄露您的组织或个人身份的信息都不会在任何报告中使用和/或共享。

为了感谢您的参与，我们会向 FMBA 校友赠送小金牛积分，向其他课程部校友赠送 FMBA 课程部定制的书籍盲盒一份。

1. 您的性别
2. 您出生于哪个时间段？
3. 您来自哪个课程部？
4. 您是否担任管理职位？如是，您已担任管理职位多少年？
5. 截至目前，你在你现在的工作岗位上工作了多长时间？
6. 您的年收入范围是多少？
7. 您在整个职业生涯中获得过几次晋升？
8. 您在获得 MBA 学位后有过几次晋升？

**请用 1-7 分评估以下表述 (1= 非常没有信心, 7 = 非常有信心) :**

9. 我能履行作为一名成功的领导者所必须完成的各种任务。
10. 我有足够的专注力去取得成功。
11. 我能在各种领导力情境中进行有效的思考并成功加以应对。
12. 我能在领导工作遭遇重大挫折后迅速重整旗鼓并取得成功。
13. 我能适应不同的领导力情境并取得成功。

**以下描述与你的相符程度如何？**

**请用 1-7 分进行评估 (1 = 完全不相符, 7 = 极为相符)**

14. 我是一个领导者。
15. 我视自己为一个领导者。
16. 如果我要向别人描述自己，我会在描述中用到“领导者”这个词。
17. 我更喜欢被别人视为一个领导者。

**-你对以下这项上述自己的评分有多肯定？**

**请用 1-7 分进行评估 (1 = 完全不确定, 7 = 极为确定)**

18. 我是一个领导者。
19. 我视自己为一个领导者。
20. 如果我要向别人描述自己，我会在描述中用到“领导者”这个词。
21. 我更喜欢被别人视为一个领导者。

-以下这项关于自己的看法对你来说有多重要？

**请用 1-7 分进行评估 (1 = 完全不重要, 7 = 极为重要)**

22. 我是一个领导者。
23. 我视自己为一个领导者。
24. 如果我要向别人描述自己, 我会在描述中用到“领导者”这个词。
25. 我更喜欢被别人视为一个领导者。

- 以下描述与你的相符程度如何？

**请用 1-7 分进行评估 (1 = 完全不相符, 7 = 极为相符)**

26. 我是一个追随者。
27. 我视自己为一个追随者。
28. 如果我要向别人描述自己, 我会在描述中用到“追随者”这个词。
29. 我更喜欢被别人视为一个追随者。

**请用 1-7 分进行评估 (1 = 非常不同意, 7 = 非常同意)**

30. 有机会做富有挑战性的工作对我来说很重要。
31. 当我没能完成一项艰难的任务时, 我会谋划下次再做同样的任务时要尝试更加努力。
32. 我更喜欢做那些会迫使我学习新事物的任务。
33. 有机会学习新事物对我来说很重要。
34. 我在做一项相当困难的任务时会竭尽全力。
35. 我努力在以往绩效表现的基础上改进提升。
36. 有机会拓展自己的能力对我来说很重要。
37. 如果我在解决问题时遇到困难, 我会乐于尝试多种不同方法, 看其中哪种方法奏效。
38. 如果是在一个群体中工作, 我大多数时候更喜欢做领导者而非追随者。
39. 我是那种对领导他人不感兴趣的人。(R)
40. 我绝对不是个天生的领导者。(R)
41. 我是那种喜欢负责管理他人的人。
42. 我相信, 如果我在一个群体中是追随者而非领导者, 我将能够为这个群体做出更大贡献。(R)
43. 当我在群体中工作时, 我通常想要成为所在群体的领导者。
44. 我是那种积极支持领导者的人, 但不愿意被任命为领导者。(R)
45. 我在群体或团队中工作时, 大多会倾向于成为所在群体或团队的负责人。
46. 我很少会不愿做一个群体中的领导者。
47. 我觉得我有义务应要求去领导他人。
48. 只要其他成员对我提出要求或作出提名, 我就会同意成为领导者。
49. 我接受的教导是: 要相信领导他人是有价值的。
50. 应要求去承担领导角色或担任领导职位是一种恰当的行为。
51. 我一直以来接受的教导是: 如果可能的话, 我应该总是自告奋勇地去领导别人。
52. 拒绝承担领导角色是不对的。
53. 被要求成为领导者是一种荣耀。
54. 人们应该自告奋勇地去成为领导者, 而不是等着别人要求他们或投票给他们。
55. 我绝不会只是因为别人投票给我就同意成为领导者。(R)
56. 只有在对我有明显好处的情况下, 我才有兴趣领导一个群体。(R)

- 57. 如果我看不到承担领导角色能给我带来什么惠益，我是绝不会同意成为领导者的。(R)
- 58. 只有知道自己可以从中受益时，我才会同意担任一个群体的领导者。(R)
- 59. 即使没有特殊的报酬或福利，我也会同意去领导他人。
- 60. 在我同意领导一个群体之前，我会想要知道“这对我有何益处”。(R)
- 61. 如果我同意领导一个群体，我从不期望能因此获得更多特权。
- 62. 如果我同意领导一个群体，我从不期望能因此得到任何好处或特殊利益。
- 63. 我更多地是担心自己的问题，而不是群体中其他成员的问题。
- 64. 领导他人其实更多的是一项吃力不讨好的苦差事，而不是什么荣耀的工作。(R)

**请用 1-7 分进行评估**

- 65. 通常您是否了解上司对您工作的满意度？
- 66. 对于您在工作中的问题和需求，上司的了解程度如何？
- 67. 上司对您自身潜力的认可程度如何？
- 68. 不考虑上司拥有的职权大小，他/她利用自身权力为您解决工作中问题的可能性有多大？
- 69. 同样不考虑上司拥有的职权大小，他/她牺牲自身利益来为您“撑腰”的可能性有多大？
- 70. 我对上司非常信任，即使他/她不在场，我也会对他/她的决策予以维护和辩解。
- 71. 您与上司的工作关系如何？

我的直属上司.....

**威权领导**

- 72. 在下属面前令人生畏
- 73. 共事时给我带来很大压力
- 74. 对下属要求非常严格
- 75. 在我未能达到预期目标时予以训斥
- 76. 在我违反其原则时予以处罚

**仁慈领导**

- 77. 经常对我表示关心
- 78. 充分了解我的偏好，以满足我的个人需求
- 79. 在我工作遇到困难时予以鼓励
- 80. 在我工作表现不佳时会设法了解背后的真正原因
- 81. 当我在工作中缺乏所需能力时予以培训和辅导

**请用 1-7 分进行评估 (1=非常不同意, 7=非常同意)**

- 82. 工作应当只占生活的一小部分。
- 83. 在我看来，个人的生活目标应当以工作为导向。
- 84. 我生活中的满足感主要来自工作。
- 85. 我身上发生的重大事情都与工作有关。
- 86. 我有其他比工作更重要的活动。
- 87. 工作应被视为生活的中心。
- 88. 对我来说，工作只是构成自我的一小部分。

89. 即使公司要裁员，我也有信心会继续留下来。
90. 我在公司中的人际关系网对我的事业有帮助。
91. 我会留意到公司中出现的机，即使它们与我目前从事的工作有所不同。
92. 我在目前的工作中所获得的技能可以应用到公司之外的其他职业。
93. 我可以很容易地接受再培训，使自己在其他领域更具就业优势
94. 我对公司以外的机会非常了解，即使它们与我现在的工作有很大不同。
95. 在从事相同工作的人群中，我很受公司尊敬。
96. 如有需要，我可以很容易地在同类组织中找到另一份像现在这样的工作。
97. 我几乎可以在任何组织中轻松找到与现在类似的工作。
98. 任何具备我这样的技能和知识水平，又有类似工作和组织经验的人，都会受到雇主的青睐。
99. 只要与我的技能和经验相关，我可以在任何地方找到任何工作。
100. 我对自己在职业生涯中取得的成功感到满意。
101. 我对自己在实现整体职业目标方面所取得的进展感到满意。
102. 我对自己在实现收入目标方面所取得的进展感到满意。
103. 我对自己在实现晋升目标方面所取得的进展感到满意。
104. 我对自己在实现新技能发展目标方面所取得的进展感到满意。
105. 我收到了来自各方有关我表现的积极反馈。
106. 我的公司为我提供了继续深造的机会。
107. 我在工作中有足够的责任感。
108. 我在工作中得到了领导的全力支持。
109. 我的工作为我提供了学习新技能的机会。
110. 我在工作的时候最开心。
111. 我全身心投入到我的工作中。
112. 我的工作内容基本都是我真正喜欢做的。
113. 我受到同事们的尊敬。
114. 我收到很好的绩效评估反馈。
115. 我得到同事们的接纳认可。
116. 我受到上级的信任
117. 与同事相比，我获得了公平的报酬。
118. 与同事相比，我的收入很高。
119. 我认为我的收入和付出的努力成正比。
120. 我对迄今所获得的晋升感到满意。
121. 我正在自己所设定的时间范围内实现我的职业目标。
122. 我目前的工作有晋升机会。
123. 我对自己的个人生活很满意。
124. 我很享受我的业余活动。
125. 我对我的生活总体上感到满意。
126. 我全身心投入到我的工作中。
127. 我觉得做一个好的领导者和做一个好的追随者会相互干扰。
128. 我觉得做领导者和做追随者是相反的。

129. 我很高兴我既是追随者又是领导者。
130. 我是一个更好的领导者，因为我也是一个追随者。
131. 我是一个更好的追随者，因为我也是一个领导者。
132. 如果我只是一个追随者，或者只是一个领导者，而不是兼具两种角色，生活会更容易一些。
133. 我庆幸自己是一个追随者，因为这有助于我做一个领导者。
134. 我庆幸自己是一个领导者，因为这有助于我做一个追随者。
135. 在我的想象中，做领导者就不能做追随者。
136. 我认为自己一旦获得了领导经验，就会变得不愿做一个追随者。
137. 我相信追随者应该竭尽全力成为领导者，而不再做追随者。
138. 如果我同时也是一个追随者，我能成为一个更好的领导者。
139. 如果我同时也是一个领导者，我能成为一个更好的追随者。
140. 我相信没有追随就没有领导。
141. 我能够认真考虑多种可行的选择方案，来帮助我应对新局势。
142. 我能够改变对新局势的思考方式，来帮助我顺利过渡。
143. 我能够调整我的想法和预期，来帮助我应对新局势。
144. 我能够找到新的信息、有帮助的人或资源，来有效应对新局势。
145. 在不确定的情况下，我能够找到并形成新的处理方法（例如，换一种方式提问或查找信息），来帮助我度过难关。
146. 为了适应新局势，我能够改变我的做事方式。
147. 我能够减少负面情绪（例如，恐惧），来帮助我处理不确定的情况。
148. 出现不确定性时，我能够尽量减少沮丧或不悦情绪，以便以最好的状态应对它
149. 为了帮助我顺利应对新局势，我能够利用积极的感受和情绪（例如，愉悦感，满足感）。
150. 请想出一个你心目中**理想领导者**的形象，然后再想想**你自己**。你个人的形象有多接近于这个理想领导者的形象？

**-10=完全相左    0=不相符    10=完全契合**

请从-10到10，选择一个分数来你自己的形象和你心目中理想领导者的形象之间的契合度。

Appendix D-2 Study 3 Questionnaire Administered (English Version)

Dear alumni,

Thank you for taking part in this survey. It is anonymous and explores your leadership development, view of your employment potential, and satisfaction with your career progress. There are no right or wrong answers—please choose the options that best reflect your situation. The survey takes about 25 minutes.

We adhere to research ethics and policy: all responses are strictly confidential. No information that might reveal your organization or identity will be used or shared without your explicit consent.

As a token of appreciation, FMBA alumni will receive Golden Bull points, and alumni from other programs will receive a custom FMBA book blind box.

Demographics (program, year, gender)

- (1) What is your age?
- (2) What is your gender?
- (3) Which program are you from?
- (4) Are you in Managerial position? If yes, how many years have you been on the managerial position.
- (5) What is your annual salary?
- (6) How many promotions have you got in your entire career?
- (7) How many promotions have you got after your MBA?
- "Compared to the most confident leader you know, how would you rate your confidence in your ability to:" (1= Strongly disagree, 7 = Strongly agree)
- (8) Perform the tasks necessary to be a successful leader.
- (9) Concentrate well enough to be successful.
- (10) Think and respond successfully in leadership situations.
- (11) Bounce back from a major leadership setback and succeed.
- (12) Adapt to different leadership situations and be successful.
- "How descriptive is each statement of you?" (1 = Not at all descriptive, 7 = Extremely descriptive)
- (13) I am a leader.
- (14) I see myself as a leader.
- (15) If I had to describe myself to others, I would include the word "leader".
- (16) I prefer being seen by others as a leader.
- "How certain are you about the rating you gave for each statement above?" (1 = Not at all certain, 7 = Extremely certain)
- (17) I am a leader.
- (18) I see myself as a leader.
- (19) If I had to describe myself to others, I would include the word "leader".
- (20) I prefer being seen by others as a leader.

- “How important to you is this view of yourself?” (1 = Not at all important, 7 = Extremely important)
- (21) I am a leader.
  - (22) I see myself as a leader.
  - (23) If I had to describe myself to others, I would include the word "leader".
  - (24) I prefer being seen by others as a leader.
- “How descriptive is each statement of you?” (1 = Not at all descriptive, 7 = Extremely descriptive)
- (25) I am a follower.
  - (26) I see myself as a follower.
  - (27) If I had to describe myself to others, I would include the word “follower”.
  - (28) I prefer being seen by others as a follower.
  - (29) The opportunity to do challenging work is important to me.
  - (30) When I fail to complete a difficult task, I plan to try harder the next time I work on it.
  - (31) I prefer to work on tasks that force me to learn new things.
  - (32) The opportunity to learn new things is important to me.
  - (33) I do my best when I’m working on a fairly difficult task.
  - (34) I try hard to improve on my past performance.
  - (35) The opportunity to extend the range of my abilities is important to me.
  - (36) When I have difficulty solving a problem, I enjoy trying different approaches to see which one will work.
  - (37) Most of the time, I prefer being a leader rather than a follower when working in a group.
  - (38) I am the type of person who is not interested to lead others (R).
  - (39) I am definitely not a leader by nature (R).
  - (40) I am the type of person who likes to be in charge of others.
  - (41) I believe I can contribute more to a group if I am a follower rather than a leader (R).
  - (42) I usually want to be the leader in the groups that I work in.
  - (43) I am the type who would actively support a leader but prefers not to be appointed as leader (R).
  - (44) I have a tendency to take charge in most groups or teams that I work in.
  - (45) I am seldom reluctant to be the leader of a group.
  - (46) I feel that I have a duty to lead others if I am asked.
  - (47) I agree to lead whenever I am asked or nominated by the other members.
  - (48) I was taught to believe in the value of leading others.
  - (49) It is appropriate for people to accept leadership roles or positions when they are asked.
  - (50) I have been taught that I should always volunteer to lead others if I can.
  - (51) It is not right to decline leadership roles.
  - (52) It is an honour and a privilege to be asked to lead.
  - (53) People should volunteer to lead rather than wait for others to ask or vote for them.
  - (54) I would never agree to lead just because others voted for me to be a leader (R).
  - (55) I am only interested to lead a group if there are clear advantages for me (R).
  - (56) I will never agree to lead if I cannot see any benefits from accepting that role (R).
  - (57) I would only agree to be a group leader if I know I can benefit from that role (R).
  - (58) I would agree to lead others even if there are no special rewards or benefits with that role.
  - (59) I would want to know "what’s in it for me" if I am going to agree to lead a group (R).
  - (60) I never expect to get more privileges if I agree to lead a group.
  - (61) If I agree to lead a group, I would never expect any advantages or special benefits.

- (62) I have more of my own problems to worry about than to be concerned about the rest of the group (R).
- (63) Leading others is really more of a dirty job rather than an honourable one (R).
- (64) Do you usually know how satisfied your supervisor is with what you do?
- (65) How well does your supervisor understand your job problems and needs?
- (66) How well does your supervisor recognize your potential?
- (67) Regardless of how much formal authority he/she has built into his/ her position, what are the chances that your supervisor would use his/ her power to help you solve problems in your work?
- (68) Again, regardless of the amount of formal authority your supervisor has, what are the chances that he/ she would “bail you out,” at his/ her expense?
- (69) I have enough confidence in my supervisor that I would defend and justify his/ her decision if he/she were not present to do so.
- (70 ) How would you characterize your working relationship with your supervisor?

My immediate supervisor...

- (71 ) Appears to be intimidating in front of his/her subordinates
- (72 ) Brings me a lot of pressure when we work together
- (73) Very strict with his/her subordinates
- (74) Scolds me when I fail expected target
- (75) Disciplines me for violation of his/her principles
- (76 ) Often shows his/her concern about m
- (77) Understands my preference enough to accommodate my personal requests
- (78) Encourages me when I encounter difficulties in work
- (79 )Would try to understand the real cause of my unsatisfied performance
- (80 )Trains and coaches me when I lack required abilities at work

Using a rating scale of 1 – 7, indicate how much you disagree or agree with each of the following statements. 1= strongly disagree 2= disagree 3= slightly disagree 4= neutral 5= slightly agree 6= agree 7= strongly agree

- (81) Work should only be a small part of one’s life. (R)
- (82) In my view, an individual’s personal life goals should be work oriented.
- (83) The major satisfaction in my life comes from my work.
- (84) The most important things that happen to me involve my work.
- (85) I have other activities more important than my work. (R)
- (86) Work should be considered central to life.
- (87) To me, my work is only a small part of who I am. (R)
- (88) How long have you been working in your current job?
- (89) I feel like being a good leader interferes with being a good follower.
- (90) I feel like being a leader is opposite to being a follower.
- (91) I am glad that I am both a follower and a leader.
- (92) I am a better leader because I am also a follower.

- (93) I am a better follower because I am also a leader.
- (94) Life would be easier if I were only a follower or a leader, not both.
- (95) I appreciate being a follower because it helps me be a leader.
- (96) I appreciate being a leader because it helps me be a follower.
- (97) I imagine being a leader excludes me from being a follower
- (98) I think once I had gained leadership experience, I became reluctant to be a follower.
- (99) I believe followers should make every effort to become a leader and stop being a follower.
- (100) I could be a better leader if I were a follower at the same time.
- (101) I could be a better follower if I were a leader at the same time.
- (102) I believe there is no leadership without followership.
- (103) I am able to think through a number of possible options to assist me in a new situation.
- (104) I am able to revise the way I think about a new situation to help me through it.
- (105) I am able to adjust my thinking or expectations to assist me in a new situation.
- (106) I am able to seek out new information, helpful people, or useful resources to effectively deal with new situations.
- (107) In uncertain situations, I am able to develop new ways of going about things (e.g., a different way of asking questions or finding information) to help me through.
- (108) To assist me in a new situation, I am able to change the way I do things.
- (109) I am able to reduce negative emotions (e.g., fear) to help me deal with uncertain situations.
- (110) When uncertainty arises, I am able to minimize frustration or irritation so I can deal with it best.
- (111) To help me through new situations, I am able to draw on positive feelings and emotions (e.g., enjoyment, satisfaction).
- (112) Even if there was downsizing in this organisation I am confident that I would be retained;
- (113) My personal networks in this organization help me in my career.
- (114) I am aware of the opportunities arising in this organisation even if they are different to what I do now.
- (115) The skills I have gained in my present job are transferable to other occupations outside this organisation.
- (116) I could easily retrain to make myself more employable elsewhere.
- (117) I have a good knowledge of opportunities for me outside of this organisation even if they are quite different to what I do now.

- (118) Among the people who do the same job as me, I am well respected in this organisation.
- (119) If I needed to, I could easily get another job like mine in a similar organisation.
- (120) I could easily get a similar job to mine in almost any organization
- ( 21)Anyone with my level of skills and knowledge, and similar job and organisational experience, will be highly sought after by employers
- (122)I could get any job, anywhere, so long as my skills and experience were reasonably relevant.
- (123)I am satisfied with the success I have achieved in my career.
- (124) I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my overall career goals.
- (125) I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for income.
- (126) I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for advancement.
- (127) I am satisfied with the progress I have made toward meeting my goals for the development of new skills.
- (128) I am receiving positive feedback about my performance from all quarters.
- (129) I am offered opportunities for further education by my employer.
- (130) I have enough responsibility on my job.
- (131) I am fully backed my managers in my work.
- (132) I am in a job which offers me the chance to learn new skills.
- (133) I am most happy when I am at work.
- (134) I am dedicated to my work.
- (135) I am in a position to do mostly work which I really like.
- (136) I am respected by my peers.
- (137) I am getting good performance evaluations.
- (138) I am accepted by my peers.
- (139) I have my superior 's confidence
- (140) I am receiving fair compensation compared to my peers.
- (141) I am drawing a high income compared to my peers.
- (142) I am earning as much as I think my work is worth.
- (143) I am pleased with the promotions I have received so far.
- (144) I am reaching my career goals within the time frame I set for myself.
- (145) I am in a job which offers promotional opportunities.
- (146) I am happy with my private life.
- (147) I am enjoying my non-work activities.
- (148) I am satisfied with my life overall.
- (149) I am dedicated to my work.
- (150) How close you are to your ideal leader (1 item)

Please think of an image of your ideal leader, and then think about yourself. How close is your personal image to the image of the ideal leader?

**-10= completely to the left, 0=not to match, 10=completely to match**

Please choose a score from -10 to 10 to measure how you match your ideal leader.