

Public Administration Leadership and Public Policies

Elisabete Fialho^{1,2}, Maria José Sousa¹ and Ana Moreira^{3, 4, 5}

¹ISCTE-Instituto Universitário de Lisboa, Lisbon, Portugal

²CIES-ISCTE - Centro de Investigação e Estudos de Sociologia, Lisbon, Portugal

³ISPA—Instituto Universitário, Lisbon, Portugal

⁴APPsyCI—Applied Psychology Research Center Capabilities & Inclusion, Lisbon, Portugal

⁵Universidade Europeia, Lisbon, Portugal

elisabetefialho@gmail.com

Abstract: This is a study of Portuguese central public administration addressing leadership typology, using the Full Range Leadership (FRL) model to better understand the leadership effectiveness process (Bass & Avolio, 1994). The study examines the impact of training, professional experience, and organizational context on managers' performance as well as predominant leadership styles. A total of 422 participants in the Portuguese state's central public administration responded to this quantitative research. The results indicate that the perception of leadership style differs significantly between leaders and followers, as does the perception of evaluation. Regarding the organization where they work, significant differences were found in the perception of transformational leadership, contingent rewards, laissez-faire, recruitment, training, and evaluation. The association between leadership style and public policies is significant, and this relationship is moderated by whether the participant holds a managerial position. This study tells us what type of leadership is predominant in public administration and its association with public policies.

Keywords: Leadership, Public policies, Public administration, Quantitative study

1. Introduction

According to Sarachek (1968), leadership originated with different attributes at the beginning of human civilisation. In this sense, the concept of leadership dates to when individuals tried to organise themselves in groups to perform specific tasks, such as hunting. For Clawson (2003), during the Industrial Revolution, the concept of leadership gained strength, along with the power gained by people considering their skills.

Leadership is largely defined around adjectives such as "exchanges, processes, competence, relationship, and construction" (Gill, 2011). The author also mentions that for sociologists, leadership is more about relationships between people rather than individual exchanges and characteristics, which often focus on power and dominance. Leadership is a complex concept that can change according to the various variants of the context in which it is practised. For Gill (2011), leadership can be "created" or "designed," for example, as a process or a relationship. However, it is hardly imagined as an "invention, a fabricated story," invented specially to disappoint.

Burns (1978) defines leadership as motivating followers by focusing on their values and impact on their performance. It is a process of social exchange that impacts workers' performance in their quest to achieve specific goals.

The public policies developed over the last 30 years in Portugal find their foundations in the Constitution approved in 1976 and in its successive revisions. In this way, the constitutional framework of defining and implementing public policies in sectors such as health, social protection, education, and territory, as the promotion of equality and justice, allowed the country to be transformed and modernised (Rodrigues & Silva, 2016).

For Carvalho (2013), the challenge that many politicians face is choosing policies that strengthen their system's capacity to achieve medium and long-term development goals, ensuring the satisfaction of the needs and expectations of those who accompanied them in their quest for power.

This study has as its primary objective to study the association between leadership style and public policies and whether this relationship is moderated by whether or not the participant holds a leadership position.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Leadership

It is increasingly evident that in the 21st century, leadership must come from a type of leader with new perspectives and more contemporary (Mehrad et al., 2020). To this end, the authors indicate that leaders should promote positive employee association through effective leadership because leadership is one of the most

important elements contributing to employee engagement at work and, consequently, extremely important for creating and encouraging well-being in the workplace and increasing motivation.

Transactional and transformational leadership are considered complementary forms of leadership because leaders are most effective when they exhibit both styles (Goula et al., 2019).

Transformational leadership includes behaviours that encourage workers to take a broader view of their work and challenge them to adopt new approaches (Mehrad et al., 2020). This leadership style has been widely successful, but it appears to be incomplete for the challenges faced by today's leaders because it does not prevent abuses of power and allows the ends to justify the means (Latham, 2014).

Transactional leadership is characterized by an exchange relationship between the leader and the led, in which each party pursues their respective interests. These are met by clarifying to the employees their responsibilities, the leader's expectations, and the benefits for both (Mehrad et al., 2020).

Transactional leadership relies on rewards and punishments that act as critical motivators. In contrast, with transformational leadership, a common goal is supported by engaging one person with another in a relationship that raises their level of motivation and morality (Male and Palaiologoi, 2019).

As for the laissez-faire leadership style, the leader needs to be present in decision-making, ignoring his responsibilities and avoiding participation in essential matters and decision-making (Bass and Riggio, 2005).

2.2 Public Policies

A public policy is a set of decisions and actions that result from repeated interactions between public and private actors whose behaviours are influenced by the resources at their disposal and by general (political-institutional system) and specific (scope of intervention) institutional rules.

All public administrative activity is also the execution or development of a public policy. Therefore, when analysing public administration, it is essential to refer to the direct influence that politics, in any regime or era, exerts on it. Thus, the distinction between politics and public administration may seem theoretically clear and understandable, but it becomes highly complicated to separate them (Overeem, 2005).

Among public policies, we have the appointment (recruitment), training and evaluation of leadership positions.

For Madureira (2013), it is evident in the Portuguese case that professionalisation and performance evaluation of leaders are "key aspects" in constructing an administrative reform. In this sense, although the "trust" factor is the starting point for all managerial appointments in Western countries, analysing the example of other countries where this choice is strongly controlled with specific rules is essential.

The statute for managerial staff determines as a requirement for the exercise of functions of senior and middle management "the completion of specific courses for senior management in Public Administration, differentiated, if necessary, according to the level, grade and functional content of the positions held" - Portaria No. 146/2011 of April 7.

The training in leadership skills was defined as a strategic training area by Portaria No. 3431/2019, March 28, from the Minister of Finance (Diário da República, 2nd Series, No. 62, March 28, 2019). It had as its primary framework the leading role that INA plays in the System of Incentives for Innovation in Public Management (SIIGeP) and the need to develop leadership skills in public administration workers to prepare future leaders.

In Portugal, the evaluation is done through the performance management and evaluation system (SIADAP), aimed at contributing to improving the performance and quality of service of the Public Administration, to the coherence and harmony of the action of services, managers, and other workers and to promoting their professional motivation and skills development. It applies to the services of the direct and indirect administration of the state, as well as the necessary adaptations, particularly regarding the powers of the corresponding bodies, to the services of the autonomous regional administration and local government.

2.3 Leadership and Public Policy

From the perspective of Ndalamba (2019), critical success factors can be considered a leadership strategy that can help drive the public policy implementation process. For these authors, leadership becomes central to the implementation of public policy. Following this reasoning, the following hypotheses were formulated:

Hypothesis 1: Leaders' perceptions of leadership differ from those of subordinates.

Hypothesis 2: Middle managers' perceptions of leadership differ from those of senior managers.

Hypothesis 3: The perception of leadership differs according to the area of the organization where it belongs.

Hypothesis 4: Perception of public policy implementation differs from leaders to those led.

Hypothesis 5: The perception of the application of public policies differs depending on the area of the organism where it belongs.

Hypothesis 6: Perception of public policy implementation is influenced by leadership style.

Hypothesis 7: Whether one is a manager or not moderates the relationship between leadership style and public policies.

3. Method

3.1 Procedure

The data collection instrument was a questionnaire of an exploratory nature (Freitas et al., 2000), using a questionnaire already formulated to identify the types of leadership and another of our construction to study the perception of public policies on recruitment, training, and evaluation of leadership positions in the direct administration of the State. This instrument was developed using Google Forms online questionnaire software.

The survey was sent to the central services of the respective Ministries. The survey was targeted at all employees in public functions in the direct administration of the State, whether or not they currently hold management positions.

3.2 Participants

The sample consists of 442 participants, whose ages range between 22 and 69 years ($M = 49.59$; $SD = 9.06$), 281 (63.6%) being female and 161 (36.4%) males. The seniority in the position varies between 1 and 48 years ($M = 13.76$; $SD = 12.44$) and seniority in the organization between 1 and 47 years ($M = 13.23$; $SD = 11.56$).

Among these participants, 122 (27.6) hold managerial positions, of which 35 (28.7%) hold a senior managerial position, 74 (60.7%) hold a middle managerial position, and 12 (9.8%) hold a special career.

The distribution of the participants according to the organization they work for is shown in Figure 1:

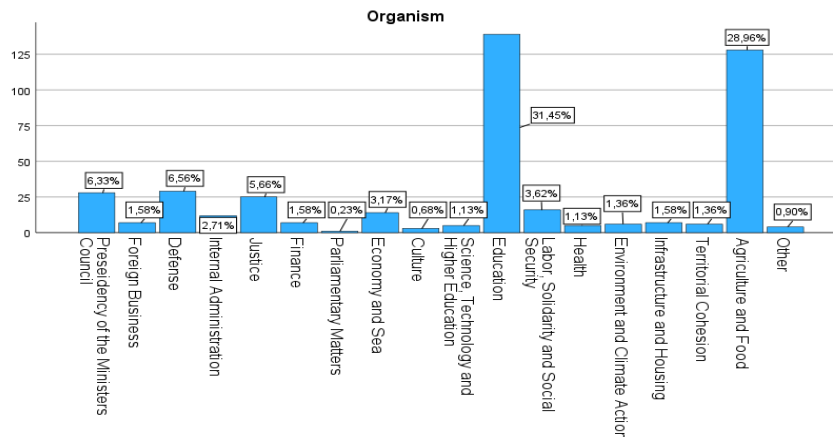


Figure1: Distribution of participants by the organism where they work.

3.3 Data Analysis Procedure

Data were imported from Google Forms into SPSS Statistics 28 software. An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was initially performed for the public policy perception instrument since it is a new instrument built for this study. The KMO value was calculated, whose value in organisational studies should be greater than .70 (Sharma, 1996).

After the SFA, Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was performed for that instrument and the other instruments used in this study, using the AMOS for Windows 28 program. A robust maximum likelihood estimation for the public policy instrument was performed for a three-factor model.

For the leadership instrument, separate CFAs were performed for each subscale. A five-factor and a one-factor AFC were performed for the transformational leadership subscale. A two-factor AFC was performed for the transactional leadership subscale; for the laissez-faire leadership subscale, a two-factor and one-factor AFC were performed.

After the CFA, construct reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity were calculated for each instrument.

Reliability was then analysed by calculating Cronbach's alpha.

Concerning the study of item sensitivity, the different measures of central tendency, dispersion and distribution were calculated for the different instruments.

Subsequently, descriptive statistics of the variables under study were performed using Student's t-tests for a sample. The association between the variables was studied using Pearson's correlations.

The hypotheses formulated in this study were tested using the t-student test for independent samples, the One-Way ANOVA test, and linear regression after the respective assumptions were verified. The moderating effect was tested using Macro Process 4.2, developed by Hayes (2013).

3.4 Instruments

To measure leadership, we used the instrument developed by Avolio and Bass (2004), consisting of 45 items. This study used only the subscales of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership. The validity of this instrument was tested by performing a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) for each subscale.

For the transformational leadership subscale, a five-factor CFA was performed. The adjustment indices obtained are adequate or close to the reference values ($\chi^2/df = 2.39$; GFI = .86; CFI = .93; TLI = .91; RMSEA = .056; SRMR = .242). However, the average variance extracted (AVE) for each factor was found to be less than the square of the correlation between the factors, indicating no discriminant validity. For this reason, a new one-factor AFC was performed. The adjustment indices obtained are adequate ($\chi^2/df = 1.97$; GFI = .94; CFI = .98; TLI = .98; RMSEA = .047; SRMR = .032) and better than the adjustment indices of the five-factor model. Concerning internal consistency, this subscale has a Cronbach's alpha of .96 and construct reliability of .96. As for convergent validity, it presents a Vem value of .58, which can be considered reasonable.

For the Transactional Leadership subscale, a two-factor CFA was performed. After performing the AFC, the adjustment indexes obtained were adequate ($\chi^2/df = 3.48$; GFI = .97; CFI = .96; TLI = .93; RMSEA = .075; SRMR = .077). For internal consistency, a Cronbach's Alpha of .74 was obtained for management by active exception and a .78 for contingent rewards. For construct reliability, a value of .73 was obtained for management by active exception and .76 for contingent rewards. As for convergent validity, both management by active exception (SEM = .41) and contingent rewards (SEM = .45) show low convergent validity. Discriminant validity was verified since the squared high factor correlations are lower than the SEM values of the respective factors.

For the laissez-faire subscale, a two-factor CFA was performed. The adjustment indices obtained are adequate ($\chi^2/df = 2.12$; GFI = .98; CFI = .98; TLI = .97; RMSEA = .050; SRMR = .087). However, the average variance extracted (AVE) for each factor was found to be less than the square of the correlation between the factors, indicating no discriminant validity. For this reason, a new one-dimensional AFC was performed. The adjustment indices obtained are adequate ($\chi^2/df = 1.25$; GFI = .99; CFI = .99; TLI = .99; RMSEA = .024; SRMR = .023). Concerning internal consistency, this subscale has a Cronbach's alpha of .88 and a construct reliability of .87. As for convergent validity, it has a Vem value of .50, which can be considered good.

The instrument to measure the perception of public policies was created by the researchers of this study. It is an instrument composed of nine items distributed over three dimensions: recruitment, training, and evaluation. Since this is a new instrument, an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was initially performed, where a KMO of .81 was obtained. Bartlett's test of sphericity proved significant ($p < .001$), which indicates that the data come from a multivariate population (Pestana and Gageiro, 2003). The EFA indicated that this instrument comprises three factors that explain 67.76% of the scale's variability. We then performed an AFC that confirmed the existence of three factors since the adjustment indexes obtained are adequate ($\chi^2/df = 2.12$; GFI = .98; CFI = .98; TLI = .97; RMSEA = .050; SRMR = .087).

Only the assessment dimension shows low internal consistency, with a Cronbach's Alpha of .66. The recruitment dimension has a Cronbach's Alpha of .76, and the training dimension has a score of .79.

Regarding construct reliability, all dimensions are higher than .70, ranging from .72 (assessment) to .80 (training). It is also the evaluation dimension that presents a convergent validity (VEM = .48) below .50. The recruitment (VEM = .52) and training (VEM = .57) dimensions show good convergent validity. There is discriminant validity since the squared factor correlation is lower than the VEM values.

About item sensitivity, no item has a median close to one of the extremes, all items have responses in all points, and their absolute values of skewness and shortness are below 3 and 7, respectively, which indicates that they do not grossly violate normality (Kline, 1998).

4. Results

4.1 Descriptive Statistics of the Variables Under Study

Descriptive statistics were performed for the variables under study to understand the position of the answers given by the participants:

The perception of transformational leadership (t (441) = 15.63; p < .001), leadership by passive exception (t (441) = 6.63; p < .001) and contingent rewards (t (441) = 8.90; p < .001) are significantly above the midpoint of the scale.

It should be noted that the leadership style with the highest perception is transformational leadership. The perception of laissez-faire leadership style (t (441) = -48.41; p < .001).

About public policy, the perception of adequate and transparent recruitment (t (441) = -10.25; p < .001), as well as the perception of transparent evaluation (t (441) = -2.29; p = .011), are significantly below the midpoint of the scale. The perception of training is very close to the scale's midpoint (t (441) = -.46; p = .325).

These results indicate that respondents are unsatisfied with existing public policies on these topics.

4.2 Correlations

Table 1: Association between the variables under study

| Variable | 1 | 2.1 | 2.2 | 3 | 4.1 | 4.2 | 4.3 |
|---|---------|--------|---------|---------|--------|--------|-----|
| 1. Transformational Leadership | -- | | | | | | |
| 2.1. Active Exception Management | .37*** | -- | | | | | |
| 2.2. Contingent Rewards | .87*** | .38*** | -- | | | | |
| Laissez-Faire | -.75*** | -.13** | -.65*** | -- | | | |
| 4.1. Recruiting | .25*** | .16*** | .22*** | -.12** | -- | | |
| 4.2. Training | .34*** | .09 | .26*** | -.23*** | .42*** | -- | |
| 4.3. Evaluation | .38*** | .17*** | .36*** | -.28*** | .36*** | .45*** | -- |

Note. ** p < .01; *** p < .001

The results indicate that transformational leadership is positively and significantly associated with management by active exception, contingent rewards, recruitment, training, and evaluation. On the other hand, it is negatively and significantly associated with laissez-faire leadership.

Active exception management is positively and significantly associated with recruitment and evaluation but negatively and significantly associated with laissez-faire leadership. Contingent rewards are positively and significantly associated with recruitment, training, and evaluation but negatively and significantly associated with laissez-faire leadership.

Laissez-faire leadership is negatively and significantly associated with recruitment, training, and evaluation.

4.3 Hypothesis Tests

Table 2: T-test results (H1)

| Dependent Variable | t | gl | p | d | Led | | Leader | |
|------------------------------------|-----------|--------|--------|------|------|-----|--------|-----|
| | | | | | Mean | SD | Mean | SD |
| Transformational Leadership | -14.65*** | 421.41 | < .001 | 1.16 | 2.41 | .89 | 3.33 | .42 |

| Dependent Variable | t | gl | p | d | Led | | Leader | |
|-----------------------------|-----------|---------|--------|------|------|-----|--------|-----|
| | | | | | Mean | SD | Mean | SD |
| Active Exception Management | -2.24* | 440 | .025 | .24 | 2.20 | .79 | 2.39 | .80 |
| Contingent Rewards | -14.25*** | 335.69 | < .001 | 1.26 | 2.11 | .88 | 3.13 | .57 |
| Laissez-Faire | 28.66*** | 379.164 | < .001 | .93 | 1.37 | .81 | .76 | .46 |

Note. * $p < .05$; *** $p < .001$

The perception of transformational leadership, management by active exception, contingent rewards, and laissez-faire leadership style differ significantly between leaders and followers. Leaders have a higher perception of transformational leadership, management by active exception, and contingent rewards than followers. In turn, the followers perceive passive exception management and laissez-faire leadership more than the leaders. Hypothesis 1 was confirmed.

Table 3: One Way ANOVA test results (H2)

| Dependent Variable | F | p | Superior | | Intermediate | | Special Career | |
|-----------------------------|------|------|----------|-----|--------------|-----|----------------|-----|
| | | | Mean | SD | Mean | SD | Mean | SD |
| Transformational Leadership | 2.35 | .100 | 3.42 | .38 | 3.27 | .42 | 3.46 | .44 |
| Active Exception Management | .18 | .839 | 2.34 | .76 | 2.40 | .80 | 2.50 | .98 |
| Contingent Rewards | .60 | .549 | 3.17 | .47 | 3.08 | .60 | 3.23 | .64 |
| Laissez-faire | 1.34 | .265 | .67 | .46 | .81 | .46 | .65 | .42 |

Concerning the perception of the leadership of the holders of management positions, the results indicate that this is similar depending on the position held. The results do not support hypothesis 2.

The results indicate to us that the organism the participant is in has a statistically significant effect on transformational leadership ($F(16, 424) = 1.51$; $p = .013$), contingent rewards ($F(16, 424) = 1.75$; $p = .038$) and laissez-faire leadership ($F(16, 424) = 1.72$; $p = .040$). The results support hypothesis 3 (Figure 2).

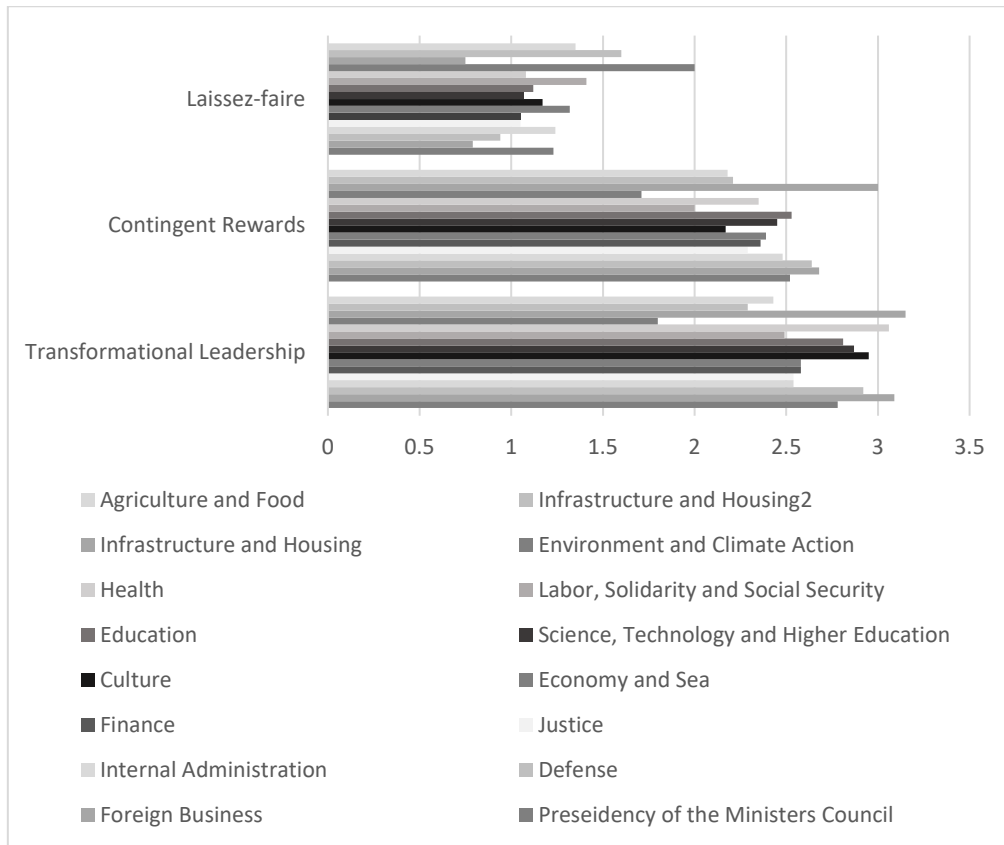


Figure 2: Distribution of leadership styles as a function of organism

Table 4: T-test results (H4)

| Dependent Variable | t | gl | p | d | Liderado | | Líder | |
|--------------------|----------|--------|--------|-----|----------|------|-------|-----|
| | | | | | Média | DP | Média | DP |
| Recruitment | -1.22 | 243.12 | .247 | .12 | 2.53 | .92 | 2.64 | .83 |
| Training | -.69 | 266.08 | .528 | .07 | 2.96 | 1.06 | 3.03 | .87 |
| Evaluation | -5.78*** | 288.59 | < .001 | .54 | 2.73 | 1.12 | 3.29 | .84 |

Note. *** p < .001

Only the perception of an adequate evaluation differs significantly between leaders and subordinates. When compared to subordinates, leaders perceive that public policies for evaluating leaders are more adequate. This hypothesis is partially confirmed.

The organism the participant is in has a statistically significant effect on recruitment ($F(16, 424) = 2.67; p < .001$), training ($F(16, 424) = 2.43; p = .002$), and evaluation ($F(16, 424) = 2.68; p < .001$). The results support hypothesis 5 (Figure 3).

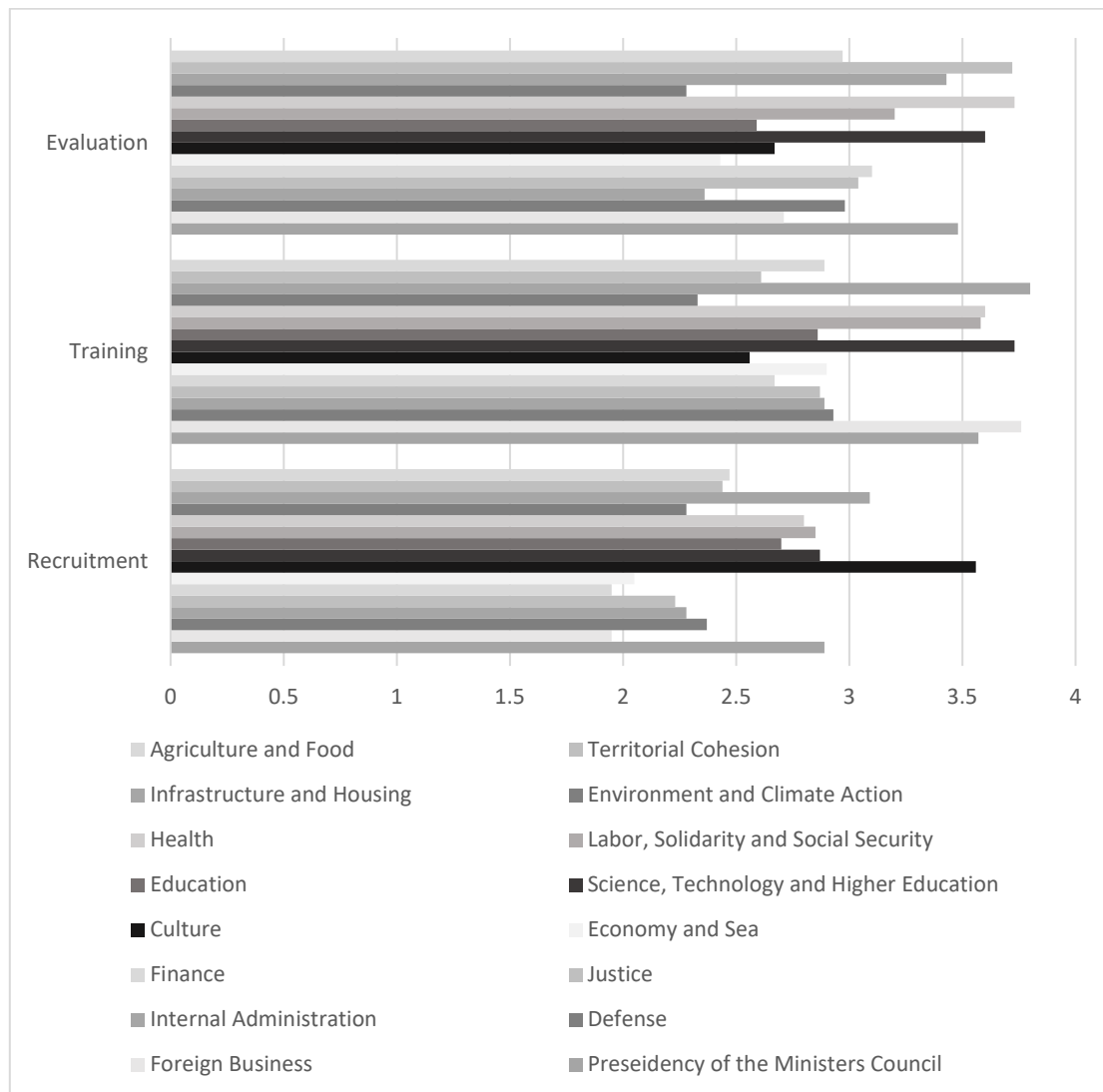


Figure 3: Distribution of the perception of public policies according to the organism

Table 5: Association between transformational leadership and public policies

| Dependent Variable | Variável Dependente | F | p | R ² | β | p |
|-----------------------------|---------------------|----------|--------|----------------|--------|--------|
| Transformational Leadership | Recruitment | 29.91*** | < .001 | .06 | .25*** | < .001 |
| | Training | 57.79*** | < .001 | .11 | .34*** | < .001 |
| | Evaluation | 73.57*** | < .001 | .14 | .38*** | < .001 |

Note. *** p < .001

The results indicate a positive and significant association between transformational leadership and the perception of a correct recruitment process. The model is statistically significant (F (1, 440) = 29.91 p < .001) and explains 6% of the variability in the dependent variable.

Transformational leadership is also positively and significantly associated with the perception of proper training). The model is statistically significant (F (1, 440) = 57.79; p < .001) and explains 11% of the variability in the dependent variable.

There is also a positive and significant association between transformational leadership and the perception of a fair evaluation process. The model is statistically significant (F (1, 440) = 32.67; p < .001) and explains 14% of the variability in the dependent variable.

Table 6: Effect of leadership by active management and contingent rewards on public policy

| Independent Variable | Dependent Variable | F | p | R ² _a | β | p |
|-----------------------------|--------------------|----------|--------|-----------------------------|--------|--------|
| Active Exception Management | Recruitment | 12.80*** | < .001 | .05 | .09 | .077 |
| Contingent Rewards | | | | | .18*** | < .001 |
| Active Exception Management | Training | 15.66*** | < .001 | .06 | -.01 | .778 |
| Contingent Rewards | | | | | .26** | < .001 |
| Active Exception Management | Evaluation | 32.38*** | < .001 | .13 | .03 | .479 |
| Contingent Rewards | | | | | .33*** | < .001 |

Note. ** p < .01; *** p < .001

Contingent reward leadership is positively and significantly associated with the perception of a correct recruitment process. The model is statistically significant (F (3, 438) = 12.80; p < .001) and explains 5% of the variability in the dependent variable.

Contingent reward leadership is positively and significantly associated with the perception of adequate training. The model is statistically significant (F (3, 438) = 15.66; p < .001) and explains 6% of the variability in the dependent variable.

Contingent reward leadership is positively and significantly associated with perceived fair evaluation. The model is statistically significant (F (3, 438) = 32.38; p < .001) and explains 13% of the variability in the dependent variable.

Table 7: Effect of laissez-faire leadership on public policy

| Independent Variable | Dependent Variable | F | p | R ² | β | p |
|----------------------|--------------------|----------|--------|----------------|---------|--------|
| Laissez-faire | Recruitment | 6.78*** | .010 | .01 | -.12*** | .010 |
| | Training | 23.96*** | < .001 | .05 | -.23*** | < .001 |
| | Evaluation | 36.92*** | < .001 | .08 | -.28*** | < .001 |

Note. *** p < .001

The results indicate a negative and significant association between the laissez-faire leadership style and the perception of a correct recruitment process. The model is statistically significant ($F(1, 440) = 6.78$; $p = .010$) and explains 1% of the variability in the dependent variable.

The laissez-faire leadership style is also negatively and significantly associated with the perception of proper training. The model is statistically significant ($F(1, 440) = -23.96$; $p < .001$) and explains 5% of the variability in the dependent variable.

A negative and significant association exists between laissez-faire leadership style and the perception of a fair evaluation process. The model is statistically significant ($F(1, 440) = 36.92$; $p < .001$) and explains 8% of the variability in the dependent variable.

Table 8: Results of the moderating effect

| Variables | B | SE | t | p | 95% CI |
|---|---------|-----|----------|--------|--------------|
| Active Exception Management → Training ($R^2 = .02$; $p < .001$) | | | | | |
| Constant | 2.99*** | .05 | 62.15*** | < .001 | [2.89, 3.08] |
| Active Exception Management | .11* | .06 | 1.77* | .077 | [-.01, .23] |
| Manager | .07 | .11 | .64 | .523 | [-.14, .28] |
| AEM*Manager | -.25* | .13 | -1.88* | .061 | [-.52, .01] |
| Contingent Rewards → Training ($R^2 = .09$; $p < .001$) | | | | | |
| Constant | 3.04*** | .06 | 53.31*** | < .001 | [2.93, 3.16] |
| Contingent Rewards | .31*** | .06 | 4.93*** | < .001 | [.18, .43] |
| Manager | -.09 | .15 | -.61 | .542 | [-.40, .21] |
| CR*Manager | -.32* | .17 | -1.95* | .052 | [-.65, .00] |
| Laissez-faire → Recruitment ($R^2 = .02$; $p < .001$) | | | | | |
| Constant | 2.77*** | .09 | 28.41*** | < .001 | [2.57, 2.96] |
| Laissez-faire | -.18*** | .06 | -2.86*** | .004 | [-.30, -.06] |
| Manager | -.28 | .18 | -1.50 | .851 | [-.63, .09] |
| LF*Manager | .37** | .19 | 1.97** | .049 | [.01, .74] |
| Laissez-faire → Training ($R^2 = .06$; $p < .001$) | | | | | |
| Constant | 3.44*** | .10 | 32.08*** | < .001 | [3.24, 3.66] |
| Laissez-faire | -.36*** | .06 | -5.30*** | < .001 | [-.49, -.23] |
| Manager | -.43** | .20 | -2.10** | .036 | [-.82, -.03] |
| LF*Manager | .36* | .21 | 1.76* | .078 | [-.04, .77] |

Note. * $p < .10$; ** $p < .05$; *** $p < .01$

Being in a managerial position was found to have a marginally significant moderating effect on the relationship between leadership by active management and training ($B = -.25$; $p = .061$).

The fact that the participant holds a managerial position has a marginally significant moderating effect on the relationship between contingent rewards and the perception of adequate training ($B = -.32$; $p = .052$).

There is a moderation effect, by whether the participant holds a managerial position, on the relationship between laissez-faire leadership and recruitment ($B = .37$; $p = .049$) and between laissez-faire leadership and recruitment ($B = .36$; $p = .078$).

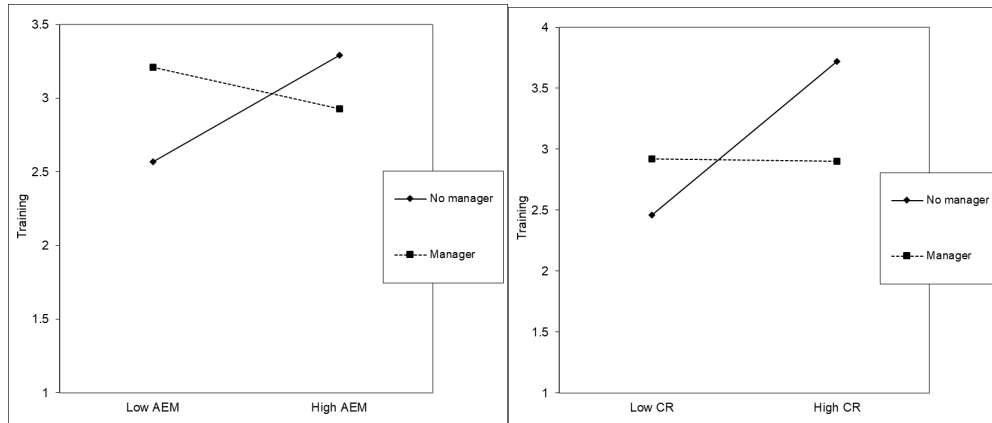


Figure 4: AEM x Manager Interaction and CR x Manager Interaction and Training

For participants who do not hold a managerial position, when compared to participants who do hold a managerial position, leadership by contingent rewards and laissez-faire becomes relevant to enhance the perception of adequate training (Figure 4).

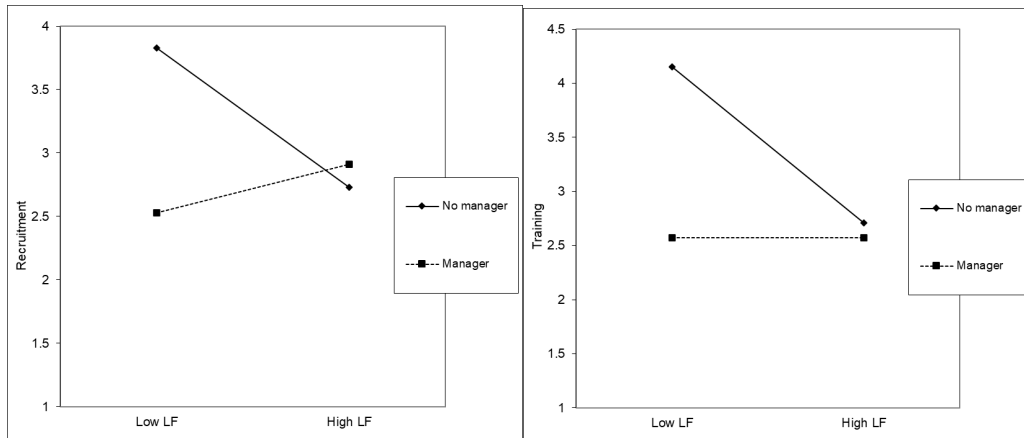


Figure 5: LF x Manager Interaction, Recruitment and Training

For participants who hold a managerial position, when compared to participants who do not hold a managerial position, laissez-faire leadership becomes relevant to enhance the perception of an adequate recruitment and training process (Figure 5).

5. Discussion and Conclusions

This study aimed to study the association between leadership and public policy and whether being a leader moderates this relationship.

Hypothesis 1 was proven since being a leader or being led significantly affects leadership style. Leaders showed a higher perception of all leadership styles except the laissez-faire. These results align with the literature (Versiani et al., 2017), whose study found differences in the perception of leadership between leaders and followers.

Hypothesis 2 was not supported. Hypotheses 3 and 5 were proven, as it was shown that the agency where participants work significantly affects the perception of leadership style and public policies. Among the agencies that stand out as having participants with a higher perception of leadership and public policy are the Ministry of Infrastructure and Housing and the Ministry of Health.

Hypothesis 4 was only partially proven since being a leader or subordinate only significantly affected performance evaluation, with the leader's perception being significantly higher than the subordinate's perception.

As expected, hypothesis 6 was proven, finding that all leadership styles are significantly associated with public policy. These results align with what is stated in the literature that leadership style can be considered a critical factor in public policy implementation (Ndalamba, 2019).

Finally, as expected, a moderating effect was found. The fact that the participant does or does not hold a managerial position moderates the relationship between leadership by active management and training, the relationship between rewards and training, the relationship between laissez-faire leadership and training, and the relationship between laissez-faire leadership and recruitment. As seen among the public policies, adequate training is the one that becomes most sensitive.

According to the findings, followers and leaders have different perceptions of evaluation and leadership style. Significant disparities were discovered in how they perceived transformational leadership, contingent rewards, laissez-faire, recruitment, training, and evaluation within their organizations. The degree to which the person is in a managerial position affects the strength of the relationship between leadership style and public policies.

This study reveals the prevalent leadership style in public administration and how it relates to societal policy.

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