UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL

ANALYSIS OF GENDER ROLE SOCIALISATION INFLUENCE ON PERCEPTION OF LEADERSHIP STYLE OF MALES AND FEMALES.

By

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<u>DECLARATION</u>

I Johnson Nwokeiwu declare that

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ABSTRACT

Many women have taken up higher positions in their companies in recent times both in South Africa and all over the world. Many more women are taking professional courses and will definitely find a place in the leadership position in the big companies (Sekaran, et al. 1992). As a result there is big change and there will be more changes in the demography of labour force. These changes make it essential that leaders understand how to capture the synergy for the emerging diverse group of employees. The best and brightest workers, whom we all seek, are coming out of a labour pool that is increasingly made of women. The aspirations of women have been changing dramatically as a result of civil rights movement and women movements and South Africa is a good example of the countries in the world where women have better opportunities of leading big organisations (Watson, et al. 2004).

The inclusion of women in the leadership position of many companies has aroused the interest to investigate if there is a difference in the way women and men lead. This is important because the role of leadership and the style of leadership have been identified as the primary factors in determining organisational performance and competitiveness (Rechardson, et al. 2008).

A major part of this study discussed and analysed the leadership style differences of men and women leaders. The study also took into cognisance of the importance of agents of socialisation such as the family (husband and wife), the media, religion and education on gender role in the society. We discussed the gender role ascribed to male and female in the society and how this has influenced the perception of their leadership styles. Males and females received different orientation from the media, religion, schools and colleges on how men and women suppose to behave. And how these orientations influence perception, interaction, and ultimately the leadership styles is an interesting area of study and somewhat more difficult to define (Rechardson, et al. 2008). A review of such differences serves as a starting point in the study of gender differences in behaviour and in the leadership styles; and why women may offer unique strengths essential to healthy growth and operation in an organization.

The results of this study did not show much difference in the leadership styles of men and women leaders but there are a few differences in the leadership dimensions of the

transformational and transactional leadership style. The Asian female leaders score higher in charisma than their male counterpart. Within positions female frontline (supervisors) scored higher on motivation (idealised influence), while the male middle managers scored higher on task oriented leadership behaviour.

However insignificant the differences may be, it is wise to mention that women scored slightly higher than men in the leadership styles traditionally ascribed to women. For example, the results of table 26 show women leaders scored slightly higher than men in the participative/democratic and transformational leadership styles and they equally scored slightly higher in some dimensions of transformational leadership, intellectually stimulating, charisma, and motivation. Men scored slightly higher in autocratic, transactional and delegate leadership styles. Men also scored slightly higher in other dimensions like management by exemption and task oriented behaviours.

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Chapter 1

1.1. <u>Introduction and Background to the Problem Statement:</u>

Significant global economic changes and factors such as rapid technological change, a rising flow of products from newly industrialized countries, deregulation and trade liberalization are reducing the barriers to entry in industries and heightened the levels of competition (Hamel, 2007). Volatility in OPEC (Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries) pricing strategies, and changing demographic structures created a turbulent, unstable and competitive environment in which major organizational change was very important. These changes took their toll on worker satisfaction and leaders are challenged to finding new ways of building employees' morale, hence new approaches to leadership were needed (Hay, 2009; Todd, et al. 2003). These changes make it essential that leaders understand how to capture the synergy for the emerging diverse group of employees. As Senge (1999) pointed out, learning organisations demand a new view of leadership and at present every organisation should be a learning organisation in order to cope with the massive economic changes. The role of leadership and the style of leadership have been identified as the primary factors in determining organisational performance and competitiveness. In today's business world the only true differential between good and great companies is leadership (Nel, 2007).

More women are being educated and trained to take up professional jobs More women are also taking MBA programmes and will definitely find a place in the leadership position in the major multinational companies (Sekaran, et al. 1992). Foti, et al. (2003) in their research findings discovered that more than 50.5% of women hold a managerial and professional position across the USA. And 15.7% are Fortune 500 corporate officers and 7.9% of these women hold some the highest titles in these companies. Although this study was carried out in the USA, it mirrors female upward mobility in the corporate ladder all over the world. Foti, et al. (2003) also discovered that women make up 46% of the total private sector workforce and 38% of all managers in the USA. These figures are much higher than they were a generation ago (Cohn, et al. 2009). And there are no indications that it is about the change.

In 2004 the African Union adopted groundbreaking rules requiring a 50- 50 gender balance among officers in its higher ranks. This followed the adoption in 2000 of UN Resolution

1325, which promotes equal participation by women and men in leadership. (Hodza, F. (20060).

According to Watson, et al. (2004) the economics of our times are driving us to a tolerance for diversity. The best and brightest workers, whom we all seek, are coming out of a labour pool that is increasingly made of women, he pointed out. The aspirations of women have been changing considerably as a result of the civil rights movement and women movements and South Africa is a good example of the countries in the world today that has more women in the running of the government. Many women today want careers not just jobs, and they have realized that childbearing is a small part of their life. Many families have continuously experienced the need for both couple to work because of the economic downturn (Watson, et al. 2004). "By ignoring women in the leadership of companies, organisations are losing out on the feminine principles of leadership which are critical for organisational development. These are principles of caring, making intuitive decisions, having a sense of work as being part of one's life and being responsible in how you use your profits and recognizing that the bottom line should stay at the bottom" (Watson, et al. 2004).

Also, challenges facing today's organizations are extraordinarily complex and likely to increase presumably, organizations cannot profit entirely from the distinctive talent and perspective that females possess when it goes underutilized given the time and money spent on preparation and training (Rechardson, et al. 2008). Workers' general notions about the effectiveness of male and female managers can be as important as their actual leadership abilities or business results, according to Barsade (2005). The differences between the leadership styles of male and females are not necessarily positive or negative in building leadership, but management need to be conscious of their styles and how they affect others in their organization is important (Barsade, 2005).

Women are expected to combine leadership with compassion. They are disliked when they do the opposite. Male leaders are not subjected to that expectation to the some extent when exercising their leadership. Women who lead with an autocratic style are the targets of more disapproval than those who use a more democratic style; men may choose the autocratic leadership style without suggested to the same disapproval. (Lips, 2009). Society ascribes male leadership style as agentic and the female leader as communal global (Richardson, 2008). Agentic qualities include assertiveness, control, and drive or purposefulness and are

characterized by aggressiveness, ambition, dominance, independence, self-reliance, self-sufficiency, and decisiveness. Communal qualities on the other hand represent a concern for the welfare of other people. These qualities include ability to devote self to others, caring, affectionate, emotional expressiveness, empathy, helpfulness, and sympathy among others (Walumbwa, et al. 2001).

Richardson, et al. (2008) cites (Bass, 1998; Dobbins & Platz, 1986; Donnell & Hall, 1980) pointed out that some studies have identified gender differences in the way women and men lead. All the same, some other studies have indicated that there are no gender differences in leadership style (Foti, et al. 2003). Other leadership style researchers cited by Richardson, et al. (2008) such as Kolb (1999) and Shimanoff and Jenkins (1991) indicated that there are far more similarities than differences in the leadership behaviours of males and females, and they are all equally effective. The contradicting findings in these various studies done by different researchers at different times could be as a result of many factors; hence we want to carry out this study to consider other factors that may influence the leadership styles both male and female leaders not considered in these studies. For example it has been proven that women, who work in male dominated organisations, adopt a leadership style appropriate to the expectation of the group for fear of being branded weak. A woman leader in men dominated company is likely to adopt a more autocratic leadership style than a women leader in a gender neutral environment company.

Leadership literature is overflowing with researches examining the supposed differences between male and female leadership styles. But there has been no research providing conclusive evidence of gender-related differences between the leadership styles of males and females (Rechardson, et al. 2008). Compounding this problem is that in today's global society, organizations are expanding leader job requirements to include comprehensive perception of the knowledge about diversity of employees and their needs. Interestingly, some theorists now perceive female leadership styles as assets in the light of the trends toward flatter organizations, team-based management, and increased globalization (Richardson, et al. 2008).

A major part of this study will discuss and analyse the possibility of leadership style differences in the way men and women lead and consider the demographical variables and their influence on gender leadership behaviours and leadership styles of both sexes. The study

will take cognisance of the importance of agents of socialisation such as the family (husband and wife), the media, religion and education on gender role in the society. The study will discuss the gender role ascribed to husband and wife in the family and how this has influenced the perception of their leadership styles.

The same goes for media in the subtle way it influences people's behaviour, especially the men and women role in the homes and in the society. This indoctrination is done mainly through their advertisements programmes. The main religious groups are not excused from this gender role stereotyping as well. Different religions have teachings on the role and position of the husband and wife in the home and in the society. Like the other agents of socialisation, religious teaching has portrayed the role of wife and mother as subordinate to that of the husband. Women have been taught to be caring, nurturing and to be care givers and men to be the leaders, providers and always to be in charge.

Males and females received different orientation from the media, religion, schools and colleges and how these orientations influence perception, interaction, and ultimately the leadership styles is an interesting area of study and somewhat more difficult to define. A review of such differences serves as a starting point in the study of gender differences in behaviour and in the leadership styles of both women and men and why women may offer unique strengths essential to healthy growth and operation in an organization.

1.1.1. Age:

Hyde (2005) report looked into the developmental course of possible gender differences how any apparent gap may open or close over time. The analysis presented evidence that gender differences fluctuate with age, growing smaller or larger at different times in the life span. This fluctuation indicates again that any differences are not stable.

1.1.2. Gender and Leadership:

Women, who have been socialized to nurture their family and care for the home, bring those same caring, nurturing traits into the workplace. As a result men and women are expected to behave in a certain way appropriate to their own gender, which is known as role congruity. According to Wharton, (2005), Role congruity is the expectation that people will exhibit certain behaviour (including leadership behaviour) based on their gender. Because women were socialized differently, at work they are more likely to demonstrate an ethic of care,

grounded in relationships rather than laws and regulations. When socially acceptable behaviours for women are combined with their innate skills in communicating, verbal fluency, and picking up peripheral information, a style of leadership emerges that is consistent with women's skills and abilities mostly the transformational and democratic style of leadership (Wharton, 2005; Moore, 2007; Swan, 2005; Eagle, et al. 2000). And men because of the way they are socialized readily adopt a transactional and autocratic style of leadership (Barsade, 2005).

When women especially do not meet that expectation, perceptions of leadership ability can wane, regardless of the leader's actual effectiveness. Men and women can do the same thing, but if they both lead in an autocratic manner, women are rated less effective because we expect men to lead in that way. Men and women can exhibit the same results and accomplishments and the perception of their effectiveness is different (Wharton, 2005).

1.1.3. Family (Husband and Wife) Orientation:

People, meaning both men and women acquire the characteristics and behaviours prescribed for them, as well as the values considered appropriate for males and females in their various families and communities. Children are exposed to many factors which influence their attitudes and behaviours regarding gender roles. Parents especially mothers treat their children differently even before the children realised that there are physically different, this is evident from the colour of their clothing, boys in blue and girls in pink (Berryman, et al. 2009). In the family and in the society there are values, motive, or behaviour considered more appropriate for members of one sex than the other, for instance females are looked upon to be kind, nurturing, cooperative, and sensitive to others' needs. The males on the other hand are assumed to be dominant, assertive, independent, and competitive (Karam, et al 2009).

Pounder, et al. (2002) suggest that because of the socialization process, women have developed values and characteristics that result in leadership behaviours that are different from the traditional competitive, controlling, aggressive leadership of men. They argue that "women's central involvement in managing households, raising children and coping with careers give them a capacity for prioritization in a leadership role that men typically do not have" Pounder, et al. (2002). The way women have been subjected to subordinate roles in their various families, has helped them develop qualities that are exceptionally valuable; psychological qualities that are particularly relevant to leadership based on relationship,

encouragement and support. The expectation that women will be more relationship oriented than men, largely accounts for the different approaches to the leadership style of men and women.

Whitman, (2009) pointed out that there is a new growing appreciation of those traits that women use to keep families together and to organize volunteers to unite and make changes in the shared life of the communities. These newly admired leadership qualities of shared leadership; nurturance and doing good for others are today not only sought after but also indeed needed to make a difference in the world. A feminine way of leading Whitman (2009) pointed out includes helping the world to understand and be principled about values that really matter.

1.1.4. Marital Status:

Family orientation cannot be discussed without the discussion of marital status because it is continuous to the former. What is the relevance of corporate leadership styles to home management? Brennen (2009) pointed out that the concept of the role of a man and woman in the marriage relationship and the home is invariably transmitted into the larger society. According to Brennen (2009) men who think that a woman should be controlled and manipulated in the home also believe that women should be controlled and manipulated in the workplace. In the corporate world "growth and productivity have become a greater reality through gender inclusion and the removal of the power scale of inequity" (Brennen, 2009).

It is within the marital relationship that traditional gender roles are most readily played out. Even when the woman takes care of the need of the family they will still appear as subordinate to the husband or partner. Moreover, it has been proved that married individuals are more conservative and more traditional in their social way of life than unmarried individuals (Judge, 2008).

1.1.5. Media Orientation:

Cultivation theory basic idea is that the more time people spend watching television, the more likely they are to perceive the real world in ways that reflect the pattern found in television. In support of cultivation theory, studies have found that both children and adults who watch television are more aware of gender stereotypes, see themselves in more stereotypical terms, and hold more traditional attitude toward men's and women's roles. And there is little or no

evidence to prove the contrary (Powell, 1993). Children without television have been shown to be less stereotyped in their gender role attitudes. Children who view programmes with non-traditional gender roles tend to have non-traditional gender role perceptions. Media depictions of men and women as fundamentally "different" appear to perpetuate misconceptions of gender difference which can affect men and women at work and at home, as parents and leaders. As an example, workplace studies show that women who go against the caring, nurturing feminine stereotype may pay dearly for it when hired or evaluated (Witt, 2001).

1.1.6. Religious Teachings for Husband and Wife:

Some religions teaching have contributed in helping to shape the gender role in the family and in the society. Barron (2006) pointed out that the "holy bible says Godly wife submits to her husband, as unto the Lord. For his part, the husband is to love his wife as himself" (Ephesians 5:23-33). This meaning that men are to love and respect their wives keeping in mind that their wives are in need of their spiritual guidance and protection (1 Peter 3:1-7). Some other religions although they advocate equality between the man and his wife have put the woman role as subordinate to that of the husband. They advocate for women to be pure, humble, caring and loving and categorically stated that the role of the women is primarily child bearing and taking care of them and the entire household (communal behaviour) (Barron 2006).

It is no surprise that religious upbringing and service attendance has been found to predict traditional attitudes toward women. Those who were raised in a religious environment will hold more strongly traditional gender role (Judge,et al, 2008). According to Powell, (1993) a study had found that the more frequently people attended church service the more traditional were their attitude towards women. People are influenced by their religious teaching more than their experience. Historically and even in the recent past people have used religion to deprive women of their rights, to subordinate them and even to prevent them from being educated. Afghanistan is a good example of where women are still not allowed access to education and are subjected to all kind of human conditions that are not in consonant with the modern way of life (Powell, 1993).

Religious teachings have proposed that women be good at caring, nurturing, at modesty, interpersonal relationship and be more observant to the family needs. But men are expected

to be assertive, domineering, risk-taking, intelligent, hard working, dedicated. These are qualities that are expected to help them provide for their families. Women leaders are likely to be negatively judged in a society predominantly controlled or influenced by religion, if they assume a style of leadership or behaviour not ascribed to them. And these women will later on in their life adopt that style of leadership expected of them just to win acceptance. Research shows that even if a woman is full time employed, she will still have to spend more time with her family then her husband does (Barron, 2006). As we have mentioned above men are expected to be aggressive, assertive and take greater risk and women are expected to be caring, gentile and relationship oriented due to their socialization within their religious affiliation (Barron, 2006).

1.1.7. Education Attainment:

What children learn or see at school significantly affects the way they behave, how they think of themselves, and how they function in society later in life. Education reinforces the gender role stereotype or bias which was started in the family by the parents and perpetuated by the media and the religious instruction. In school boys and girls are handled differently, boys tend to receive more of both negative and positive encouragement. At school teachers expect boys to out-perform girls in mathematics. Lindberg, et al. (2008) suggests that mothers with greater mathematics education show more gender differentiation than egalitarian mothers. These mothers according to Lindberg use more cognitively complex language when teaching science to their sons than daughters. These children grow up to belief that mathematics is more difficult for a girl than it is for a boy and that mathematics is male dominant. Children's self perception of their academic capabilities mirrors their parents' perception. This reinforces the assertion that men are more intelligent and assertive than women.

It has been pointed out by researchers that as women and men spend more time in institutions of higher learning they began to see little and no difference between men's and women's ability to lead or manage and see no reason why men and women leaders should exhibit different leadership styles.

1.2. Characteristics/Traits of Effective Leaders:

1.2.1. Personal Characteristics:

One of the most important characteristic of a leader is the ability to exhibit so much energy and stamina when he/she is in pursuit of a goal either for the interest of the organisation he or

she is working for or for the interest of the employees working under him/her. Leaders have energy, tenacity, focus drive and are vigorous and full of life in order to handle the pace, the demand, and the challenge of leadership (Carter, et al; Daft, 2008). Successful leaders are not only highly driven and intrinsically motivated but also instil that same enthusiasm in their associates (Sugerman, 2009). The leader does not leave any thing to chance, she puts all she has into making sure goals and objectives are met for the benefit of the organisation and the followers (Daft, 2008; Sugerman, 2009).

According to Yeh, (2009); Earl Bakken, the CEO of Medtronic is never afraid to take direct actions and he accepts the mistakes that come from moving fast. His motto is "Ready, Fire, Aim!"

- "Ready: Develop a personal vision, visualize the results and hold the vision until it manifests.
- Fire: Charge fearlessly into new experiences and activities since failure is closer to success than inaction."
- Aim: Never stop. He says, "A corrected aim eventually brings the envisioned success." He created a world class business (Medtronic), and transformed the big Island of Hawaii into a healing island for the world (Yeh, (2009).

1.2.2. Intelligence and ability:

Effective leaders are found to be people of above average intelligence and ability and are persons with a broad knowledge of the environment in which her company operates. The effective leader also portrays general cognitive intelligence which involves farsightedness and conceptual thinking and knowledge of the business she operates (Daft, 2008; Dubrin, 2007 p.32). The effective leaders are able to make informed judgements regarding issues effecting the organisation and are decisive when making decisions. An effective leader is able to know how the exchange rate will affect the industry she/he operates; she/he is able to know how the militant activities in the oil rich zones will affect his/her business in the next quarter of the year, with such know she can make good judgements about future business strategy (Dubrin, 2007 p.32).

1.2.3. Personality of a Leader:

Effective leaders are known to be optimistic about the future business and encourage their followers to be optimistic too. Effective leaders have balanced emotional intelligence, they understands and masters their own emotion and those of the other, in a way that inspires

confidence (Carter, et al 2000). Great leadership encompasses confidence, assertiveness and mutual respect. They always have self-confidence and they instil the same confidence in team members or subordinates. The leader must project that self-confidence to the group, through his/her words and gestures, behaviour as he/she takes control of his/her actions and does not lost hope under pressure or in a rapidly changing environment or under hopeless situations (Dubrin, 2007). Martin Luther King Jr displayed strong self-confidence and optimism in his fight for quality for all in the USA, a quality that came in his famous speech 'I have a dream'. Instead of losing hope under difficult situations they rather display a rare enthusiasm that makes them stand out in the midst of their subordinates.

Trustworthiness is very essential for effective leaders; a good leader must be a person of integrity to be able to command trust from followers. Trustworthiness emanates from dealing fairly and consistently with every employee irrespective of race or religion. To gain trust the leader must practise what he/she preaches and live by example and always tell the truth (Dubrin, 2001; 2007).

A good leader is characterised by open mindedness and frankness. "Leaders create an atmosphere of safety that permit spirited discussion, group learning, and trust" (Charan, 2002, p.150). He/she speaks out what others may not be able to speak openly. His/her openness means that decisions are not prearranged.

1.2.4. Social Characteristics:

Good leaders are sociable, have interpersonal skills, and are always cooperative with their followers. Effective leaders know their followers inside out and are able to detect when a subordinate needs to be motivated and display individual consideration when dealing with followers. They have the ability to enlist cooperation, tact and diplomacy when introducing new project to the stakeholders (Dubrin, 2001; 2007).

1.2.5. Story Tellers:

Storytelling is a powerful communication tool, when used skillfully it can be effective as a leadership tool. Great leaders know that workers need more than lofty mission statements. To understand and appreciate what their organization stands for, workers need to hear about the

organisation's values. For instance employees at Medtronic are brought to tears when they hear about a man with Parkinson's disease whose life was transformed by their company's technology (Yeh, (2009); Smart leaders tell stories, they periodically gather the stakeholders around the corporate campfire (the boardroom, annual meeting, holiday events, etc.) to recall their legends and share new tales. By touching the hearts as well as the minds of their employees, customers, and stakeholders, they leave a legacy of experiences that inspire generations because good stories resonate. Telling one's company stories speaks volumes about their philosophy and their values, says Jim Sinegal (Clark, 2009, Dubrin, 2001; 2007).

1.2.6. Work-Related Characteristics:

Another characteristic of effective leadership is drive, desire to excel in whatever they plan to do, a strong drive is always associated with high energy. Leaders work long hours for many years. They have stamina and are vigorous and full of life in order to handle the pace, the demand, and the challenge of leadership as we have discussed above. A good leader gives personal guidance & direction, especially when he/she is introducing new ideas and reserves the individuality of his/her team members (Carter, et al. 2000; Daft, 2008; Dubrin, 2007).

Kouzes, et al. (1997) in their study of the leader characteristics that were admired most, the first one was honesty, forward-looking, inspiration, and competent, the big four across four continent, America, Asia, Europe and Australia. This people responded to question about leaders with whom they had had personal experience and for whom they had great admiration and respect (Kouzes, et al. p.20). Gordon Moore might be the quietest CEO in history. His presence is characterized by personal humility and the ability to stay focused at all time. Despite the fact that he created the driving force behind the entire roadmap for Intel and the semiconductor industry, he almost always credits his Intel co-founders, Bob Noyce and Andy Grove, with Intel's success. He has always remained a scientist who seeks solutions and accepts the mistakes along the way. One of his leadership mottos is, "One thing a leader does is to remove the stigma of mistakes (Yeh, et al. 2004).

In summary excellence in leadership is acquired by people who have a strong sense of vision, have passion and are able to get people to commit 100% and take the necessary action to see that vision becomes a reality. Great leaders excel in the art of communication and motivation, mutual respect, instilling confidence and enthusiasm, and showing credibility and integrity on a consistent basis (Sugarman (2009).

(Table 1) Pew survey findings about gender and leadership traits
The Traits of a Good Leader
Percentages who say each trait is…

	Absolutely Essential	Very Important	Not Very important	DK/Ref.
Honesty	52	44	4	1
Intelligent	46	48	5	2
Hardworking	45	51	4	*
Decisive	39	49	11	2
Ambitious	30	44	26	1
Compassionate	28	45	26	1
Outgoing	22	45	33	1
Creative	20	46	33	1

(Adapted from Cohn, et al (2009))

1.3. 1. Leadership Characteristics/Trait Associated with Men and Women Leaders:

There are different characteristic commonly ascribed to female and male leaders which authors have categorized as agentic and communal characteristics. According to Eagly, (2001) agentic characteristics, which are attributed more strongly to men than women, include "assertiveness, controlling, and confident tendency–for example, aggressive, ambitious, dominant, forceful, independent, daring, self-confident, and competitive". Communal characteristics, which are ascribed more strongly to women than men, "describe primarily a concern with the welfare of other people–for example, affectionate, helpful, kind, sympathetic, interpersonally sensitive, nurturant, and gentle" (Eagle, 2007)

Cohn, et al. (2009) carried out a study to find out the traits associated with male and female leaders. The respondents were requested to indicate according to their opinion which following behaviour or characteristic is truer of male or female leaders. The following results were dictated: Others include the ones listed in the table below.

(Table 2)

	More True of Women	More True of Men	Both Equally

Women are Viewed as the more honest, emotional and compassionate sex...

	%	%	%
Emotional	85	5	9
Compassionate	80	5	23
Creative	62	11	24
Manipulative	52	26	16
Honest	50	20	22
Outgoing	47	28	22
Intelligent	38	14	43

.. .while men are viewed as more arrogant, stubborn and decisive

Arrogant	10	70	15
Stubborn	32	46	19
Decisive	33	44	18

......and neither gender is viewed as more ambitious or hardworking

Ambitious	34	34	29
Hardworking	28	28	41

Adapted from Cohn, et al. (2008) (**note: 'Don't know responses not included'**)

1.4.1. Motivation of the Study:

The study is so important because it aims to fill a leadership literature deficit, on the gender role of socialization effects (e.g. family, education, media and religion) may have on the perception leadership style of male and females leaders. There have been many studies on the differences in leadership style of males and females but none has included the influence of religion on the perception of leadership style of males and females.

Moreover, the previous studies had been carried out either in America or in Europe and quite few have been carried out in Asia and none had been done in Africa in general and in South Africa in particular. This study has aimed to fill that gap. This study will take into account the different factors that might affect perception of leadership style males and females as never done before. The previous studies have considered only one or two variables but this study will consider four dependent variables (religion, education, family and media). Therefore,

this study will produce a deeper understanding of the different factors that may affect the different perceptions of leadership style of males and females in the organisations.

Moreover, none of the previous studies have provided any conclusive evidence to show that there are indeed differences between the leadership style of men and women. Furthermore, there have been contradictory findings in the previous studies, hence this research. This research serves to give more evidence either to disapprove and to support the earlier researching findings on the similar topic.

Information gathered from the study will provide greater clarity to human resource personnel in recruiting future leaders. And also to recommend useful information to the organizations that view the inclusion of both women and men in the top level positions as very important.

1.5.1. Problem Statement:

The demographical changes in leadership in the business organizations have created some amount of curiosity for many people wanting to know how men and women lead and whether there are differences in the way that each sex leads. As more women moved into highly visible management positions, the question of whether women lead differently from men has gained increasing attention (Daft, 2008). Moreover, people want to know which leadership style (men or women style) is better suited the current economic environment.

There is an indication that leadership styles predominantly practised in companies which are masculine oriented will have to change and this has brought about many researchers trying to figure out any difference in leadership style of women and men and its possible implications to the organization. This issue is important so that an organization redesigns structure and culture to accommodate these women (Sekaran, et al. 1992). Such changes will improve and enhance productivity and profitability of organization and inject vitality into them.

Women leaders face different expectations about leadership styles and approaches. Women leaders are expected to display greater inter-personal skills and adopt more participatory, democratic styles, while men are expected to adopt more directive approaches. Research involving the evaluations of the leaders by supervisors, subordinates, and peers in real world

settings does not always support these perceived differences hence this study (Hodza, F. (20060).

1.6. 1. Objectives:

- To identify the differences in the leadership styles of men and women leaders.
- To identify literature reviews on gender role socialisation and its influence in the leadership style of men and women.

- To investigate the sources of gender role socialisation (e.g. of sources: family, education, media and religion) and their influence in self perception of the leadership style of men and women.

The research will concentrate on the influence of family upbringing (orientation) on the roles of males and females (husband and wife) in the homes and how this has affected their behaviours and the subsequent adoption of the leadership style in business organisations. The same study will be carried out on the influence of educational experiences, media orientation and religious teachings about males and female role in the homes and its effects on the behaviour and choice of the leadership style of men and women leaders. The research will be limited to the five major leadership styles and behaviours as identified in the literature review. The study aims at to find out if any trend exists between the self perception of leadership style of men and women.

- To investigate if there is a significant difference in the perception of the leadership styles of men and women based on biographical variables (gender, age, race, marital status).

The study will aim at investing the possibility of leadership style differences based on gender, age, race and marital status for males and females leaders.

1.7. 1. Research Questions:

The important question is whether males and females lead organisations differently, and if they do, whether these differences are influenced by family, education, religion and media orientation.

1. Do leadership styles and behaviours differ for males and females?

2. Do people have different perceptions of the leadership style of men and women, based on their biographical variables e.g. age, gender, marital status?

3. Does Gender role socialisation (e.g. family, media exposure, educational experiences, Religious orientation) influence peoples perception of the leadership style of men and women?

4. Do male and female leaders have different perception of the leadership behaviour for males and female leaders?

1.8. 1. Hypotheses

There is seven hypothesis generated with some sub-hypotheses as outlined low.

1. There is a significant difference in the self-perception of the leadership styles and behaviour of males and females business leaders based on gender.

   (1.a.) Male leaders will significantly exhibit a more autocratic leadership style than the female leaders.

   (1.b) Female leaders will significantly exhibit a more democratic leader style than their male counterpart.

   (1.c) Male leaders will significantly exhibit a more laissez faire of leadership than the female leaders.

   (1.d) Female leaders will significantly exhibit a more transformational leadership style than their male counterparts.

   (1e) Male leaders will significantly exhibit a more transactional leadership than the female leaders.

   (1.f) Male leaders will significantly exhibit a more intellectual stimulating leadership behaviour than the female leaders.

   (1.g) Female leaders will significantly exhibit a more individualised consideration leadership behaviour than the male leaders.

   (1.h) Male leaders will significantly demonstrate a more charisma leadership behaviour than the female leaders.

   (1.i) Female leaders will significantly exhibit a more inspirational motivational leadership behaviour than the male leaders.

(1.j) Male leaders will significantly exhibit a more contingent reward leadership than the female leaders.

(1.k) Male leaders will significantly exhibit a more management by exemption leadership behaviour than the female leaders.

(1.l) Female leaders will exhibit a more relationship oriented leaders leadership behaviour than the male leaders.

(1.m) Male leaders will exhibit a more task oriented leadership behaviour than the female.

2   Leaders who are married are more likely to exhibit traditional leadership style ascribed to male and women leaders than those who are single (example, married male leaders will exhibit a more (2.a) autocratic leadership, (2.b) transactional and (2.c) task oriented leadership than the married female leaders; while married female leaders will exhibit a more (2.e) democratic, (2.f) transformational and (2.g) relationship oriented leadership than the male leaders.

3   There is a significant difference in the leadership style of male and female leaders based on the years spent in the higher institution (Educational experiences). The more years male and female leaders spent in the higher institution the similar their leadership style.

4   There is a significant difference in the leadership style of men and women leaders who were raised in the orthodox Christian religions than those raised in non-Christian religion (there will be no difference for Christians men and women, but there will be difference for non Christian men and women).

5   There is a significant different between men and women leaders who spent more than 5 hours watching TV than those who spent 4 hours or less watching TV; (men who watch more TV are more likely to be (7.a) autocratic, (7.b) transactional, (7.c) task oriented, (7.d) contingent reward behaviour, (7.e) management by exemption, (7.f) delegate, than their female counterparts. and on the other hand female who watch more TV will be more (7.g) transformational, (7.h) participative, (i) relationship oriented, (j) charisma, and individual consideration than those who don't).

6   There is a significant difference between the self-perception of leadership style of male and female business leaders based on age.

7   There is a significant difference in female and male leaders on self perception of the leadership style and behaviour based on race. (a) White male and female will have similar leadership style for all the variables, (b) Asians and African male leaders will be more authoritarian, task oriented; African and females leaders are more likely to be relationship oriented, charisma and transformational leadership oriented.

1.9.1. Structure of the Study:

Chapter 1

This chapter is an introductory chapter that will briefly explain the motivation, problem statement, and the theoretical background of the study, the research questions and the hypothesis of the study.

Chapter 2

The whole of chapter 2 will be devoted to a detailed study of the literature review of the study based on the research questions and the objectives of the study.

Chapter 3

Chapter 3 will describe in detail the research methodology and the design of the study. This chapter will also describe the type of questionnaire to be used in the study and what each question will be tested for. The type of tests to run with SPSS and the statistical analysis will be described fully in this chapter.

Chapter 4

The result of the statistical analysis will be interpreted here and the tables and diagrams clearly explained. The data collection including the sample size and sampling technique will be explained in this chapter.

Chapter 5

This chapter will contain the discussion of the findings, the recommendations and the final conclusion of the study.

1.9.2. Research Methodology

An inductive approach is going to be used whereby a survey is going to be carried out at Graduate School of Business of University of KwaZulu Natal. In terms of the time horizon,

the research will be a cross sectional study whereby data is going to be collected over a period of a week due to time constrains that are partly influenced by university guidelines and requirements in relation to completion of dissertations. The population that will be used for the study is the MBA students of University of KwaZula Natal. Only those who are currently in the leadership position in their various organizations will be considered. And a total of about 80 will be sampled.

A 46 item questionnaire developed by Meyers (2008)) will be used for data collection and the data will be collected using the convenience-sampling and quota method. The questionnaire will help the researcher to identify and compare the perception of male and female student leaders who are in the leadership position in their various organisations. The target population will be divided into two groups e.g. MBA students in first and second year of study. According to Mrs. Wendy Clarke the total number of MBA students is about 140 for both first and second year students. Based on the above number about 104 students will be sampled when considered at 95 percent level of certainty (Saunders, et al 2007). The data will be statistically analysed using the SPSS (version 15) package. The testing of hypotheses by means of the inferential statistical methods: Descriptive statistics will be used to transform data into easily an understandable form.

1.10. <u>Limitations of the Study:</u>

Quite a few limitations must be considered regarding the significance of this study. Respondents were from a geographically limited area of South Africa. The use of small number of participants in this study makes it difficult to generalise to a larger population.

There was no validation of whether respondents were actually leaders in the various organisations; the validity of the result of this study will be entirely based on the honesty of the respondents. And also the reliance on self-report of the respondents may not be reliable as people do not see themselves as others see them.

While the study shows promise for gender-leadership style setting research, caution is necessary in interpreting the results due to constraints such as sample homogeneity. A larger and more diverse leadership in terms of gender and other attributes could constitute a richer and better testing sample. We recommend research involving evaluations of leaders by

supervisors, subordinates, and peers in real world settings be considered (Walumbwa, et al. (2001).

The uncontrolled differences between the male and females leaders being compared which differ with regard to job function, position within the organisations, job experience, and type of organisational culture may influence the result. Therefore, the result of the study may be a reflection of these organisational differences instead of gender differences per se.

1.11. <u>The Significance of the Study:</u>

The result of this study will provide information on the different leadership styles and behaviours of male and female leaders as never before, by looking at various variables that were never considered in the previous studies. In other words this study aimed at filling up the leadership literature deficit on the effect of the gender role socialization impact on the leadership style of male and female leaders, by including education and religion, which have not been considered in the previous studies done on this topic.

The result of this pilot study will be very useful to the future researchers who may include the findings in their research design for larger studies in organizational settings.

The result of this study will provide useful information to the organizations that view the inclusion of both women and men in the top position as very important.

Moreover, there have been contradictory findings in the previous studies, hence this research study. This result will therefore, serves to provide evidence either to disapprove or to support the earlier researching findings on the same topic (Oshagbemi, et al 2003).

Chapter 2

Literature Review:

2.1. Introduction:

As we have already pointed out in the previous chapter that because of the increase in the number of women in the workforce and the increase in number who are holding top leadership positions in their various companies, have helped to arose the interest of researchers to find out if there are differences in the leadership style of male and female leaders.

In this chapter therefore, we aims to sequentially and critically analyse the theoretical background of the concepts of our study and how they affect the behaviours of men and women in leadership positions. It aims also to study and critically analyse the different leadership styles and their advantages and disadvantages in today's' business world. Finally this chapter intends to critically analyse the past work done on the various leadership styles and behaviours of male and female leaders.

2.2. Theoretical Background of the Study:

2.2.1. Gender roles and socialization

The process through which the individual learns and accepts roles is called socialization (Berryman, 2009) "Gender role is a set of behavioural norms associated with males and with females." Socialization works by encouraging wanted and discouraging unwanted behavior (Wikipedia, 2007). These socialisations by the agents of socialisation such as the family, schools, and the media make it clear to the child what is expected of him/her and men and women by the society (Parson, 2007; Berryman, 2009).

2.2.2. Gender Role Development (Early Child Development and Adolescence)

Social learning theory is lived out through observation, reinforcement and imitation; this occurs through children observing gender-typed behaviour from their parents, peers, teachers, the media, then having it reinforced through attitudes and example, until the child imitates it and eventually adopts it (Noppe, 2009). Direct support and modeling in shaping children's

behaviour and attitudes are mostly from parents who begin the process. Children are encouraged and rewarded for gender-appropriate behaviors. Siblings and peers reinforce it through practical everyday interactions. Observational learning – children adopt the attitudes and behaviors of same-sex models. Also important is the label attached to the attitude or behavior of same-sex models which become more important at ages 5 - 7, when gender is unchanging aspect of the self. Males become gender typed as they identify with their father and so are the females with their mothers (Ingham, 1997; Bussey, 1999; Wikipedia, 2007).

Gender role development is not in line with the theory of 'leaders are born not made' debate. From the perspective of this model, people are born with inherent gender oriented roles which are innate, and therefore, unchanging. This theory seems to say that the various factors like education, parents, and media have no influence on the attitude and behaviour of children and adult like. This school of thought argues that women are born with 'feminine's identities, and are naturally suited to the roles of mothering and house-keeping, whereas men are 'natural' hunters whose role is one of dominance (Ingham, 1997). According to such a theory, they argue that things like television would play little or no part in influencing sex roles, but perhaps only serve to reflect the underlying biological processes of social behaviour as they are in 'reality'. From this point of view, they seem to conclude that television and family orientations would have little or no possible influence on gender role (Ingham, 1997). This theory is supportive of the cognitive development approach school of thought, which points out that child development is based on what a child could make out of its social environment (Bussey, 1999).

Parents respond more positively when children play in gender appropriate ways (toys, games, etc). Differential reinforcement is particularly pronounced in boys, as for example fathers are especially uncomfortable with girlish behaviour in their sons. Strongly gender stereotyped parents lead to earlier development of gender stereotypes in children. Similarly girls are sometimes admonished by the parents when they try to behavior like boys. Fathers also encourage feminine behavior in females (modeled after mother). This attitude is in support of the theory of sex role development by Freud (Noppe, 2009). Although this argument goes against the cognitive developmental approach school of thought which argues that the adoption of gender roles is somehow dependant upon the child's cognitive understanding of his or her social environment. This approach suggests that acquisition of sex role by a child depends on her curiosity as opposed to merely accumulating bits of information presented

randomly. They argue that it is somewhat naïve to assume that the images children see on television are simply stored up in the child's mind without any measure of active interpretation played on the part of the child (Ingham, 2007). Which means television viewing by children can only help them develop the innate qualities in them, rather than to say that a child is made of only of what he/her learned from viewing the television.

(Table 3)
Summary of Social Learning Theory Findings

Empirical support for social learning theory
Cross cultural studies support the social learning theories explanation • We are the company that we keep • Girls tend to spend more time with other girls and women, likewise for boys • Girls more time in child-care responsibilities and duties • Boys more time with men and masculine type activities • Each sex exposed to more same sex role models & has more opportunities for reinforcement of sex-typed behaviours.
Critique of empirical support for social learning theory • Does not fully account for the robust gender discrimination that children make • Even those parents who aspire to raising gender-neutral kids, have children who learn gender labels and show same sex playmate choices. • Criticisms of Kohlberg's Theory • Gender-typing begins well before children acquire a mature gender identity • Gender reassignment is very difficult after age 3
Adapted from Gender Role Development (Bev Killian (PhD) 2009)

2.2.3. Social Role Theory:

"The social learning theory of Bandura emphasizes the importance of observing and modelling the behaviours, attitudes, and emotional reactions of others" (Bandura, 1997).

Social role theory and its relations to the socialization of gender expectations clarify certain gender differences. According to social role theory, behavioral sex differences spring from the differential social roles inhabited by women and men, especially those concerning the division of labour (Harrison, et al. 2005). Historically, because of economic, ecological, social, and technological pressures, women and men were assigned to labour tasks that were consistent with their physical attributes. Thus, men were more likely to fulfill tasks that

required speed, strength, and the ability to be away from home for expanded periods of time. Conversely, because women were primarily responsible for childbearing, women were more likely to fulfill tasks related to home and family.

Social role theory suggests that men and women adopt stereotypical gender roles to be socially accepted. The masculine role emphasises dominance, aggression and achievement, (Watson, et al, 2004) and another stereotype gender-typical social roles (e.g., males are breadwinners and females are homemakers) and contain consensual beliefs about the attributes of females and males (Richardson, et al. 2008). Females' role emphasises, affiliation, nurturance, protection and abasement. Men were responsible for tasks that involve heavy lifting of burdens and women for matters related to clothing and food preparation. The social role theory predicts that women will choose to avoid task behaviour because it is considered masculine (Watson, et al 2004). This prediction is largely prevalent in our society today although to a lesser extent in some countries like USA and in Europe, where women have taken over positions and jobs originally established as the male domain. In modern society it is very acceptable for a man to be aggressive and more influential and women to be easily influenced. Men are seen or rated highly as being very direct, very worldly, and very skilled in business, who make decision easily, and almost always acts as a leader. Women are seen as more warm and expressive than men, very tactful, very gentle, very aware of feelings of others, very talkative and easily express tender feelings (Powell, 1993). But attribute that has stood over time is men's high need for dominance, autonomy, aggression and achievement, while women have a high need for defence, nurturance and affiliation.

2.2. 4. Gender Role Theory

Gender role orientation is defined as the beliefs that individuals hold as the proper roles for men and women in the workplace and at home. Gender role theory and social role theory both suggest that the family role is more strongly identified with women than with men. Traditional conceptions of gender roles expected women to specialize more in socially facilitative behaviors, than are men, who are expected to specialize more often in task-oriented behaviors (Judge, 2008).

Furthermore, the phrase ''gender role'' refers to our thoughts about how men and women are expected to behave Buckmaster (2004). "According to the interactionist approach, roles (including gender roles) are not fixed, but are constantly negotiated between individuals.

Gender roles can influence all kinds of behavior, such as choice of clothing, choice of work and personal relationships (Wikipedia, 2007). Over time, this form of gender stereotyping has created and reinforced a set of beliefs about the nature of men and women. Women are portrayed as more communal, sympathetic, and nurturing. Men are seen as assertive, dominant and forceful or what is often referred to in the gender literature as agentic. Communal attributes relate to being interpersonally sensitive, nurturing, kind, helpful and concerned about the welfare of others. Agentic attributes have to do with being aggressive, forceful, self-confident, self-sufficient and in control (Buckmaster, 2004).

The gender roles that a society assigns to the children will have a determining effect on their future behaviours and perceptions about everything. Their access to food and education, their labour force participation, their status in relationships, their leadership style, their physical and psychological health (Gensalud, 1994). Children internalise gender-role expectations early in life (usually by the age of five), through a process referred to as socialization. Family, education, culture, socio-economic status, religion, and ethnicity all play an important role in socialization both women and men. Women see themselves as less agentic; for example they perceive themselves to be less assertive, less individualistic and more communal than men, these perceptions are part of the male's and female's self-concept learned very early through social training, expectation, observation of gender-related social role; men are in leadership role and women are subordinate (Judge, 2008).

The attitude of men and women today suggests that both genders have internalised these role expectations as often seen in the way men and women behave in society when offering help for instance. Men seem to offer heroic help in areas people think most competent as male, such as helping a motorist with a flat tire stopped by the side of dangerous highway. Females on the other hand are more likely to offer nurturing or caring help, volunteering to work in motherless babes home or in homeless children centres (Butler, 2009; Judge, 2008).

This attitude manifests again when the female takes on a leadership position they seem to adopt that leadership style that conforms to the role or behaviour expectations of a woman. A

woman leader would not like to be associated with autocratic leadership or to be seen as one. Naturally a woman would adopt a leadership style that is inclusive and communal in nature. All through their life they have been taking care of children, rendering help to others, especially to the husband; an attitude that is inclusive. It came as no surprise that studies done in the past have identified women as been more democratic and transformational; two leadership styles that are very inclusive in nature. More of these facts will be discussed in detail in the next chapter.

2.3. Leadership:

2.3.1. Definition of Leadership:

There are numerous definitions of leadership. However most tend to include the need for a vision and the ability to inspire, motivate, support and influence others to achieve the necessary goals in accordance with the vision. Making a difference and initiating positive change are also common factors. It is the work of the leader to be able to inspire and motivate the employees in this hard economic recession. This is a period when everybody looks to the leaders to come up with some sort of magic formula to solve organisational problems faced by many (Robbins, 2001). Americans voted for Obama because they were looking for a change, for a better solution to their troubled economy, to lead them out the economic recession.

Great leadership is the ability to inspire others to take action; it's the ability to deliver consistent, positive results through other people. A leader is that person who when he/she meets with the employees they leave the meeting ready and willing to take action. A leader should be able to know the team's long-term, bottom-line results and will shed some insight on it when necessary. Leaders have that kind of power to inspire. A leader should know how to interact so that he/she can inspire trust, confidence and commitment on his/her team that has been the missing element for most leaders (Robbins, 2001).

Robbins, (2001) defines leadership as the ability to cope with change. Leaders establish direction by developing a vision of the future; then they align people by communicating this vision and inspiring them to overcome hurdles. Consistent with the notion that leadership is concerned with change, we view the "leader" basically as a change agent, that is one who fosters change. In today's dynamic world, we need leaders to challenge the status quo, to

create visions of the future and inspire organizational members to want to achieve the vision or the goals of the organisation (Jick, et al. 2003).

2.3.2. Definition of Leadership Style:

It is the style that a leader adopts in his/her dealing with their subordinates that is decisive. The style here means the pattern or a way the leader chooses to behave in dealing with a particular issue or problem in the organisation depending on the situation at a particular time. A leader's chosen style of leadership is the combination of the different roles that the leader chooses to adopt, which includes the leader's competencies and personality, emotional needs and skills the leader had developed over the course of his/her lifespan (Dubrin, 2004).

(Table 4)

Evolution of Leadership Style:

Leadership Evolution Adapted from Daft, 2008
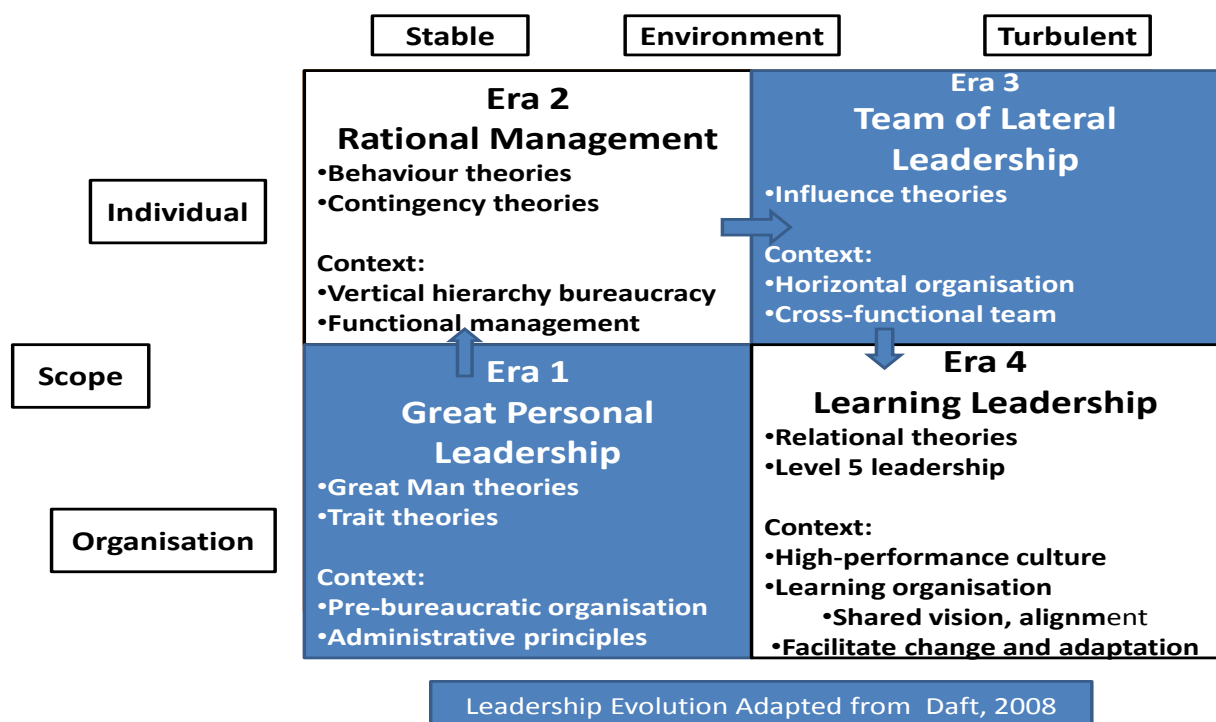
Leadership Era 1: (This era is the pre-industrial and pre-bureaucratic): This is the Great Man leadership era and the effectiviness of a leader is judged by his traits. The industry of this era was largely made up of a small-scale business normally owned by one person or a family and the business environment is stable. A leader is seen as one who can see the big picture and how every thing fits together as one. He was looked upon as a hero.

Leadership Era 2: (This is the start of hierarchy and bureaucracy): The supervision and control of workers are based on the hierarchy of authority. The companies or organisations are much biger than during the pre-industrial era. This era gave rise to the rational manager who directs and controls others using an unfriendly approach. Workers have no say and they are told what to do and how to do it. The emphasis on how to achieve that task and the workers' welfare is not considered. The behaviour and contigency theories work well here becauase of the stable nature of the environment, such that leaders were able to analysis their situation and develop, plan and control what happened. This leadership is less likely to work in this world economic recession and uncertainty. This era is probably suited for leaders traits mostly ascribed to men, like command and control, assertiveness and aggressiveness etc.

Leadership Era 3: The economic environment of this era is just the opposite of the eras of pre-industry and pre-bureaucratcy. This is the start of the unstable economic environment era where rational management is no longer doing well, because of the turbulent condition of the economy. The era of the emergency of the Japanese economic of power and their management ideologies which dominated the world economic environment. The era when team-based approach, downsizing, re-engineering, quality programmes, and empowerment were used as a method of improving performance, motivating and increasing workers commitment to the organisation. This period sees the emergent of knowledge work, an emphasis on horizontal management and a shift to influential theories. This is the period when change became necessary for organisations because of the changing nature of the world economies. Leadership was now based on team-leadership, empowerment, diversity and open communication.

Leadership Era 4: The digital information age. At this point in time in our era everything seems to be changing very fast. This an era of the learning leader, where leaders are ready to learn even from their subordinates. It is era or relationship and network, learn influence others through vision and value rather than power and control. Learning and changing is a constant and ongoing experiment. It is an era where leaders learn and encourage others to learn and develop as well. The period when the management of diversity is also very much emphsised because of globalisation, different culture and people meeting and working together. The era when women are more than ever in management position, and which calls for a change of leadership. An era when transformational leaders are in high demand (Adopt from Daft 2008, p 22).

2.3.3. <u>Evolution of Leadership Theory</u>

2.3.3.i. Trait Theory

Trait theory believes that people inherit certain qualities and traits that make them better suited to leadership. The trait theory argument was based on the underlying assumption that effective leaders possessed naturally inherited qualities. The supporters of this theory talked about a unique quality of extraordinary individuals as a determinant of effective leadership; examples of such leaders are Nelson Mandela, Margaret Thatcher and Mao Zedong to mention but a few (Doyle, et al. 2009). The Great Man period of leadership research produced a wide variety of studies covering a range of traits, personal qualities and leadership attributes especially in the 1940s. This includes decisiveness in judgment, speech fluency, interpersonal skills and administrative abilities. Others researches identified qualities such as adaptability to situations, alertness to social environment, ambition and achievement focus, cooperativeness, decisiveness, dependability, dominance, energy, persistence, self confidence, tolerance of stress and willingness to assume responsibility. Other traits indentified include cleverness, conceptual skillfulness, creativity, diplomacy and tactfulness, knowledge about group tasks, organisation skills, persuasiveness and social skills (Stepanov, 2007)

More recently, Stepnov (2007) suggested a number of leadership attributes that transcend the situational influences. They include physical strength and stamina, intelligence and action-oriented judgment, eagerness to accept responsibility, task competence, understanding of followers and their needs, skill in dealing with people, need for achievement, capacity to motivate people, courage and resolution, trustworthiness, decisiveness, self-confidence, assertiveness, adaptability/flexibility (Nel, 2007). The list of traits and skills is by no means conclusive. It has been agreed in recent times as in the past that academics did accept that the traits based investigation of leadership was insufficient to explain leadership and leader effectiveness (Stepanov, 2007). This conclusion stemmed from the recognition of the fact that effective leaders possess a great variety of traits which, if viewed in isolation, are unlikely to produce any meaningful results. According to Stepanov (2007) there is a general agreement among scholars that the relationship between individual personal traits and leader success is

weak. The basic idea remains that if a person possesses these traits she or he will be able to take the lead in every different situation.

According to Daft (2008) the study done by Stogdill (1948) indicated that the importance of a particular trait was often relative to the situation. For instance self-confidence may contribute to the success of a leader in one situation, but it may be irrelevant to a leader in another situation. As a result having certain personal characteristics' is no guarantee of success. This point is emphasising the idea that the value of a certain trait or traits depends on the organisational situation. It is not guaranteed that because a particular leader will do well in all situations because he/she has certain traits. Many studies have come to a conclusion that some traits are essential to effective leadership, but only in the combination with other factors.

Another weakness of Trait Theory is mainly because it concentrates on what makes a great leader not how to effectively lead. Traits increase chances of success but do not guarantee success as a leader; there are some people who may have all the qualities for a good leader but may not perform, maybe because they are not motivated by the organization they work for. Trait theory fails to identify a single set of traits that will consistently distinguish leaders from followers and it focuses exclusively on the leader and does not consider the situation or followers. Although the characteristics of leaders are important it has proved impossible to establish one universal list of traits necessary to be a leader and the final weakness is that this theory is too old and outdated (Doyle et al. 2009).

2.3.3.ii. Great Man Theory:
Great Man Theory concentrated on what distinguished leaders, and is it assumed that these distinctions were inherent; that is, leaders are born not made. The promoters of this theory tend to say that Great leaders will arise when there is a great need. This theory was based on early research/study done on people who were already great leaders. These people or leaders were often from the upper classes, as few from lower classes had the opportunity to lead (Carlyle, 2007). Moreover, the focus was on great military, social and political leaders such as Abraham Lincoln, Churchill and Gandhi. There is no doubt that some people are born with certain gifts that stand them in a good stead for the future as leaders.

It is a mythological to think that leaders are all born to be leaders; the implication is that all business schools where the arts of business leadership are leaned should be closed because they are useless. Many of the leaders learned their skills by watching others. By identifying the characteristic which set great leaders apart from average ones, we can learn how to be successful leaders. A person may be born with some qualities, but those qualities need to be refined, nurtured and practiced.

The major weakness with the theory is that it is out of date, because when it was in use gender issues were not discussed at that time and only men were in leadership. The term 'Great Man' was used due to the attitudes of the time where leadership was believed to be primarily a male characteristic. In recent times we have had women who are great leaders too, Margaret Thatcher for example. It is important to acknowledge the fact that there has been a significant shift away from such a mentality in contemporary research even though the traits theory attitude in its crudest form has been and still remains a visible feature of the corporate setting.

2.3.3.iii. Behavioural Leadership Theory:

Behavioural theory of leadership began its development in the late 1940s as an alternative to the traits based approach. Behaviourist theorists shifted the emphasis of leadership research from personal characteristics and traits to much more obvious processes and activities. The foundation of this stream of research was that the behaviours exhibited by leaders are more important than their physical, mental, or emotional traits. This leadership theory focuses on the actions of the leaders, not mental qualities. Behavioural leadership theories are based upon the belief that great leaders are made, not born. This implies that people can learn to become leaders through teaching, mentoring and observation. The theory was unique because it attempted to capture and explain relationship-based aspects of leadership (Wagner, 2009). The two major studies done on leadership behaviours are the university of Michigan studies and the Ohio State studies.

2.3.3.iv. University of Michigan Studies

One of the famous studies done on leadership behaviour was the famous series of studies on leadership that was done in Michigan University, starting in the 1950s. The focus of the Michigan studies was to determine the principles and methods of leadership that led to productivity and job satisfaction. They discovered three broad-base leadership behaviours

that were consistently common among leaders, these are task oriented behaviour, relationship oriented behaviour and participative leadership (Michigan Studies, 2009). We will discuss this later.

2.3.3.iv. The Ohio State University Studies:

The most comprehensive and replicated of the behavioural theories resulted from research that began at Ohio State University in the late 1940s. These researchers sought to identify independent dimensions of leader behaviour. The Ohio State studies utilized the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ), administering it to samples of individuals in the military, manufacturing companies, college administrators, and student leaders. Answers to the questionnaire were factor-analyzed to determine if common leader behaviors emerged across samples. The conclusion was that there were two distinct aspects of leadership that describe how leaders carry out their role (Doyle, et al. 2009).

Two factors, termed consideration and initiating structure, consistently appeared. Initiating structure, sometimes called task-oriented behaviour, involves planning, organizing, and coordinating the work of subordinates. Consideration involves showing concern for subordinates, being supportive, recognizing subordinates' accomplishments, and providing for subordinates' welfare (Doyle, et al. (2009).

Initiating structure refers to the extent to which a leader is likely to define and structure his/her role and those of employees in the search for goal attainment. It includes attempts to organize work, work relationships, and goals. The leader high in initiating structure could be described as someone who "assigns group members to particular tasks," "expects workers to maintain definite standards of performance," and "emphasizes the meeting of deadlines."

Consideration is described as "the extent to which a leader is likely to have job relationships that are characterised by mutual trust, respect for employees' ideas, and regard for their feelings." The leader shows concern for followers' comfort, well-being, status, and satisfaction. A leader high in consideration could be described as one who helps employees with personal problems, is friendly and approachable, and treats all employees as equals. Leaders high in initiating structure and consideration tend to achieve high employee performance and satisfaction.

Leader behaviour characterized as being high on initiating structure led to greater rates of grievances, absenteeism, and turnover, and lower levels of job satisfaction for routine tasks. High consideration was negatively related to performance ratings of the leader by his/her superior (Doyle, et al. (2009).

2.3.3.vi. Leadership Grid by Robert Blake and Jane Mouton

One concept based largely on the behavioural approach to leadership effectiveness was the Managerial (or Leadership) Grid, developed by Robert Blake and Jane Mouton. The grid combines "concern for production" with "concern for people" and presents five alternative behavioural styles of leadership (Blake, et al 1985; Barnett, 2009)

(Table 5)

Leadership (Managerial) Grid
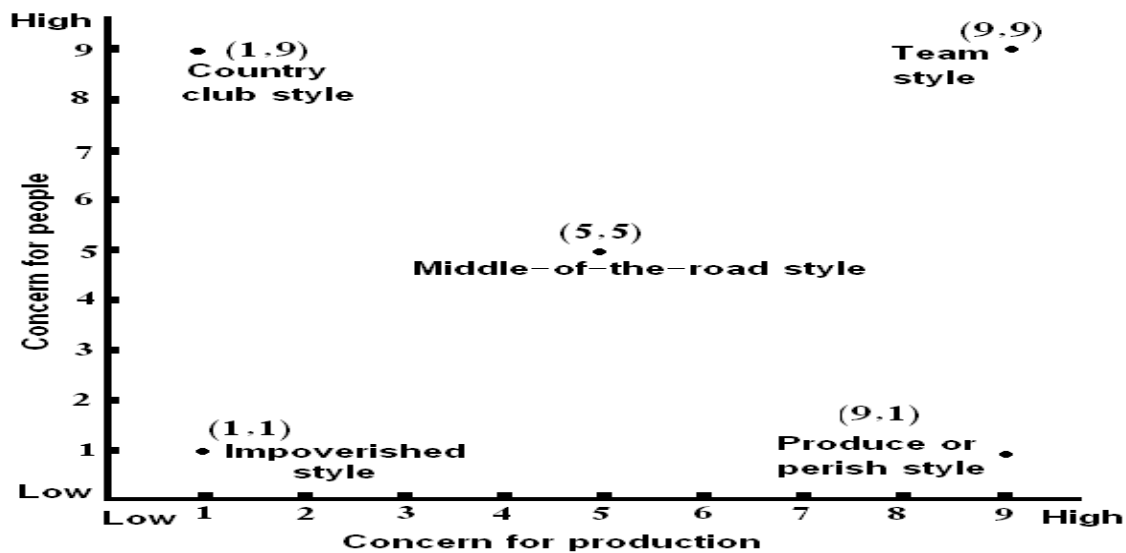
This is graphed on a managerial grid first developed by Blake and Mouton: but Adopted from (Blake, et al 1985; Wikipedia, 2009).

The impoverished style (1, 1). In this style, managers have low concern for both people and production. Managers use this style to preserve job and job seniority, protecting themselves by avoiding getting into trouble. The main concern for the manager is not to be held responsible for any mistakes, which results in less innovative decisions.

The country club style (1, 9): This style has a high concern for people and a low concern for production. Managers using this style pay much attention to the security and comfort of the employees, in hopes that this will increase performance. The resulting atmosphere is

usually friendly, but not necessarily very productive. Those whose style depicted a 1:9 were laissez-faire and results were compromised in favour of good relationships.

The produce or perish style (dictatorial) (9, 1): control and dominate. The leadership style here is high concern for production, and a low concern for people, managers using this style find employee needs unimportant; they provide their employees with money and expect performance in return. Managers using this style also pressure their employees through rules and punishments to achieve the company goals. This dictatorial style is based on Theory X of Douglas McGregor, and is commonly applied by companies on the edge of real or perceived failure. This style is often used in case of crisis management. Those whose style was closer to the 9:1 were more authoritarian and productivity and job satisfaction were low because people highly resist orders when they are too often or the dictatorial style of leadership.

The middle-of-the-road style (5, 5): balance and compromise. Managers using this style try to balance between company goals and workers' needs. By giving some concern to both people and production, managers who use this style hope to achieve suitable performance but doing so gives away a bit of each concern so that neither production nor people needs are met. The leader is keen to keep everyone happy because they are not strong on either task or people; they underachieve, failing to get the best of people or their productive capacity (Klippenberger, 2004).

The team style (9, 9): In this style, high concern is paid both to people and production. As suggested by the propositions of Theory Y, managers choosing to use this style encourage teamwork and commitment among employees. This method relies heavily on making employees feel that they are constructive parts of the company. (Wikipedia, 2009).

2.3.3.vii Situational Leadership:
The overall situational leadership approach suggests that the leader must act in a flexible manner to be able to diagnose the leadership style appropriate to the situation, and to be able to apply the appropriate style (AISE, 2009). Situational theory proposes that leaders chose the best type of action based upon situational variable, it emphasised the fact that a different style of leadership may be more appropriate for certain types of decision-making (Wagner, 2009). This means that effectiveness or success of a leader does reside on the ability of the leader to effectively match the style of leadership with the situation or readiness of his/her employees at that period. In other words the style of leadership is contingent upon the

situation in which the leader operates (Stepanov, 2007; Johnson, 2004). This theory takes into account the type of task to be done and the competencies or the readiness of the employees to take on the tasks. But the effectiveness will depend on the leader's ability to determine the appropriate leadership style to be used in a particular situation (Chimaera, 1999). Hersey and Blanchard stipulated four different leadership styles for four different situations based on the maturity, skill, willingness and ability of the employees.

2.3.3.vii.a. Hersey and Blanchard

Hersey and Blanchard identify four specific leader behaviours—from highly directive to highly laissez-faire. The most effective behaviour depends on a follower's ability and motivation. Successful leadership is achieved by selecting the right leadership style, which is contingent on the level of the followers' readiness. The term readiness refers to "the extent to which people have the ability and willingness to accomplish a specific task."

(Table 6)

Situational Theory of Leadership:
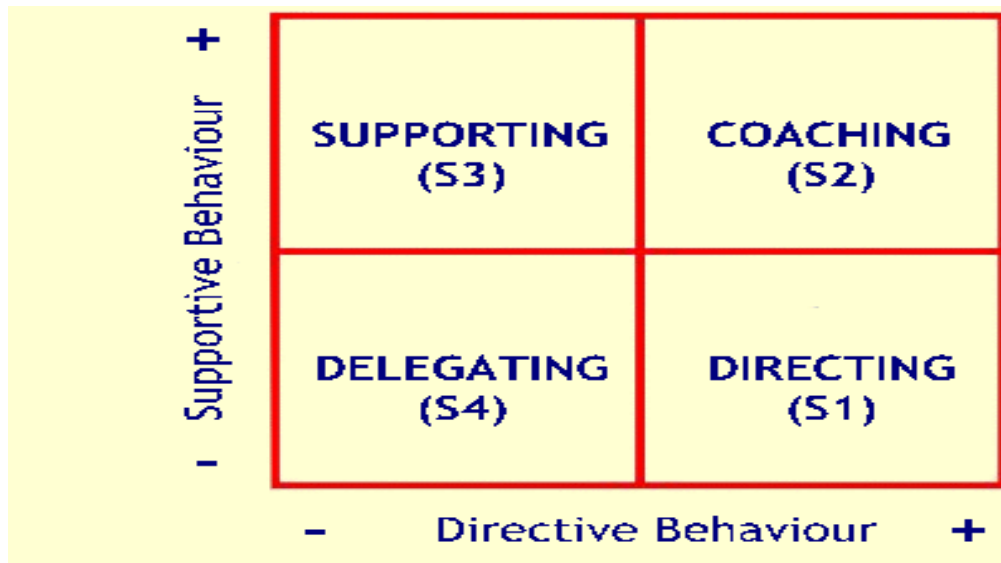
D4	High Competence High Commitment	Experienced at the job, and comfortable with their own ability to do it well. May even be more skilled than the leader.
D3	High Competence Variable Commitment	Experienced and capable, but may lack the confidence to go it alone, or the motivation to do it well / quickly
D2	Some Competence Low Commitment	May have some relevant skills, but won't be able to do the job without help. The task or the situation may be new to them.

D1	Low Competence Low Commitment	Generally lacking the specific skills required for the job in hand, and lacks any confidence and / or motivation to tackle it.

(Adopted from Chimaera 1999)

"Responsibility has dual factors of willingness and ability. There are four combinations of these two factors: individuals who are neither willing nor able to take responsibility; individuals who are willing but not able to take responsibility; individuals who are able but not willing to take responsibility; and those who are both willing and able to take responsibility. The highest maturity level is the last combination. In terms of task-relevant maturity, Hersey and Blanchard emphasize job maturity as the ability and technical knowledge to do the task and psychological maturity as self confidence and self respect. The theory focuses on the appropriateness or effectiveness of leadership styles according to the task relevant maturity of the followers" (Yeakey,W. G. (2002).

Depending on your employees' competences in their task areas and commitment to them, leadership style may vary from one person to another. Use a variety of leadership styles in directing, coaching, supporting and delegating the work of others. The leader helps the follower grow in readiness by adjusting leadership behavior through the four styles along the leadership curve.

Directing (S1/D1): employees in this category need a great deal of direction and supervision to get started. The leader gives specific task directions and closely supervising work. The leader tells employees what to do, how to do it. The decision making is completely the responsibility of the leader, and communication is a one way (Matt. 2009; Doyle, et al 2009; Chimaera. 1999).

Coaching (S2/D2): is the art and practice of inspiring, energizing, and facilitating the performance, learning and development of the player. Here we talk about directive coaching that involves directing, telling and instructing and establishing. Coaching is usually used when the employee has the relevant skills but need a help or encouragement to be able to do the job properly. The leader tells the employee what to do or what is expected him/her. Tell

him/her how to do it. The leader makes the decision but with dialogue and or explanation (Matt. 2009; Doyle, et al 2009; Chimaera. 1999).

Supporting (S3/D3): It is assumed employees have competence, but lack confidence of motivation. They (employees) do not need much direction because of their skills, support is necessary to bolster their confidence and motivation. Decisions are made by the employees or employees made decision with the support of the leader. Here the main rule of the leader is to facilitate and communicate (Doyle, et al 2009; Chimaera. 1999).

Delegating (S4/D4): Assume that employees have the ability, confidence and willing to carry out the tasks given to them. Here the leader give specific instruction about what is expected them. Tell the person/s what should be done; why it is needed; and when it should be completed. Inform them what should be done, but don't tell them how. Only give them credit and praise generously if a person does a good job. The decision making is rests on the follower and not the leader (Matt. 2009; Doyle, et al 2009; Chimaera. 1999).

Hersey and Blanchard (1977) on leadership style and situation

"Hersey and Blanchard identified four different leadership styles that could be drawn upon to deal with contrasting situations:

Telling (high task/low relationship behaviour). This style or approach is characterized by giving a great deal of direction to subordinates and by giving considerable attention to defining roles and goals. The style was recommended for dealing with new staff, or where the work was menial or repetitive, or where things had to be completed within a short time span. Subordinates are viewed as being unable and unwilling to 'do a good job'.

Selling (high task/high relationship behaviour). Here, while most of the direction is given by the leader, there is an attempt at encouraging people to 'buy into' the task. Sometimes characterized as a 'coaching' approach, it is to be used when people are willing and motivated but lack the required 'maturity' or 'ability'.

Participating (high relationship/low task behaviour). Here decision-making is shared between leaders and followers – the main role of the leader being to facilitate and communicate. It entails high support and low direction and is used when people are able, but are perhaps unwilling or insecure (they are of 'moderate to high maturity' (Hersey 1984).

Delegating (low relationship/low task behaviour). The leader still identifies the problem or issue, but the responsibility for carrying out the response is given to followers. It entails having a high degree of competence and maturity (people know what to do, and are motivated"

(**Adapted from Doyle, M. E. and Smith, M. K. (2009) 'Classical leadership')**

(**Table 7**) Leaders Role in the Path-goal Model
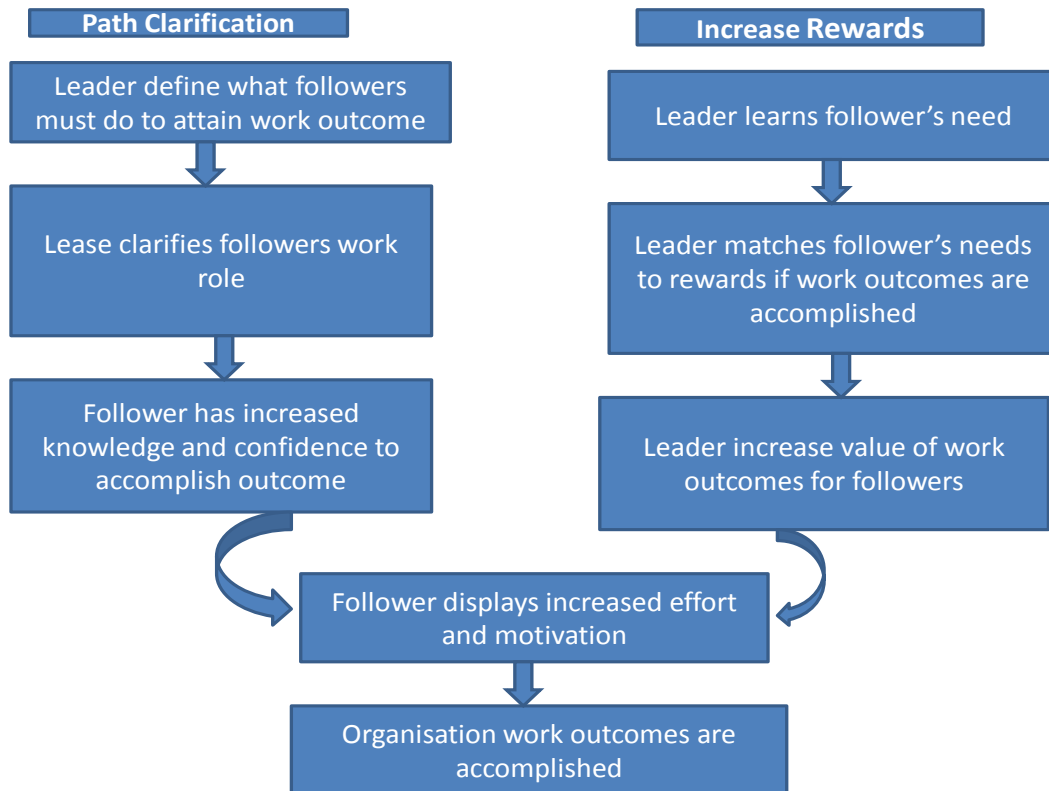
(Adapt from: Daft 2008, P.78)

2.3.3.vii.b. Path-goal Model

Path-goal theory proposes that a leader's responsibility is to enhance the motivation of his followers in attaining both personal and organisational goals (Daft, 2008). The idea of path-goal theory is the belief that leaders need to clarify the path to help followers get from where they are to the achievement of the necessary goal by reducing "road blocks". The leader increases the followers' effort to achieve the goal by clarifying the subordinates' path to the reward that is available (Daft, 2008). It is the leader's job to assist followers to achieve goals, and to provide direction and support to ensure that goals are compatible with the overall organisational objectives. To do this the leader must choose a compatible style which will take account of the environmental contingency factors and the followers' contingency factors to achieve the necessary outcomes.

This model is called a contingency theory because it is made up of three sets of contingencies: the style of the leaders', the followers and the situation. Unlike in Fiedler theory, in path-goal theory, it is the leader who changes his/her behaviour to match the situation.

The path-goal theory puts forward four different types of leadership style a leader can adopt, which include supportive, directive, achievement-oriented, and participative styles.
This is shown in the figure below:

(Table 8)

Situation	Leader Behavior	Impact on Follower	Outcome
Follower lacks self confidence	Supportive (Relationship) • courteous & friendly • concern for well being & needs • open and approachable • balance equal treatment with status	Increase confidence to achieve work outcome	More effort; improved satisfaction & performance
Ambiguous job	Directive (Task) • tell what is expected • how & when to do it • how fits with others • schedules & norms • procedures & regulations	Clarify path to reward	
Lack of job challenge	Achievement (Demanding & Supporting) • set challenging goals • seek continuous improvement • expect highest performance • confident in effort & achievement • workers assume more responsibility	Set goals high	
Incorrect Reward	Participative (consult/group) • share work problems • solicit suggestions, concerns • include in decision making	Clarify follower's needs & change rewards	

(Adopted from Dr. Woodlard.com; 2009)

http://www.drwoolard.com/miscellaneous/path_goal_theory.htm)

Path-goal theory has been criticized because it does not consider interactions among the contingency factors and also because of the complexity of its underlying theoretical model. Empirical research has provided some support for the theory's propositions, primarily as they relate to directive and supportive leader behaviours.

2.3.3.viii.: Contingency Theory:

Contingency theories are a class of behavioural theories that argue that there is no best way of organizing/leading and that organizational/leadership style that is effective in some situations may not be successful in other situations (Value Based Management, 2009). A Contingency model of leadership suggests that the group effectiveness will depend on a proper match between a leader's style of interaction with the subjects. The basic idea is simply to match the leader's style with the situation most favourable for his or her success.

(Table 9)

Fiedler Contingency Model:

Adapted from Daft 2008
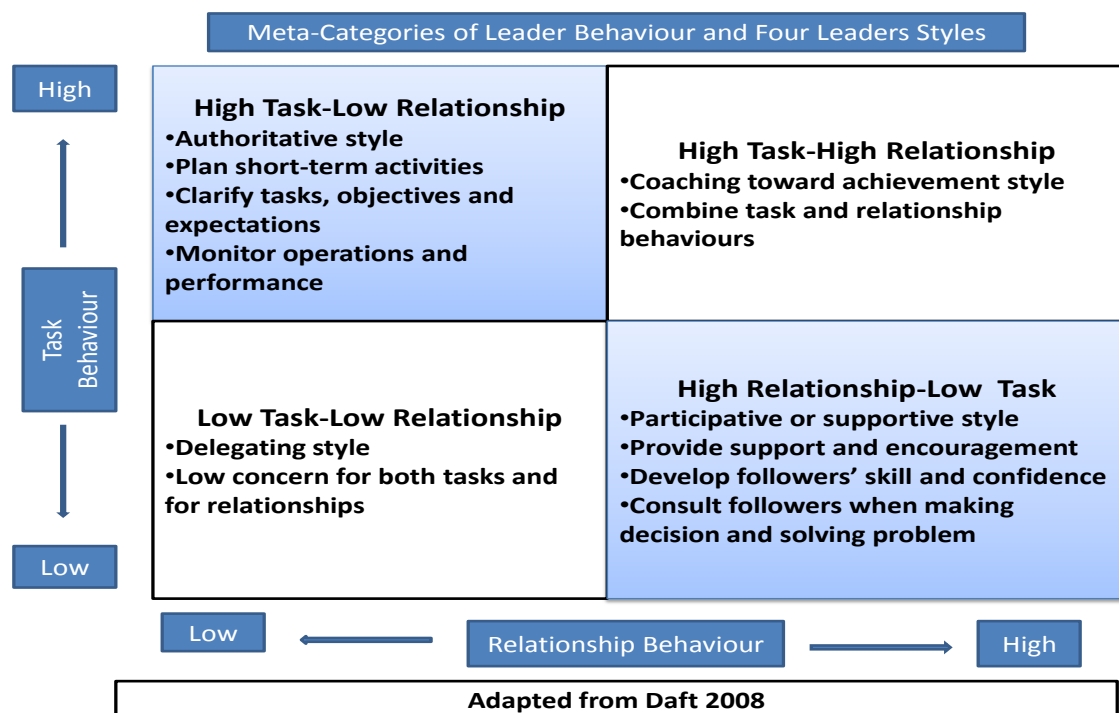
2.3.3.viii.a.: Fiedler Contingency Model:

Fiedler's model assumes that group performance depends on leadership style, described in terms of task motivation and relationship motivation.

Situational Favourableness, Determined by three Factors:
1. Leader-member relations - extent to which a leader is accepted and supported by the group members.
2. Task structure – the level to which the task is structured and defined, with clear goals and procedures.

3. Position power - The ability of a leader to control employees through reward and punishment (Adapted from Daft, 2008).

High levels of these three factors give the most favourable situation, low levels, and the least favourable. Relationship-motivated leaders are most effective in moderately favourable situations. Task-motivated leaders are most effective at either end of the scale. Fiedler pointed out that it is better for leaders to change their situation to achieve effectiveness, rather than change their leadership style.

Leaders have two primary motivations (that do not change), to be task motivated or relation motivated. The task-motivated leaders (have low least preferred co-worker scores) focus on details and will be tough and autocratic to get any failing subordinates to get the task done. The satisfaction of such leaders comes form completing tasks. They are thoughtful of workers only when tasks are going well. Relationship motivated leaders (have high least preferred co-worker scores) get bored with details and focus instead on pleasing employees, getting their loyalty, and being accepting. Their self-esteem comes from interpersonal relationships (Daft, 2008).

Table 10: Fiedler's Contingency Model

Dimensions:	3 Situations							
Sit Con (Situation Control)	High Sit Con Situation			Moderate Sit Con Situation			Low Sit Con Situation	
Leader-member relations	Good			Good	Poor		Poor	
Task structure	High		Low	Low	High		Low	
Position power	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low	High	Low
Situations	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII
Predictions	**TASK MOTIVATED BEHAVIOR** LEADER IS BEST FIT TO SITUATION I, II & III			RELATIONSHIP MOTIVATED BEHAVIOR LEADER IS BEST FIT TO SITUATION IV, V & VI			TASK MOTIVATED BEHAVIOR LEADER IS BEST FIT TO SITUATION VII & VIII	

(Adapted from Value Based Management, 2009

2.3.3.xiv.: Transformational Leadership Theory:

Transformational leadership theory differentiates between the transactional and the transformational leader. Transformational leadership starts with development of vision, a view of the future that will excite and change would-be followers (Senge, 1999; Bass (1990). Transformational leadership focuses on developing mutual trust, fostering the leadership abilities of others, and setting goals that go beyond the short-term needs of the work group. Transactional leadership on the other hand focuses on the role and task requirements and utilizes rewards dependent on the performance of the workers. Here the leader rewards or praises the employees only when the tasks are accomplished; if not they will met with punishment.

Transformational leadership "occurs when leaders broaden and elevate the interests of their employees, when they create awareness and acceptance of the purposes and mission of the group (Hay, 2009). Transformational leadership promotes competence development and increase levels of personal commitment amongst subordinates to achieve organizational goals and objectives. They inspire a shared vision, seeking broad input, and encouraging everyone to think of a new and a better future (Hay, 2009; Senge, 1999). They achieved this by involving all employees in the shaping and reshaping of the organisation's strategic plan on a regular basis. Transformational leaders are said to stimulate trust, admiration, loyalty and respect amongst their followers (Hay, 2009).

(Table 11)

Dimensions of Transformational Leadership

The Four Common I's	Leithwood's Six
1. "Idealized influence. Charismatic vision and behaviour that inspires others to follow. 2. Inspirational motivation. Capacity to motivate others to commit to the vision. 3. Intellectual stimulation. Encouraging innovation and creativity. 4. Individualized consideration. Coaching to the specific needs of followers."	1. "Building vision and goals. 2. Providing intellectual stimulation. 3. Offering individualized support. 4. Symbolizing professional practices and values. 5. Demonstrating high performance expectations. 6. Developing structures to foster participation in decisions".

(Adapted from: Hay, 2009)

Idealized influence is about building confidence and trust and providing a role model that employees seek to imitate. Transformational leaders are accepted, valued, and trusted. The confidence the employees have on the leader helps to provide a foundation for accepting (radical) organizational change. That is, followers who are sure of the virtues of their leader will be less likely to resist proposals for change from her/him (Hay, 2009).

Inspirational leadership is about motivating the entire organization to, for example, follow a new idea. Transformational leaders make clear an attractive view of the future, offer followers the opportunity to see meaning in their work, and challenge them with high standards. This might be achieved through motivational speeches; for example Martin Luther King's "I have a dream" speech. And recently 'yes we can' speech or vision of Barrack Obama is another good example of an inspirational leader, even though they are political leaders they are a good example of transformational leaders.

Intellectual stimulation involves exciting and changing employees' awareness of problems and their capacity to solve those problems. Transformational leaders question assumptions and beliefs and encourage subordinates to be innovative and creative, approaching old problems in new ways. (Hay, 2009).

Individualized consideration involves responding to the specific, unique needs of employees to ensure they are included in the transformation process of the organization. People are treated as individuals and differently on the basis of their talents and knowledge and with the intention of allowing them to reach higher levels of achievement than might otherwise have been achieved. They do this through expressing words of thanks or praise, and individualized career counseling and mentoring.

Powell, (1993) in her studies found that female leaders employ more of an interactive leadership; they encourage more participation, sharing and stimulate excitement about work. Male leaders on the other hand employ more of command and control oriented leadership style (Powell, 1993, p.160). The same study revealed that women have a higher need for both achievement and power than men managers. Women exhibit a more mature and higher achievement need, motivational profile, being concerned with opportunities for growth, autonomy and challenges and less concerned with work environment and pay than men.

2.3.3.xix. a.: Criticisms of Transformational Leadership

Transformational leaders motivate followers by appealing to strong feelings regardless of the ultimate effects on employees. Some leaders may have self-centered tendencies, capitalising on authority and manipulation. In the absence of morality it is self-evident then that transformational leadership might be used for less-than-desirable social ends (Hay, 2009) The Adolf Hitler who caused the Second World War and used it to satisfy his evil desires is an example of a transformational leader from the 'dark side' and Robert Mugabe, too, is another recent transformational leadership gone wrong.

It appears to be a form of leadership well-suited to these current economic downturn characterized by uncertainty, global turbulence and organizational instability. However, as we have seen from examples such as the horrors of Adolf Hitler, there are some risks associated with this form of leadership, particularly with respect to idealized influence.

(Table 12)

Analysis of theory development of leadership characteristics

Prevailing Theory		Prevailing Period	Summary of Theory
Great Man Theory		Pre 1950	Leaders are born with certain characteristics which predispose them to leadership positions
Theory of traditional leadership	Trait theory	1910 to World War II	Emphasised • personality traits, characteristics and attributions, eg. Trustworthiness, assertiveness, warmth, etc. • task related traits including flexibility, passion, locus of control etc.[2]
	Behaviour theory	World War II to 1960s	More concerned with the behaviour style of the leader. It measures • concern for task against • concern for people. [1]
	Situation theory	1960s to 1980s	There is no fixed, unchangeable and best leadership style. It depends on situational forces including • relation of leader to followers • structure of the task • position of power.[1]
Transformed Leadership Period		1980's to present	Responds to new form of society, e.g. charismatic, transformational leadership style

(Adapted from: Pam, et al. 2009)

2.3.3.xv. Transactional Leadership:

Boseman, (2008) indicated that the transactional leader's behavior represents an exchange (a transaction) between the leader and follower. Thus the leader exchanges rewards for performance, effort, and participation from the employees. The transactional leadership behaviors are important because they provide the foundation for the relationship between the leader and the follower.

Barbuto, (2007) cited by Blanchard and Johnson (1985) describes transactional management as a simple process of creating strong expectations with employees, along with clear indications of what they will get in return for meeting these expectations. Most researches have linked contingent rewards to positive organizational outcomes. This type of leader sets goals, clarifies desired outcomes, provides feedback, and exchanges rewards for accomplishments (Schmid, 2006). Like the transformational style of leadership the transactional style does not put the interest of the employees first before outcome; rather the main aim of the transactional leader is to accomplish the task ahead.

(Table 13)

Transactional and transformational leadership	
Transactional	Transformational
The transactional leader:	The transformational leader:
"Recognizes what it is that we want to get from work and tries to ensure that we get it if our performance merits it. Exchanges rewards and promises for our effort. Is responsive to our immediate self interests if they can be met by getting the work done.	Raises our level of awareness, our level of consciousness about the significance and value of designated outcomes, and ways of reaching them. Gets us transcend our own self-interest for the sake of the team, organization or larger polity. Alters our need level (after Maslow) and expands our range of wants and needs". **(Adapted from- Wright 1996: 213)**

2.3.3.xvi.: Autocratic Leadership

Autocratic leadership is distinguished by the leader making decisions unilaterally and not allowing the group members to participate (Cuadrado, et al. 2008). Authoritarian leaders

provide clear expectation what needs to be done, when it will be done, and how it should be done (Wagner, 2009). Autocratic leaders are mainly task-oriented and leaders who use a task-oriented style are mainly concerned with achieving the group goals—emphasis on achieving the task (Cuadrado, et al,. 2008). The weakness of the style of leadership is that it is too dictatorial, too controlling and bossy and does not fit into management of modern organization. Authoritarian leadership is best used in situations whereby there is little time for group discussion.

It is one in which the leader retains as much power and decision-making authority as possible. The leader does not consult employees, and they are not allowed to give any input. Employees are expected to obey orders without receiving any explanations. The motivation of the employees is achieved by creating a structured set of rewards and punishments. Leaders who are authoritarian oriented rely on threats and punishment to influence employees and they do not trust employees and do not allow for employees' input.

When executives make decisions and simply tell team members what to do, we have directive or autocratic leadership. The word "autocratic" suggests being dictatorial, but clear direction can be provided without being heavy-handed. The idea is that leaders should be directive when time is of the essence, when subordinates don't know what to do, or they are not motivated (McCrimmon, 2007).

Some studies have established that organizations with many autocratic leaders have higher turnover and absenteeism than other organizations. Certainly Gen X employees have proven to be highly resistant to this management style.

Autocratic leadership style could damage working relationships with colleagues especially in recent times when employees are seeking active participation in making decision in the affaires that concerns them.

(Table 14)
Autocratic leadership style can be employed under the following conditions:

The autocratic leadership style should be used when:	The autocratic leadership style should not be used when:

• New, untrained employees who do not know which tasks to perform or which procedures to follow. • Effective supervision can be provided only through detailed orders and instructions. • Employees do not respond to any other leadership style. • There are high-volume production needs on a daily basis. • There is limited time in which to make a decision. • A manager's power is challenged by an employee. • The area was poorly managed. • Work needs to be coordinated with another department or organization.	• Employees become tense, fearful, or resentful. • Employees expect to have their opinions heard. • Employees begin depending on their manager to make all their decisions. • There is low employee morale, high turnover and absenteeism and work stoppage.

Adapted from Sponsored link (2009)
http://www.essortment.com/all/leadershipstyle_rrnq.htm

2.3.3.xvii.: The Democratic Leadership Style

The democratic leadership style is also called the participative style as it encourages employees to be a part of the decision making; it is opposite of authoritarian leadership style. It focuses on group relationships and sensitivity to the people in the organization. This type of leadership style fosters professional competence and it is suitable for the modern organisation structure. Supervision is minimal as individuals take the responsibility for their behaviour. Subordinates are encouraged to express their ideas and to make suggestions. However, shared decisions are not likely to occur in all aspects of the organizational operations. Democratic leaders sell ideas. They tend to be warm, confident, and friendly (Brennen, 2009).

The democratic leadership style encourages employee participation and professional growth. It is well suited to environments where people have a very high level of expertise such as software engineers, lawyers, doctors, mature teachers, etc. The democratic leadership style promotes greater job satisfaction and improved morale. Democratic leadership can produce high quality and high quantity work for long periods of time. Many employees like the trust they receive and respond with cooperation, team spirit, and high morale (Sponsored Links, 2009).

Democratic leaders develop plans to help employees evaluate their own performance; it allows employees to establish goals, encourages subordinates to grow on the job and be promoted, and recognizes and encourages achievement.

2.3.3.xvii. a.: The Advantages of Democratic Leadership

It encourages Creative thinking and reduces turnover: The free flow of ideas and positive work environment is the perfect catalyst for creative thinking and it also creates a positive work environment where employees are more enthused to work and enjoy what they do. When employees are empowered through participation in decision making the company will experience lower rates of employee turnover which has numerous benefits (Leadership Experts, 2009).

Democratic leadership helps in reduction of friction and office politics: By allowing subordinates to use their ideas and even more importantly to gain credit for them, the leaders are in especial way reducing the amount of tension employees generate with their manager. When autocratic leaders refuse to listen to their workers, or deliberately ignore their ideas, they are effectively asking for people to talk behind their back and attempt to undermine them (Leadership Experts, 2009).

2.3.3.xvii.b.: The Disadvantages of Democratic Leadership:

The disadvantage of democratic leadership is that seeking consultation over every decision can lead to a process so slow that it can cause opportunities to be missed, or hazards avoided too late.

Some leaders simply act as if to follow a democratic leadership style simply to score a point in the eyes of their subordinates. 'But what they fail to understand is that employees are quick to realise when their ideas aren't actually valued, and that the manager is merely following procedure in asking for suggestions, but never actually implementing them' (Leadership Experts, 2009).

Like the other styles, the democratic style is not always appropriate. It is most successful when used with highly skilled or experienced employees or when implementing operational changes or resolving individual or group problems.

(Table 15)

Democratic leadership can be employed under the following condition:

The democratic leadership style is most effective when:	Democratic leadership should not be used when:
- The leader wants to keep employees informed about matters that affect them. - The leader wants employees to share in decision-making and problem-solving duties. - The leader wants to provide opportunities for employees to develop a high sense of personal growth and job satisfaction. - There is a large or complex problem that requires lots of input to solve. - Changes must be made or problems solved that affect employees or groups of employees. - You want to encourage team building and participation.	- There is not enough time to get everyone's input. - It's easier and more cost-effective for the manager to make the decision. - The business can't afford mistakes. - The manager feels threatened by this type of leadership. - Employee safety is a critical concern.

Adapted from Sponsored link (2002)
http://www.essortment.com/all/leadershipstyle_rrnq.htm

2.3.3.xviii.: Laissez Faire Leadership Style

Barbuto (2009) described laissez-faire leadership as a leader's disregard of supervisory duties and lack of guidance of subordinates. They exhibit frequent absences and lack of involvement at a critical time. In many of the research studies done on the laissez faire leadership style of male and female leaders, men leaders score higher than the female leaders (Richardson, 2008). This leadership style is quite the opposite of the Authoritarian style. There is the absence of any real leadership and every one is free to do as they please. Usually, with no goals or direction, there is a state of confusion, and lack of confidence in leadership. Although this leadership style is not usually encouraged, it has its place with persons who are highly motivated and can work totally on their own choice. This type of leadership style would also be appropriate when there is nothing significant at stake (Brennen, 2009).

Barbuto (2005) described laissez-faire leadership as a leader's disregard of supervisory duties and a lack of guidance of subordinates. Laissez-faire leaders offer little support to their

subordinates and are inattentive to productivity or the necessary completion of duties. Laissez-faire leaders gave their groups complete freedom and offered little guidance. It leads to less efficient and of poorer quality work or even became unproductive. This is because the leader's lack of interest in the activities of the employees. From the outset, laissez-faire has demonstrated itself to be the most inactive, least effective, and most frustrating leadership style. An example according to Barbuto (2005) when he cited (Katz, Macoby, Gurin, and Floor, 1951) studied railroad section groups that were deemed to be unproductive. The leaders of these groups gave complete control to the group members and the members did not respond to the challenge. It is evident that in a group situation where the leader is not effective the group members become unproductive. Studies in the past have proved that, like the one mentioned above by Barbuto, (2005).

This type of leadership style is not encouraged, but it can only be used in situation where the subordinates or group members are mature and highly motivated. Laissez Faire style is employed in a situation where employees are highly educated professionals like in the medical profession, because employees in their capacity do not wait for direction to given.

2.4.1. Task-oriented Behaviour

The leader's tasks include planning and scheduling work, coordinating activities and providing necessary resources. The leader spent time guiding subordinates in setting goals that were both challenging and achievable. How to get the tasks done is his highest priority, before considerations of people. People are seen purely as a means to getting the job done and any human considerations are generally viewed as a waste. There is this attitude that if employees are not closely monitored tasks will not be accomplished. Employees are seen as means through which tasks are accomplished (Barnett, 2009; Michigan Studies, 2009).

Michigan researchers' conclusions strongly favoured the leaders who were employee oriented. Employee-oriented leaders were associated with higher group productivity and higher job satisfaction. While task-oriented leaders tended to be associated with low group productivity and lower job satisfaction.

2.4.2. <u>Relationship-oriented behavior</u>

Effective managers not only concentrated on the task, but also on their relationship with their subordinates. They were more considerate, helpful and supportive of subordinates, including helping them with their career and personal problems. They recognized effort with intrinsic as well as extrinsic reward, thanking people for effort (Barnett, 2009).

Attention here is paid to the emotional well-being of the employees. There is a general belief that if the people are happy then they will be optimally motivated to do the work they are given. In addition, it is assumed that they will also think intelligently about the work and, with a minimum guidance, will plan, monitor and improve much of what they are doing. Although goals and guidelines are provided, but subordinates are given leeway as to how the goals would be achieved (Barnett, 2009).

2.5. <u>Demographic Variables and the Leadership Style of Men and Women:</u>

Attitudes are often formed by the experiences that one has throughout one's life, and these experiences may be quite different depending on one's age, gender, marital status, or race/ethnicity. The specific impact of demographic characteristics such as age, gender, marital status, and race on perception of different leadership style can be examined in conjunction with gender related leadership style.

2.5.1. <u>Age:</u>

Different generations have perceived the role of women in the society in a different light. As a result, generational or group differences may coexist with this trend. People who are older tend to conform more to the social expectations of their generation and may likely endorse more traditional gender roles. Judge (2008), Eagly, et al. (2004) suggested that attitudes often experience shifts within individuals, over time. Hence, males and females leaders would be expected to adopt a leadership style that was previously not expected of their gender. In this study therefore we expect a different response in accordance with the age groups of the respondents. Although recent studies have shown that differences that exist between age groups tend to be small.

Oshagbemi (2004) pointed out that in the study he carried out 400 leaders that older leaders display more participative leadership however both the young and old leaders practice directive and delegative leadership at the same degree.

2.5.2. Marital Status:

What is the relevance of corporate leadership styles to home management? First of all, the concept of the role of a man and woman in the marriage relationship and the home is invariably transmitted into the larger society. Men who believe that a woman should be controlled and manipulated in the home also believe that she should be controlled and manipulated in the workplace. In the corporate world, growth and productivity have become a greater reality through gender inclusion and the removal of the power scale of inequity (Brennen, 2009).

It is within the marital relationship that traditional gender roles are most readily played out. Even when the woman takes care of the needs of the family the women will still appear as subordinate to the husband or the partner. Moreover, it appears that married individuals are more conservative and more traditional in their social way of life than unmarried individuals; we do expect a difference such that being married will be associated with a more traditional gender role, and is likely to exhibit the leadership style traditional ascribed to women leaders (Judge, 2008).

2.6.   Sources of Gender Role Socialisation:

Some studies would offer explanations why pressures on boys to act in a gender constricted way exists. Common explanations were parents, especially fathers, the media, and the society. Some boys commented that societal roles for men have always been there. Most boys agreed that, in general, it was important for men to feel in charge. They noted that other boys seem to "thrive on dominance" and need to "act tough''.

2.6.1. Family Gender Role Orientation:

In every family, irrespective of the culture or tribe but more so in Africa and Asia, the father or the oldest male member of the family is regarded of the head of the family and he is expected to act as such. Generally the women are treated as subordinates and must take orders from their husbands. The father is expected to establish his authority in the handling o

the affairs of the family and his decision is final. The opinion of the wife or the female members of the family are not always required. This type of behaviour is expected and is accepted as appropriate behaviour. Expectation is central to socialization, thus people behave according to the societal expectation. Males and females have different roles expected of them to play in the family and in the society as fathers and mothers, as boys and girls. Gender role expectation and exposure shapes the way males and females behave and act; for instance men are expected to be tough, assertive, authoritarian, independent, while women are expected to be caring, submissive, dependent, and relationship oriented. But a woman who is never married is most unlikely to exhibit these characteristic ascribed to family women or mothers. In other words a family person (married man and women) is more likely to uphold the traditional gender role expectation than the unmarried woman and man.

In every family roles are divided along the gender line. Family life has lots of influence on how male and female developed in their behaviour as individuals. Parents encourage their girls to play with dolls by buying dolls for them as gifts and boys receive cars, guns and footballs as gifts. This is very common in Western cultures. In Western culture fathers are more likely to go fishing or to play cricket with their boys, while the mothers go to shopping with the girls (Berryman, et al. 2009). At home fathers and boys do the repairing of the house, including the cars, and mow the lawns. In African culture boys go to farm with their fathers, while the mothers and girls stay home to cook, wash and clean the house and take care of the younger siblings. Males (father and son) are likely to allow more freedom to move away from home than the females (mother and daughter) for fear that they might get hurt or be sexually assaulted by the males. At home fathers especially encourage gender appropriate behavior and they put more pressure on the boys to perform. The past three decades have brought a new level of awareness about the wide range of roles possible for each gender, notwithstanding the strong beliefs about differences in gender role in the family that still remain.

Observations of mothers and fathers interacting with their school-age children reveal that they demand greater independence from boys and more often help their daughters than their sons. Again in Africa culture in Igbo culture (my culture) for example parents especially the fathers, demand that the boys exhibit toughness in whatever they do and are continuously reminding them of their future role as head of the family who must take care of their family. Early development stages, parents provide experiences that encourage assertiveness,

exploration and emotional control in boys. In contrast they promote imitation, dependency and emotional sensitivity in girls (Berryman, et al. 2009). In the America and in Western world generally men are not expected to show emotion; a ''men don't cry'' mentality or any sign that depicts weakness on the part of the man.

Watts, et al. (2005) in his studies discovered that adolescent boys, because of family and societal influence intentionally refuse to express any emotions except anger; they are never expected to express their emotions or affections in public for fear to be branded weak. They have the opinion that it was inappropriate to show emotion otherwise it will be regarded as unmanly. These socialized behaviors are learned directly from adult men, especially their fathers. In general, boys from Western culture have reported that they felt societal and family pressure to avoid emotional expression. They described a need to succeed and show dominance in class, in groups, and in athletics. Part of the stereotyped masculine identity in Western cultures involves the rejection of anything feminine (Watts, et al, 2005).

Poeschl (2007) suggested the reason why unequal family practices do not change, because traditional practices are social norms that orientate individual behaviours. As a result these family practices are considered to be fair because women, as well as men, seem to gain benefits from family organization. He argued that there is passive conception about how men and women should behave; these are largely sustained by social norms and gender stereotypes.

Because of the socialization process in the family, especially women and mothers mostly have developed values and characteristic that result in leadership behaviour that are different from the traditionally competitive, controlling, aggressive leadership of men. Women, because of their subordinate role have developed qualities that are relevant to leadership based relationships, as well as encouragement and support (transformational and relationship style etc). The men, on the other hands, lack exposure to the situation that women commonly face in the family and do not possess those qualities (Rosenger, 1990).

2.6.2. **The Media:**

Ingham, H. (1997) cites a study conducted by McGhee and Frueh (1975) which, they argued, high amounts of television viewing can be correlated with stronger traditional sex role

development. They further argued that this would hold constant for boys and girls, increasing with age. Ingham, H. (1997) also pointed out that the studies done by Gunter (1990) have indicated that 89%-97% of the young sampled mentioned television as a source of information with regard to six given occupations (Ingham, 1997). Gender role stereotypes seen on television are, in turn, reinforced by parents, friends, and school, contributing to the child's sense of what it means to be male or female in society. "Television still perpetuates traditional gender stereotypes because it reflects dominant social values. In reflecting them TV also reinforces them, presenting them as 'natural" (Chandler, 2009).

Television teaches what is important and how to behave in the society and at home. In an ever-changing world, television has been accused by many as representing gender in an extremely stereotyped and traditional manner which is no longer appropriate for the variety of roles taken on by the sexes (Chandler, 2009). Television programmes are frequently presenting women in the home via the housewife-type role, with the man as the strong, bread-winning husband (Ingham, 1997). In successful family TV programmes the husband's role is typically exaggerated and the wife's role underplayed. Generally women are not seen in high status occupations as often as men. Women's jobs tend to be those more often associated with traditional feminine characteristics such as caring and so we often see them as nurses or secretaries; those roles secondary to the man as doctor or 'boss'. Television ads have been widely acknowledged as placing women in a more subordinate role.

The voice-overs which are intended to be authoritative in adverts are usually male, whereas female voice-overs tend to be used in a more seductive manner (Ingham, 1997). The media continues to present the images of a man using strength or violence to establish their authority and present the images of women in traditional domestic or submissive and sexualized roles (Gensalud, 1994). When men are shown to be in roles traditionally associated with women, for instance washing the dishes or clothes, they invariably become incompetent; they are shown to be having trouble working out how to use the washing machine. Women endorse or promote products used at home, whereas males are more likely to promote product used outside the home (Powell, 1993). Women were often portrayed as happy and diligent home-makers, beautiful and dependent social companion. These sorts of programmes only stand to reinforce traditional belief that the place of women is in the kitchen.

Witt, (2001) cited the works of (Seidman, 1999; Carter, 1991; Cantor, 1977) when she said that: as children move through childhood and adolescence, television is an important influence on their gender role socialization. The gender biased and gender stereotyped behaviours and attitudes that developing young people are exposed to on television will have an impact on their perception of male and female roles in our society later in adult life. Children who witness female characters on television programs who are passive, indecisive, and subordinate to men (and see this reinforced by the environment around them) come to understand this is the appropriate way for females to behave. It is less likely for females to develop autonomy, initiative and industriousness when they rarely see it modeled in those around them. Similarly, because male characters on television programs are more likely to be shown in leadership roles and exhibit assertive, decisive behavior, women and children learn this as the appropriate way for males to behave.

- In male-female interaction, men are usually more dominant.
- Men on television are rational, ambitious, smart, competitive, powerful, stable, violent, and intolerant, while women are sensitive, romantic, attractive, happy, warm, sociable, peaceful, fair, submissive, and timid.
- For men, the emphasis is on strength, performance, and skill; for women, it is on attractiveness and desirability.

As children continue to develop and grow, they are exposed to more and more examples of gender role biases (gender role stereotypes), and thus children perpetuate similar unfair attitudes and behaviours. Traditional gender roles, wherein men are encouraged to be decisive and to show leadership qualities and women are encouraged to be courteous and dependent, this does not benefit women's course as future leaders (Witt, 2001; Chandler, 2009).

The above examples of how the media orientate people actually explain the reasons why males readily adopt the authoritative or autocratic style of leadership as against females democratic and relationship style of leadership. Men have been oriented by the media and the family too that they are to be strong, assertive, always to be in charge, independent etc. Women have been oriented to be caring, considerate, loving, and depend; this explains why women almost always adopt the democratic and transformational leadership style. These two styles of leadership are inclusive in practice, where the leader dependent on the subordinates to achieve the organisational goals and objective and the subordinates in turn depend on the leader for directions and inspiration. The differences in the leadership styles of men and

women will be discussed in detail in the literature review of leadership style of men and women later in the chapter.

2.6.3. Education Attainment:

What children lean or see at school significantly affects the way they behave, how they think of themselves, and how they function in society later in life. Education reinforces the gender role stereotype or bias which was started in the family by the parents and perpetuated by the media and the religious institutions. In school boys and girls are handled differently; boys tend to receive more of both negative and positive encouragement (Lindberg, et al. 2008). These mothers according to Lindberg use more cognitively complex language when teaching science to their sons than daughters. Children's self perception of their academic capabilities mirrors their parents' perception. This reinforces the assertion that men are more intelligent and assertive than women.

Education somehow orientates boys to be able to face stiffer challenges in the future, fearless, and to be brave in the face of difficulty. This sort of orientation manifests in the leadership style adopted by female and male leaders. As we have already pointed out above, female leaders would like to choose the leadership style that promotes collaboration and caring relationship (relationship oriented style of leadership) between the leaders and followers. On the other hand male leaders will choose the leadership style that is concerned only about achieving the goals of the organization (task oriented and transactional style of leadership) (Gensalud, 1994).

Having explained the above point succinctly, however, it has been proven that people who are highly educated and/or who possesses more cognitive ability will be likely to be more critical of traditional gender roles, as they are likely to adjust their attitudes based on evidence they encounter in their field of study rather than historical norms and are likely to have learned about equity and women's abilities in society. Moreover, educational attainment is among the most important predictors of gender role orientation (Judge, 2008). Apart from the level of educational attainment a person reached, the curriculum equally helps in shaping the mindset of the individual, which means that, whatever education background one has, will help in forming the dimension of his/her leadership style (Richardson, et al. 2008). Barbuto, et al.

(2007) in their research discovered that peoples' educational level attainment affects the perception of both their leadership style and influences tactics.

Nishuyama, (2006) discovered that there was a positive correlation between transactional leadership and education for female leaders. He discovered that the highly educated female managers are even more likely to adopt transactional leadership style than the male counterparts. This is probably because women who have competed with men in the academic setting feel more pressured not to fail. As a result they adopt the leadership style associated with the men style of leadership.

2.6.4. Religious Upbringing:

Some religions have strong gender role expectation for men and women in the family and in the society. Religion has been found to predict traditional attitudes toward women, as has active Protestantism. According to Powell, (1993) a study had found that the more frequently people attended church service the more traditional was their attitude towards gender role in the family and in the society. People are influenced by their religious teaching more than by their experience. Historically and even in the recent past people have used religion to deprive women of their rights, to subordinate them and even to prevent them from being educated, Afghanistan is a good example of where women are still not allowed access to education and are subjected to all kind of inhuman treatment all in the name of religion. It is most likely or expected that those who were raised in a religious environment will hold more strongly traditional gender role orientations (Judge, 2008). Women leaders are likely to be negatively judged in a society predominantly controlled or influenced by the orthodox religion than the Protestants and the modern Pentecostals. Like societal gender expectation, religious gender role expectation also influences the behaviour of men and women, because a person is expected to behave in a particular way that suits his/her gender. As a result men and women will be expected to handle their followers in a different leadership style as ascribed to the gender of the person belongs to.

2.6.4. i.: Christianity:

"Then the LORD God said, "It is not good that the man should be alone; I will make him a helper fit for him."" (Gen 2:18). This an injunction people interpreted to mean superiority of the man over the women and a base for their subjection of women in society. According to

Albatrus (2009) God created woman for the purpose of the man, to be his helper suitable for him, and as his subordinate, (not his boss nor his co-worker) (1Co 11:8,9).

"But I would have you know, that the head of every man is Christ; and the head of the woman is the man; and the head of Christ is God." (1Co 11:3) "Wives, submit (*adapt, be subordinate*) yourselves to your own husbands, as to the Lord. 23 For the husband is the head (*ruler*) of the wife, even as Christ is the head of the church: and he is the saviour of the body. Therefore as the church is subject to Christ, so let the wives be (*subject*) to their own husbands in every thing." Eph 5:22-24 (Albatru, 2009).

The bible injunction that women should be submissive to their husbands (2Timothy 1:12), so the woman is encouraged to please her husband, admire him, accept him, appreciate him and adapt to him. This attitude prescribed above is meant to be an ideal attitude for every woman to aspire to. Women who have been socialised to accept this ideal tend to be obedient and submissive to their male co-workers. Even if they become leaders they often seek the approval of male co-workers during decision making; their leadership style is aligned to democratic leadership and transformational leadership styles. It does not come as a surprise that the majority of the studies done indicate that women leaders adopt transformational and democratic leadership style than their male counterparts (Barron, 2006).

Male leadership role has been understood in the church and within marriage, society and government. The role and place of women in the church has been downplayed, overlooked, or denied throughout much of the modern Christian history (Anti, 2009). The traditional stance of male-only clergy continues unchanged in Roman Catholicism, Eastern Orthodoxy and among some Anglican churches, especially in Africa. Although the Churches preach and beliefs that both male and female were made in the image of God, the woman shares in the divine image through the man because she was created out of him, and is his "glory". For a man indeed ought not to cover his head, for as much as he is the image and glory of God: but the woman is the glory of the man, 1 Corinthians 11:7. In religious teachings men are the leaders while the women are the followers and they must abide by the will of the leaders, the men (Anti, 2009).

The Catholic Church holds that there is one eternal God, who exists as a mutual indwelling of three persons God (the holy Trinity), God the father, God the son and God the Holy Spirit.

Like the Jews, for example, Christianity does not accept women as equal to men. Jews and Christians had a rigid masculine concept of God who was the 'God of Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob', but not the God of Sarah, Rebecca, and Rachael. Here again God is depicted as male, invariably depicting the headship of the man, he controls and command and the women must obeyed or else she will seen as not disobeying God. Therefore, in the churches gender role expectation does exist too; women should behave in famine manner in accordance with their presumed feminine attributes or ascribed to them by their religion (Anti, 2009).

Although this altitude has been challenged from within the church, European traditional religions have assigned women an inferior role in the religious hierarchy. Men's role in the home was seen as similar to God's role in the universe and that has not changed much to this day (Powell, 1993). Women were only given the right to vote only in 1920, after the male slaves were granted the right to vote in Britain. The women place was assumed to be in the house or kitchen. They must have natural virtue of pity, purity, submissiveness and domesticity to be accepted (Anti, 2009).

While Catholics churches and the Orthodox churches hold on to the traditional gender role expectation, the modern Protestantism and the Evangelical or Pentecostal churches have changed their attitude toward women leadership role in the church. Women in recent time have been allowed to hold offices original seen as men domain. As a result chances are that women and men who were raised as Catholic or Orthodox are inclined to the leadership style ascribed to women and men leaders.

2.6.4.ii.: African Traditional Religion:

In African traditional religions both men and women are respected and both have major roles to play, women serve as priests like their male counterparts, they also train hard to become traditional doctors, healers, or herbalists. But the women priests or herbalists often were wrongly described as Witch doctors. Every village in Africa has a medicine-man or woman within each village. They play the role of counsellors, judges, advisors, fortune-tellers and revealers of secrets (Anti, 2009).

 Though they are regarded as producers of life, they are also seen as spiritual sources of danger. Thus in connection with religious functions menstruating women are banned from

the shrines, neither are they allowed handling or touching religious objects or persons. Sex with a woman in her period is also forbidden, although this is not particular in this religion. And in the olden days menstruating women have to move to an outer house meant for those regarded as ritually unclean. They were even forbidden to cook for their husbands (Anti, 2009).

In African culture the women are regarded and valued very much but all is centred on their role as child bearers and as caregivers for their children and husbands. The mother and wife is probably the most important member of the family, the centre of family-hood. So it is said by the Akamba of Kenya for example: "he who has not travelled thinks that his mother is the best cook in the world''. This sentiment is also expressed in another proverb from the Kikuyu of Kenya: "The baby that refuses its mother's breast, will never be full" this means that even if the baby is fed by another person, he will never get satisfied until it feeds from the mother's (Mbiti, 2009).

The woman who is not married has practically no role in society, in African traditional world-view. It is expected that all women get married. So a proverb states: "an ugly girl does not become old at home", which means that the looks of a girl should not stop her from getting married. Otherwise this would deny her the role of womanhood (bearing children). The childless woman goes through deep sorrows in African society (Mbiti, 2009). People will excuse a woman for losing her children through death, but the one who does not bear is hardly 'excused. So the Ghanaians say: "A serviceable wife is often blessed with the birth of a tenth child".

Women are extremely valuable in the sight of society. Not only do they bear life, but they nurse, they cherish, they give warmth, they care for life since all human life passes through their own bodies. The following proverbs bring these points out clearly. A woman must not be killed". She is the mother of life, and to kill the woman is to kill children, to kill humanity itself (Mbiti, 2009). The orientation women received and functions women carried out at home enable them to acquire the skill that is in consonant with the transformational leadership style. Consequently, when placed in a leadership position, women exhibit leadership behaviours which are significantly relationship oriented than those of their male counterparts, behaviour which are more congruent with religious and societal expectations (Decker, 1991).

2.6.4   iii.: Islamic Religion:

Some Islamic scholars' claim is that the Koran teaches equality between men and women but cultures and traditions within different Islamic countries resulted in poor treatment of women; also because the society is male dominated, the culture slowly began looking down on women. But some verses in the Koran are saying the direct opposite; the Koran encourages and even orders that women be treated like subordinates or even as slaves (Wikipedia, 2005). The paragraph below contains some of those verses.

> "Men are the protectors and maintainers of women, because Allah has given the one more (strength) than the other, and because they support them from their means. Therefore the righteous women are devoutly obedient, and guard in (the husband's) absence what Allah would have them guard. As to those women on whose part ye fear disloyalty and ill-conduct, admonish them (first), (Next), refuse to share their beds, (and last) beat them (lightly); but if they return to obedience, seek not against them means (of annoyance): For Allah is Most High, great (above you all)." Qur'an 4:34 (Wikipedia, 2005).

In Islam women are totally under the control of their husband and the women are to take orders from their husbands, and the man has the God-given right to treat them as they wish according the Qur'an. "If any of your women are guilty of lewdness, take the evidence of four (Reliable) witnesses from amongst you against them; and if they testify, confine them to houses until death do claim them, or Allah ordain for them some (other) way." Qur'an 4:15. (Wikipedia, 2005). The same Quran did not say what should happen to the man if he is guilty of the same offence.

In Islam, women could only lead prayers for a congregation of women. And in the mosque women are not to stand in the same row with the men but separately behind the rows of men. Women sat behind a curtain during services for fear that men could look at them while they prayed (Wikipedia, 2005).

The reason behind women ineligible under the Islamic teaching (shar'a), to hold the caliphate or head the state is owing to the great burdens of such a huge responsibility which in most cases outweigh the capacity of the woman and conflicts with the natural disposition of the woman as mother. This argument by some Islamic scholars does not make much sense, since we are aware that some women could be even more capable than some men to hold such leadership position (Wikipedia, 2005). Again the argument below contradicts this claim.

No one may take up office as judge unless he has fulfilled all the conditions necessary for his appointment...These conditions are seven in number: First, he must be a man...A woman may not take up office as she is not suited to administrative office.[some argue limited judgeship]. However a view which rejects both the consensus and Allah's words cannot be considered: Men are guardians over women by virtue of His having given more to the latter (Qur'an 4:38) that is, more intellect and powers of discernment. Thus it is not permitted for them to rule men.

Likewise, the need for a woman to have a male guardian with her was only for travel, so that she cannot be sexually molested. This rule, which made some kind of sense in the early bandit-and-rapist ridden Arabian peninsular, has been misinterpreted by modern Taliban-style extremists to justify locking their women up in the house - something that was certainly unknown to the early Muslims where women were an important part of the labour force in the society (Karam, et al 2009).

Without doubt the woman's role in the Islamic religion is more of a care giver; she takes care of the home, the children and the husband, a role that is in parity with other religious teachings. A women that is socialised to take care of people all her life like in the Islamic world will obviously be inclined to adapt relationship oriented style of leadership should she finds herself in leadership position anyway. On the other hand a Muslim man who has been socialised to be dominant over his wife and household will equally be inclined to adapting the autocratic or task oriented leadership because he has been socialised to be that way.

2.6.4.iv.: Hinduism:

In Hindu religion women are place high in the religious hierarchy and had play import roles. But like the other major religions of the world Hinduism teaches that women should dedicate themselves to the household and to their husbands (Mink, 2007). Hinduism emphases that women should be domestic experts, keeping the house clean and well decorated according to traditional Hinduism practices. While in recent times, Hindu women's role in society has been modified, yet Hindus still follow tradition; for example women don't have much besides the house generally. A wife has no property and the wealth earned is for the husband (Wikipedia, 2009). When a father died, unmarried daughters had to be given a share in their father's property, equal to one-fourth from every brother's share. Daughters and sons equally inherited their mother's property; but some scriptures insist that a mother's property belongs solely to the daughters. Positive references are made to the ideal woman in texts such as the

Ramayana and the Mahabharata, while some texts such as the Manu Smriti advocate a restriction of women's rights. (Mink, 2007).

2.6.4.V.: Confucianism:

Williams, (2009) cites Pamela Paxton and Melanie Hughes who talked about the impact of Confucianism on the role and participation of women in politics in China and in other Asian countries, (China, Japan, the Koreas, Vietnam, and Singapore). They mention that under Confucianism, women at every level are to occupy a position lower than men. For instance, in the Confucian Book of Rites it says that the woman should follow the man in her youth, as she follows her father and elder brother; when married she follows her husband and, when her husband is dead, she follows her son (Karam, et al. 2009).

When a religion dictates that women should be subordinate to men and should follow the opinions of their husbands and fathers, such a woman who is oriented in this manner may find it awkward to exercise authoritative style of leadership over men subordinates should she become a leader.

In summary therefore, the importance of studying differentials in leadership style of men and women is emphasised when one considers the increase of females in leadership position throughout the world in general and in South Africa in particular, a situation which because of religious, societal expectations and other factors, is unique to the study of management. Since men and women without doubt have been conditioned by religious and societal expectations certain sex role stereotypes can and have emerged which influence personality development and behavioural pattern for both men and women. Consequently as we have discussed above when placed in leadership positions, some women have exhibited leadership behaviour which are significantly more relationship oriented than those of their men counterparts, behaviours which are more congruent with societal and religious expectations (Decker, 1991). Although such leadership behaviours may change considering the numerous leadership articles explaining the cause of the differences in leadership style of both gender and why women lead differently and why they should change their mentality.

Islamic religion portrays the man as the provider and to be provider for instance he much work harder, become result oriented, and to get the result he must make the workers work (task oriented). The other religious teaching also put the man in the same position, although

the Islamic, Christians, Hindus and African Religion teaching seems to come out more clearly on this issue. Therefore it is more likely that women/men who were brought up under religious adherence (depending on which one) should be more likely to adopt those leadership styles ascribed their gender, for instance transformational and democratic leadership styles for women. On the other hand men who are brought up under religious adherence will most likely be inclined to adopt transactional and autocratic leadership styles.

2.7. <u>Leadership</u>

2.7.1. <u>The Leadership Behaviours (Traits) of Males and Females Leaders:</u>

Great leadership operates on some sets of attributes which include vision, interdependence, and action (Nel, 2007; Senge, 1999). The leader prepares the organisation and gains the commitment of all those concerned (stakeholders) to achieve the vision. Leaders develop and deliver the personal, team and operational outputs that create and keep more delighted customers (Nel, 2007).

Men are generally considered to be more aggressive, enterprising, independent, self-sufficient, dominant, competent, and rational (Cuadrado, 2008). Cohn, et al. (2009) in his study of the eight leadership traits, the survey asked about four traits that are often viewed in a negative light. The majority of the respondents rated women as the more emotional and more manipulative sex. On the other side the respondents say men are the more arrogant and stubborn than women. Berry (2008) pointed out that men and women were rated as similar in emotional stability. Female leaders scored lower as risk takers, so they are less security conscious which gives them a slightly higher risk taking profile. Females will be a bit more inclined to look for opportunities to improve organisational performance.

Chow (2005) cited the studies done by Alimo, et al. (2003) which indicated that there are no substantial differences in leadership characteristic perceived by male and female middle managers. There are only two out of the twenty one items significant gender differences in the perceived leadership attributes. Male respondents perceived face-saving and self-centeredness to be more important in leadership than did female subordinates.

Kabacoff, et al. (1998) in his study indicated that men score higher than women in the strategic approach to leadership role, according to the result men are more open to new ideas

and are willing to take risks. Kabacoff, et al (1998) finding is in direct opposite to the result of the study done by Cohn, et al (2009). But he pointed out that while the women scored higher in expressiveness dimension, they operate with energy, intensity, and emotional expression and more are enthusiastic and involving. They demonstrate more concern for others and are more suitable to develop close working relationship and are more involved in the development of others.

Barsade, (2005) states that women are perceived to be more multi-tasking, emotional, empathetic, strong, intuitive, compassionate, relationship building, verbal, consensus building, collaborative and gossipy, hold grudges, while male leaders are seen to be more strong, arrogant, intelligent, ego-driven, have bravado, powerful, dominant, assertive, single tasking, focused, competitive, stubborn, physical, self-righteous, passive-aggressive, and oppose one another.

Richardson, et al. (2008) study ascribe the following attributes to their past leaders among other attributes; male leaders as tough minded, angry and approachable and their female leaders as emotional, unsentimental and receptive. Swan (2005) in her studies suggested that women leaders are more assertive and persuasive, more empathic and flexible, as well as stronger in interpersonal skill. And women were found to have a stronger need to get things done. And quite unusual when compare to other research findings women leaders were found to be more willing to take risks than male leaders.

Generally women were perceived within a predisposition to nurture and care about others in their families stand them in good stead to be better at leading a diverse workforce, be more tolerant of differences. Women are also perceived to be better at motivating others; at showing appreciation for the efforts of others, more expressive of their thoughts and feelings and more enthusiastic (Cohn, et al. 2009). These are the qualities that leaders of the present era could not do without, and this based the argument that women leadership styles are better suited to the leadership challenge of the 21 century. It is argued that women find participative leadership more natural than men because they feel more comfortable interacting with people.

Lantz (2008) found that women score higher in emotiveness, cooperation, modesty and these are likely to be perceived as incongruent with strong leadership. And male leaders are higher

in assertiveness, stability, achievement orientation and independence and these behaviours or traits seem to be viewed as fundamental to leadership. But than in our contemporary economy a leader, who is assertive, stable and achievement oriented without modesty and cooperation with others is deemed to failure. He/she will not achieve much and he is likely to face opposition or resistance, because these traits lead to an autocratic style of leadership.

According to Daft (2008) women in general prefer less competition, tend to be collaborative, and more concerned with relationship building, inclusive, participative and caring. Nixdorff (2004) shows that men are more aggressive, competitive, dominant, Machiavellian, have ambition, are decisive, have high levels of energy, a commanding voice, persistence, and assertiveness. Women pay more attention and abide by rules and are verbally competent. Men are more competitive and individualistic and prefer working in vertical hierarchies; they are more aggressive or assertive, and with a take charge attitude. Daft (2008) pointed out that a recent study has also found a correlation between balanced gender composition in companies (that is roughly equal male and female) and higher organisational performance. And also has found that the organisation with the highest percentage of women in the top management financially outperform, by about 35%, those with the lowest percentage of women in higher-level jobs.

The result of the research done by Foti, et al. (2004) suggested that women score higher in communicating company's values, purpose and importance of organizational mission to subordinates and key stakeholders. Women leaders also score higher in showing optimism and excitement about goals and future of the organization than men leaders do; they also score higher in case of looking for new perspectives to solve problems and complete tasks. The study also revealed that women focus on development and mentoring of subordinates, and have charisma than men leaders. Women are seen to be less hierarchical, more cooperative and collaborative and more team oriented in their leadership style than men (Foti, et al. 2003).

While other studies have not been very decisive about the actually female leadership style, Swan, (2005) found women to score higher in ego-drive (persuasive motivation), assertiveness, and willingness to risk, and have empathy, urgency, flexibility and sociability. In many studies male leaders have been found to be more assertive and in willingness to take risks.

According to Whitman, et al. (2009) in 2005, a year-long study conducted by Caliper, a Princeton, New Jersey-based management consulting firm, and Aurora, a London-based organization that advances women, identified a number of characteristics that distinguish women leaders from men when it comes to qualities of leadership: The Caliper, et al. (2005) study findings are summarized into four specific statements about women's leadership qualities:

- Women leaders are more persuasive than their male counterparts.
- When feeling the sting of rejection, women leaders learn from adversity and carry on with an "I'll show you" attitude.
- Women leaders demonstrate an inclusive, team-building leadership style of problem solving and decision making.
- Women leaders are more likely to ignore rules and take risks.

2.8. Different Leadership Styles of Males and Females:

2.8.1. Democratic Leadership Style versus Autocratic Leadership Style: Males and Females:

Swan (2005) saw women's leadership style as more inclusive, open, consensus building, collaborative and collegial than the men. On the contrary men are taken to be competitive, strong, tough, decisive and in control. Berry (2008) and Dubrin, (2007) suggest that men use more command and control leadership style than women and have less people skills because they put their energy into organisational performance. Nixdorff (2004) cites Klenke (1996) that men utilize a command-and-control style of leadership, which emphasizes hierarchy, dominance, and competition, and characterize women's leadership style as cooperative, nurturant, empowering, and team-oriented. He pointed out that masculine mode of leadership is based on high control for the leader, hierarchical authority, and analytic problem-solving. He saw that women, on the other hand, prefer a feminine leadership model built on cooperation, collaboration, low control for the leader, and intuitive problem-solving. This result is not far from what many researchers will expect to find as women have these qualities mentioned in this study.

Eagle, et al. (2000), Lantz, (2008) study's result indicated that male leadership style is inclined to be more directive and autocratic, while female leadership style tends to be more participative or democratic. Eagle, et al. (2000) also cited the study done by (Hall, et al. 1994) on medical doctors and their patients on genders bases, which demonstrated that women's behavior is of a more communal style of interaction example female doctors made

more positive statements, are more smiling and nodding, pay more attention and give more encouragement to their patients. Female doctors also are found to engage in more 'partnership building with their patients, show more emotionally focused talk, more positive talk and giving of psychosocial information than male doctors'.

Barsade, (2005) discovered male leaders are generally considered to be more autocratic and task-oriented because men are stereotyped to be aggressive, enterprising, independent, self-sufficient, dominant, competent, rational and women as more relational and democratic (Barsade, 2005; Cuadrado, 2008). Males tend to take greater intellectual risks and have higher self esteem, whereas "women are coping" and tend to be more efficient when it comes to solving problems. This is accordance with the nature versus nurture debate, where women are said to be more nurturing, taking care of children. And men in their hunter-gathering instinct are the provider of the family needs and protect; as a result need to be aggressive, dominant and competent as well.

Democratic leadership is participative, consultative, and involves the group, and the leader allows and encourages group members' participation in the decisions making (Cuadrado, et al 2008). In our society women's role in the family or workplace includes, being mothers, volunteers, teachers, nurses etc. In accordance to these roles therefore, women are expected to be cooperative, supportive, understanding, gentle and to provide service to their families and society. As result of eternalising these ascribed roles; women tend to become more accommodating. And when they become leaders, they lean more towards democratic and relationship-oriented style. This is in accord with the "communal" dimension womanhood is characterised by being concerned with others, being generous, sensitive, understanding, affectionate, or compassionate etc. (Cuadrad, et al. 2008, Oshagbemi, 2003).

The study done by Oshagbemi, et al. (2003) on the leadership style and behaviour of UK managers found that women managers delegate less than their men counterparts, but there are no statistical differences between their directive, consultative and participative leadership styles. The study also found that, in leadership behaviour, Folower (1992) in her studies discovered that the leadership styles of the female leaders by nature are more interactive, cooperative, inclusive and personal. On the other hand the male leadership style is a typical command and control system as we have pointed out above. This result might be as a result

of the experience women have had as mothers, wives, care givers; moreover, women do not have a lot of help. Women's power by nature tends to be based on interpersonal skill.

2.8.2. <u>Transformational Leadership, Transactional Leadership and Laissez-Faire Leadership Style: Males and Females.</u>

Eagle, et al. (2003) and Chow (2005) in their studies found that meta-analysis of 45 studies of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles that female leaders were found to employ a more transformational style than the male leaders and but also engaged more of the contingent reward behaviours that are a component of transactional leadership. Male leaders generally manifested the other aspects of transactional leadership (active and passive management by exception) and laissez-faire leadership. Eagly, et al. (2001) and Dubrin, (2007) in their study found that men exceeded women on the active and passive management-by-exception and laissez-faire subscales.

Jones, et al. (2007) study investigated to determine if the leadership style of academic program leaders (deans) of Colleges of Agriculture at land-grant institutions were transactional, transformational or laissez-faire. The findings of the research show males leaders using specific leadership styles and behaviours more often than their female counterparts. "Males had a mean of 3.31, and females had a mean of 3.20 in transformational leadership. Males had a mean of 2.26, and females had a mean of 2.20 in transactional leadership. In laissez-faire leadership style males had mean of .90, and females had a mean of .84". These research findings for transformational leadership behaviour opposed earlier researches suggesting that transformational leadership is a more feminine leadership style, demonstrated more often by females. The findings of this study imply academic program leaders, both male and female, are using transformational leadership styles more often than transactional or laissez-faire leadership behaviours (Jones, et al. 2007).

Walumbwa, et al, (2001) study focus was to compare the female and male students' perception of instructors' style of the leadership styles. The result indicated that no significant correlations were found between leadership style and gender. Although female leaders scored lower than the male leaders (however insignificant it may be) in all the leadership styles and behavioural dimensions including laissez-faire leadership style. Female students rated their instructors as displaying transformational leadership behaviour; they rated them high in the following transformational leadership style dimensions; charisma, intellectual stimulation,

and for individualized consideration. This study supports others studies done earlier by Eagly (1987) and Bass & Avolio, (1997) in which both suggested that women leaders exhibit more transformational leadership than the men leaders.

The purpose of Rice (2001) study was to determine whether transformational and transactional leadership differ on the basis of gender within the school administrative population in Delaware. The results indicated that there were no gender differences in the perception of leadership styles as measured by the MLQ. However, women scored higher than men on the transformational factors of charisma and individualized consideration. The result indicated that significant differences did appear from the univariate analysis in extra effort and inspiration. Cross gender ratings demonstrated that scores varied with the gender of the leader in terms of organizational outcomes; however, women scored higher than men in each of the transformational factors except intellectual stimulation. Women received lower scores than men in management by exception.

Barbuto, et al. (2007) in their study discovered that men favour transformation, inspirational appeal, idealized influence, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration behavior than women. Women on the other hand favour leader considerateness (relationship-oriented behavior). But generally they discovered that men and women did not differ much in organizational settings. The result of this study stands to support those who claimed that the leadership styles of men and women leaders are not gender based but rather that many factors can contribute to the leadership style employed by males or females leaders. This is true considering the fact that many of the researches done have indicated that women score higher in transformational leadership than the male leaders. This result may have been influenced by the context in which the study was conducted. It has been found that the male leaders who work in a gender neutral environment show no differences in their leadership styles. On the other hand women who work in a male dominated company tend to adopt the leadership style ascribed to men for fear of being referred to as weak leaders.

Women score higher in providing rewards for subordinate performance and men score higher in focusing on the subordinate's mistakes and failures and wait until problems are severe before intervening (Foti, et al. 2004). The study also indicates that men's score higher in all the subscale of transactional leadership style. The result is suggested that men leadership style is more of transactional and women transformational, thereby supporting the study done

by this well-known researcher Eagle, et al. (2003) among others. Cuadrado, et al. (2008) cites that transformational leadership has "communal" aspects, especially the factor "individualized consideration," which make it a style more aligned women. Individualized consideration refers to the leader's capacity to pay personal attention to all the team members or all employees, making them feel that their individual contribution is important. Transformational leadership can be considered a "female" style, because of the emphasis on individualized consideration to subordinates (which is related to characteristics stereotypically attributed to women). Cuadrado, et al. (2008) and many authors explicitly refer to this style as a female leadership style"

Nishiyama (2006) in her study of Japanese managers, examined if there is any gender difference in their emotional intelligence and leadership styles. She found out that Japanese women score relatively higher in transactional leadership style and lower in emotional recognition expression than their male counterparts. He found out that no significant gender differences were found in transformational leadership style. One of the major reasons behind this result may have come about because in Japan just like in other Asian women struggle to prove that they are capable of being a leader. Because they were stereotypically described as incapable of handling leadership responsibilities and as a result when these women found themselves in leadership positions they tended to do much more to prove themselves. These women very often adopt the leadership style traditionally ascribed to men to avoid label of weak and incompetent, or to avoid general negative feedbacks from their subordinates' lot who are men according to (Nishiyama, 2006).

Bass (1985) and Reichanadter, (2009) contend that there are no differences in the leadership style of male and female leaders. This study was made to examine transformational leadership and the perceptions of male and female middle or junior high school principals and teachers regarding mandated school reform within the state of Indiana. It was discovered that there were no significant differences in the perception of transformational leadership characteristics between male and female principals and male and female teachers. Gender did not have an effect on the perceptions of transformational leadership in regard to mandated school reform.

2.8.3. <u>Task Oriented versus Relationship oriented:</u>

There have been a few researchers suggesting that there are really differences in the leadership styles of men and women as regards to task oriented style of leadership; others pointed out that there are marginal differences in relationship oriented, which women generally are believed to be more people oriented than men in their leadership style.

Berry (2008) suggests that men score higher at task focus and are more comfortable with getting the job done rather than bothering too much with relationships. He argues that men are driven by profits, budgets and financial opportunities, while he pointed out that Females leaders are more concerned about peoples' skills, like interpersonal sensitivity and affiliation. If you are looking to establish emotional connections with stakeholders for longevity of relationships, then females have an advantage, he pointed out.

Schyns, et al. (2005) argued that transformational leadership or relationship oriented style of leadership is one part of successful leadership and at the same time emphasise that women are more nurturing, considerate, and caring, which may be giving women a possible advantage when it comes to establishing relationship with followers. He further pointed out that according to social role theory communal behaviour such as transformational leadership are less opposed to the female role than other type of leadership (e.g. authoritarian leadership).

Swan, (2005) suggested that male leaders demonstrate fine levels of empathy, flexibility, sociability, and urgency (a need to get things done immediately), but her study revealed that women leaders scored significantly higher in these areas than the men. Swan, (2005) pointed out that the women leadership styles are more inclusive then the male counterparts. This is as a result of the women's ability to listen, share and learn which they imbibed from their role as mothers and caregivers. The simplest way for a leader to learn is by listening to their employees and other stakeholders. Women do better (Swan, 2005) because they have that capacity to listen more than men and they were able to learn through others, whereas many of men leaders may not have the endurance to listen to others. The result of the study also shows that female leaders score higher in taking risk; this probably shows that women leaders in the study have more need to get thing done than their male counterpart. This finding is rather unusual, as women have been regarded to be more risk averse than men in their approach towards situations.

Kelley (1997) study indicates that women's leadership styles tend to employ a partnership form; a way to structure human relationships based upon linking. He also pointed out that Sociological studies indicate that female management styles differ significantly from those of men; women are less hierarchical and prefer structures that are that not pyramids in form. Finally, he hinted that female leaders tend to place more emphasis on connectivity and consensus. Organisations led by women seem to be organised differently to encompass the connectivity and closeness women prefer.

Powell (1993) pointed out that men and women leaders respond differently in their response towards the performance of their subordinates according to him men respond to norms of equity by punishing those who performed poorly because of lack of an effort and offer training to subordinates who performed poorly because of ability. Women on the other hand tend to be less punitive and more supportive. These differences may be attributed to the fact that men are socialised to value achievement, performance, and a contribution to team accomplishment. Women on the other hand are socialised to minimise status difference and to strive for group harmony.

Gardiner, et al. (1999) found that women and men did not differ much in interpersonal orientation, but found out that in female dominated industries women were found to be more interpersonal oriented than men. On the other hand in male dominated industries (numerically) women in that industry were found to experience pressure to alter their leadership style. This problem may arise because of fear of been regarded as weak or judged negatively by men and in order not to lose authority and position. They found out that women lead in a stereotypically feminine manner in general, (women are democratic and have an interpersonal relationship).

Oshagbemi, et al. (2003) in their studies found that women were considered be more democratic and relationship-oriented, because the "communal" dimension as characterized by aspects such as being concerned with others, being generous, sensitive, understanding, affectionate, or compassionate (Cuadrad, 2008). As organisational leaders, women tend to place greater emphasis on caring and nurturing relationships with employees. 'Female leaders arouse a different reaction to a male leader because of learned expectations, shaped and

supported by the surrounding social structure, that nullify and weaken women's efforts to be effective, influential, and powerful (Oshagbemi, et al. 2003).

Decker (1991) in his study of evaluation of the leadership style and gender discovered that male managers displaying initiating structure (leadership – on task) were rated more favourably than females. This result indicated that initiating structure or task oriented leadership was seen as the leadership style appropriate for men leaders. The study rated women leaders higher on building interpersonal relationships. Also men leaders were rated more favourably when they use a more directive and authoritarian style of leadership than when used by women. Rewarding good performance was rated a more effective style for males. This result generally indicated that gender stereotypes may have lessened over the years but it is still very much influencing people's perception of the leadership style of men and women.

Eagle, et al. (1990) in their research found that women were more task oriented than men in male dominated industries. But in female dominated industries women and men were equally task-oriented. This because if women exhibit some of the traits or characteristic associated with strong leadership, they may be perceived negatively because they have stepped outside their socially defined role.

Gutierrez (2008) pointed out that many women have the leadership styles that have been described as 'empowering leadership' or 'consensual leadership', where they build leadership structures that share responsibilities according to the 'best fit', and in doing so, often create new types of leadership. Gutierrez (2009) cited Ayesha Kajee as saying that "since women also tend to discuss problems more openly and utilise 'group-think' to seek solutions, such solutions are often more acceptable to teams. Some have described these as inherently female ways of interacting, but these styles can and should be learnt by both men and women leaders." Charllate (2008) said that women are more likely to adopt a collaborative style of leadership and are more comfortable with it.

2.9. <u>Conclusion</u>:

The American Psychological Association (2006) argues that despite these trends, psychologists caution against concluding that women or men have some sort of natural or innate management style. Some men will have more "feminine" management styles; some women will have more "masculine" management styles. In the meantime, both women and men would do well to remember that gender-based bias can help or hinder not only themselves personally, but their organization as well. Judging someone on the basis of gender, given the findings of overall equal managerial ability, not only denies opportunity to talented individuals but also dries up the management talent pool and hinders organizational development or survival.

Oshagbemi in her study indicated that the some of her respondents argued that their leadership style came to them naturally. This finding runs contrary to the number of factors that researchers and academia have indicated to be the reason behind why men and women lead differently. Her findings tend to conform to those who claimed that leadership style differences in male and females are as a result of biological differences in males and females.

Chapter 3

3. Research Methodology and Design:

3.1. Introduction''

This study was planned in a way that it allowed the researcher to determine the perception of leadership style of males and females leaders among the level one and two of MBA students of University of Kwazulu Natal (UKZN). The main idea of the study was to establish if there is a significant difference in the leadership style of men and women and we hope the study will provide significant insight in a new context e.g. Africa. The research was designed to include the view or the perception of those in different leadership categories, for example the line managers, the middle-managers and the senior managers. This decision was taken bearing in mind the limited number of those in leadership positions among the MBA classes. To make sure we find a reasonable number of participants we decided to include all those with leadership experience irrespective of the level of leadership in which they served.

The outcome of the study will offer a satisfactory explanation of the nature of the leadership style of men and women in those organizations that are serious about inclusion or promotion of women in the leadership position in their organisation. The study will provide strategic options to organizations hiring procedures as the study will help to provide the leadership behaviours and styles of men and women leaders as they are found in African context as never before.

As there many factors that influence people behaviours and consequently their different leadership style, therefore, the following variables were investigated against the dependent variable the perception of leadership style of men and women.

- Male and female leaders
- Married male and female versus unmarried male and female (leader with family versus leaders without a family)
- Leaders who spend more hours watching TV versus those who spend less hours
- Leaders who had an Orthodox religious orientation versus those who have modern Pentecostal orientation

- Leaders who have spent more years studying in higher institution versus leaders who have spent less years in a higher institution
- Young leaders versus old leaders

3.2. **Problem Statement**

Many women are now occupying higher posts in both medium and multinational companies around the world as we have discussed above that actually has created some amount of curiosity for many people wanting to know how men and women lead and whether there are differences in the style both categories (men and women) of leaders (Daft, 2008). There are indications that more women will be taking the highest position in organisations in the future as more of them are taking higher studies in the MBA programme and other business related studies (Sekaran, et al. 1992). Moreover, the aspirations of women have changed drastically and they demand to be included in the running of affairs especially in the affairs that concern them (Watson, et al. 2004). Some studies done in the past have indicated that there are differences in leadership styles between both genders and more have also been carried to determine why there are differences in leadership behaviours and styles; hence we want to identify those variables that affect the behaviours of men and women differently.

The data available indicates men and women tend to lead in different ways and make different contributions to the organization. Each style contributes to diversity offering unique capabilities essential to holistic organizational effectiveness. With the understanding that gender may, in fact, play a big role in leadership style, a review of the leadership style of male and female leaders current experts consider essential to highly effective organizations and comparison of the styles is in order.

3.3. **Objective**

The main aim here is to identify the different self-perceptions of leadership style exhibited by males and females leaders by using our questionnaires to evaluate the gender differences in leadership behaviours against the following variables:

- Family orientation of women and men
- Religious affiliation
- Media influence
- Education experience

- Age

3.4. <u>**Hypotheses**</u>

There is seven hypothesis generated with some sub-hypotheses as outlined low.

1. There is a significant difference in the self-perception of the leadership styles and behaviour of males and females business leaders based on gender.

   (1.a.) Male leaders will significantly exhibit a more autocratic leadership style than the female leaders.

   (1.b) Female leaders will significantly exhibit a more democratic leader style than their male counterpart.

   (1.c) Male leaders will significantly exhibit a more laissez faire of leadership than the female leaders.

   (1.d) Female leaders will significantly exhibit a more transformational leadership style than their male counterparts.

   (1e) Male leaders will significantly exhibit a more transactional leadership than the female leaders.

   (1.f) Male leaders will significantly exhibit a more intellectual stimulating leadership behaviour than the female leaders.

   (1.g) Female leaders will significantly exhibit a more individualised consideration leadership behaviour than the male leaders.

   (1.h) Male leaders will significantly demonstrate a more charisma leadership behaviour than the female leaders.

   (1.i) Female leaders will significantly exhibit a more inspirational motivational leadership behaviour than the male leaders.

   (1.j) Male leaders will significantly exhibit a more contingent reward leadership than the female leaders.

   (1.k) Male leaders will significantly exhibit a more management by exemption leadership behaviour than the female leaders.

(1.l) Female leaders will exhibit a more relationship oriented leaders leadership behaviour than the male leaders.

(1.m) Male leaders will exhibit a more task oriented leadership behaviour than the female.

2. Leaders who are married are more likely to exhibit traditional leadership style ascribed to male and women leaders than those who are single (example, married male leaders will exhibit a more (2.a) autocratic leadership, (2.b) transactional and (2.c) task oriented leadership than the married female leaders; while married female leaders will exhibit a more (2.e) democratic, (2.f) transformational and (2.g) relationship oriented leadership than the male leaders.

3. There is a significant difference in the leadership style of male and female leaders based on the years spent in the higher institution (Educational experiences). The more years male and female leaders spent in the higher institution the similar their leadership style.

4. There is a significant difference in the leadership style of men and women leaders who were raised in the orthodox Christian religions than those raised in non-Christian religion (there will be no difference for Christians men and women, but there will be difference for non Christian men and women).

5. There is a significant different between men and women leaders who spent more than 5 hours watching TV than those who spent 4 hours or less watching TV; (men who watch more TV are more likely to be (7.a) autocratic, (7.b) transactional, (7.c) task oriented, (7.d) contingent reward behaviour, (7.e) management by exemption, (7.f) delegate, than their female counterparts. and on the other hand female who watch more TV will be more (7.g) transformational, (7.h) participative, (i) relationship oriented, (j) charisma, and individual consideration than those who don't).

6. There is a significant difference between the self-perception of leadership style of male and female business leaders based on age.

7. There is a significant difference in female and male leaders on self perception of the leadership style and behaviour based on race. (a) White male and female will have similar leadership style for all the variables, (b) Asians and African male leaders will be more authoritarian, task oriented; African and females leaders are more likely to be relationship oriented, charisma and transformational leadership oriented.

3.5.   <u>Data Collection:</u>

The data was collected over a period of two weeks due to the nature of the case study and the time constrains that are partly influenced by the university guidelines and requirements in relation to completion of dissertations. The sources of our secondary data were the Internet, Journals (e-journals and printed journals), text books, newspapers, related articles, theses and dissertations. As has already been said above the sources of primary data collection was the MBA students of UKZN, who are in leadership positions in their various companies.

3.5.1. Pilot Study:

This pilot study was conducted using a convenience sampling method. The data was collected using MBA students who were available at the lectures and were willing to participate in the study. The study was formulated in order to help the researcher better understand the influence of gender role socialisation and its impacts on the leadership styles of men and women leaders. The research was conducted using questions that enabled a well-designed and cost-effective study

A pilot study technique specifically refers to a smaller scale version of the research (Cooper, et al 2008; Saunders, et al 2009, p.409) whereby a few number of participants were sampled. In this study we used a small number of participants (50 in total) who were in leadership positions in their organisations to test the perception of gender role socialisation and its impact on the leadership style of men and women leaders.

In a pilot research random sampling method was never used, consequently there is a likelihood of bias in the result obtained using this method (Cooper, et al 2008; Saunders, et al 2009, p.409). However, this method is often the only feasible option in some studies like this one where student researchers or others are confronted with restricted time and resources. The result obtained using this method can legitimately be used provided its limitations are clearly understood and stated. (Cooper, et al 2008; Saunders, et al 2009, p.409).

Some of the advantages of convenience sampling are that it is cheap, the participants are willing and are available to participate in the study. The disadvantage is that this sampling method is likely to be unrepresentative of the population as a whole and the result is considered biased as mentioned above (Cooper, et al 2008; Saunders, et al 2009). For example, in this study where we used leaders doing the MBA course as a substitute for all

leaders it is likely to have biased the sample, as a result subsequent generalisations are likely to be at best defective (Saunders, et al 2009, p.235).

3.5.2.   . Quantitative Research:

The data of this study was analysed quantitatively. Quantitative is empirical in nature, which makes use of deductive reasoning to arrive at a conclusion. The quantitative research emphasise objectivity, measurement, reliability and validity, furthermore, it rely heavily on statistics and figures. It is considered highly effective for conducting scientific research (Public Health Institute, Centres for Civic Partnerships, 2007; Saunders, et al 2009).

3.5.2.i.   Limitations of Quantitative Research:

Accessing related secondary data is difficult, sometimes even impossible. Data may not be robust enough to explain complex issues.

"It fails to take account of people's unique ability to interpret their experiences, construct their own meanings and act on these" (Hughes, 2009).

Sometimes quantitative research produces dull and unimportant results of little significance due to the restriction on and the controlling of variables (Hughes, 2009).

It does not take into account people's distinctive capability to interpret their experiences, make their own meanings and act on these (Hughes, 2009).

"It leads to the assumption that facts are true and the same for all people all the time" (Hughes, 2009).

Despite the above mentioned disadvantages we chose quantitative research for this study over against qualitative research because of the following advantages mentioned below.

3.5.2.ii.   Advantages Qualitative Research:

Quantitative research study is known as the best approach to scientific research. It is objective in nature and offers accurate measurement and analysis. Qualitative approach on the other hand is subjective and utilizes language and description. The results sometimes cannot be generalised as a result (Public Health Institute, Centre for Civic Partnerships, 2007).

Quantitative data is relatively easy to analyse, can be very consistent, precise, and reliable, unlike qualitative research which is more difficult to analyse (Public Health Institute, Centre for Civic Partnerships, 2007).

Quantitative research method was used for this study because it is cost effective, whereas qualitative research is usually time consuming and costly (Public Health Institute, Centre for Civic Partnerships, 2007). Furthermore, qualitative research is harder and more stressful to conduct (Hughes, 2009).

"In qualitative research, contexts, situations, events, conditions and interactions cannot be replicated to any extent nor can generalisations be made to a wider context than the one studied with any confidence" (Hughes, 2009). In quantitative research the items mentioned above can be replicated and the result can be generalised.

3.5.3. **Population of the Study:**

Definitions: The term "**target population**" is commonly used to refer to the group of people or entities to which the findings of the sample are to be generalized (Villeneuve, 2009). In this case it will be all the registered MBA students of UKZN in Westville Campus only. The "sampling frame" will be the registered MBA students' in the Graduate School of Business. The sampling size was projected to be about 80 respondents. The total number of the MBA students at the university is 150 students and 75 students for first year and second students respectively but not all were in a leadership positions. But the total number who responded was 50 respondents.

3.5.4. **Research Procedure:**

A pilot research (study) was conducted to obtain data from a subset of a population, in order to estimate population attributes. The normal channels of command and control was utilised to ensure that the required protocol was adhered to and that there would not be an unnecessary resistance to the research. The questionnaire was physically distributed to the respondents and a brief note explaining the purpose of the study. The respondents were informed about their rights and duties. They were informed that participation is voluntary,

and only completed questionnaires will be used. Respondents were requested to sign the informed consent document attached.

3.5.5. <u>Sampling Technique:</u>

The data was collected using the quota and convenience sampling methods. The researcher met the students before lectures and after lectures and those who were willing was used. And for quota sampling approximately 50% of the first and second year of MBA students will be sampled.

3.5.6. <u>Measuring instrument (Questionnaires):</u>

The questionnaire was adapted based on the previous studies done on a similar topic. It was adapted to incorporate one dependent variable: perceptions of the leadership style of men and women managers and the independent variables (e.g., family orientation, media influence, educational experiences, and religion affiliation) and the biographical variables (e.g. age, gender, marital status, and race). Each item clearly requires the respondents to make a value decision on how he/she felt about that specific item according to a prescribed response scale.

3.5.7. <u>The Response Scale</u>

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) was used which was developed by Meyers (2008). The survey was a comprehensive assessment with 46 items (excluding the biographical section of the questionnaire) that measure a full range of leadership behaviours. The MLQ has been repeatedly validated by leadership experts online for years; as result should be a strong predictive of leader performance.

The MLQ measures leadership styles, and designates behaviours ranging from transactional leadership to transformational leadership, including laissez-faire leadership and democratic and autocratic. The reliability of the MLQ was test for each leadership factor the result is stated below.

The MLQ measures individual leadership styles as being transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire, democratic and autocratic as well as scales of leadership. The MLQ was utilized to measure the elements or scales of transformational and transactional leadership of the leaders self assessment of their own leadership styles.

The MLQ scale measured the characteristics, or behaviours of leaders. These characteristics include: Individualized Consideration; Intellectual Stimulation; Inspirational Motivation; Idealized Influence (attributed); and Idealized Influence (behaviour) associated with Transformational Leadership; Contingent Reward; and Management by Exception (active); associated with Transactional Leadership; Management-by-Exception (passive); and laissez faire; an inactive form of leadership characterized by a reluctance to become actively involved and a view that the best leadership is to disassociate from the action known as laissez-faire leadership.

3.5.8. <u>Validity:</u>

To be sure of the validity of the measuring instrument, the study adopted already used questionnaires because the validity and reliability has been tested and confirmed. The validity was further verified through prior discussion of the questionnaire with others and my supervisor. In other words other people were asked to assess whether each measurement question in the questionnaire is essential or not based on the topic.

3.6. <u>Questionnaire:</u>

Question 1:

The question helps the researcher to determine the number of the respondents who successfully completed the questionnaires which is very important when making inferences. Moreover, it is also a very important question because the main issue of the research centered on the difference between male and females leaders.

Question 2

Family life orientation plays a very important role in the study, because marriage is part of the major socialization of male and female roles in the family. The husband and wife are ascribed to different roles and are expected to live that way. The gender role orientations started in childhood in the family culminates in marriage. This question enables us to determine the effect family gender role orientation has on the self-perception leadership of male and female leaders.

Question 3

The age of the respondent is very important because we believe that different age groups received a slightly different gender role orientation; the purpose of the question then is to

establish whether different age groups among female and male leaders display different self-perception of the leadership styles.

Question 4 and 5

Education play a role in the research, because education is a major source of gender role orientation and it has been established that female leaders who have spent more time with men in the higher institutions tend to exhibit the same type of leadership style ascribed to men. The purpose of the questions is to establish if male and female leaders who have spent more years in a higher institution display the same leadership style.

Question 6

This question serves to give greater insight into the category of the respondents.

Question 7 and 8

Religion is one of the major sources of gender role orientation. The two questions help us to determine the effect of religious affiliation has on the self-perception of leadership style of male and female leaders. We tried to determine whether those raised as Christians and those raised in other religions differ in their leadership style.

Question 9

Media is the most influential gender role orientation in the world in general and South Africa in particular. The purpose of this particular question is to determine whether male and female leaders who spend more time watching TV Ads for example exhibit different leadership styles.

Question 10

This demography gives greater insight into the category of the respondents.

Section 2

Questions 1, 4, 7, 10, 13, 16, 19, 22, 25, 28 dealt with one of the major independent variables in autocratic leadership. The questions try to find out the self perception of the leadership styles of the respondents.

Questions 2, 5, 8, 11, 14, 17, 20, 23, 26 dealt with the democratic style of leadership.

Questions 3, 6, 9, 12, 15, 18, 21 help the researcher to investigate the self perception of laissez faire style of leadership between the male and female respondents.

Questions 31, 33, 35, 37, 39, 41, 42, 43 dealt with the transformational style of leadership.

Questions 32, 34, 36, 38, 40, 44, 45, 46 dealt with transactional leadership.

(Table 16)

Item	Score	Item	Score	Item	Score
1	_____	2	_____	3	_____
4	_____	5	_____	6	_____
7	_____	8	_____	9	_____
10	_____	11	_____	12	_____
13	_____	14	_____	15	_____
16	_____	17	_____	18	_____
19	_____	20	_____	21	_____
22	_____	23	_____	24	_____
25	_____	26	_____	27	_____
28	_____	29	_____	30	_____
TOTAL	_____	TOTAL	_____	TOTAL	_____
	Authoritarian Style **(autocratic)**		Participative Style **(democratic)**		Delegate Style **(laissez faire)**

Item	Score	Item	Score
31	_____	32	_____
33	_____	34	_____
35	_____	36	_____
37	_____	38	_____
39	_____	40	_____
41	_____	44	_____
42	_____	45	_____
43	_____	46	_____
TOTAL		TOTAL	_____
	Transformational		**Transactional**

The specific questions below help the researcher to test the following divisions of transformational and transactional leadership as was stated below:

Transformational leadership (For men and women)
Intellectually stimulating---------questions 35 and 37
Individualized consideration----39 and 41
Charisma ----42 and 43
Motivation --- 31 and 33

Transaction leadership (for men and women)
Contingent reward---32, 34, 44
Management by exemption – 45, 46
Relationship oriented – 40 and 38
Task oriented --- 36

3.7.   Data (Statistical) analysis Methods of data Analysis:

3.7.1. Statistical methodology and results

SPSS version 15.0 (SPSS Inc., Chicago, Illinois, USA) was used for analysis of data. A p value of <0.05 was considered as statistically significant.

Descriptive statistics involved the use of frequency tables in the case of categorical variables. Tables 18-24 reflect the percentage of respondents in the different categories for each question.

Measures of central tendency and dispersion were calculated for the dimensions (Tables 16-17). The dimensions were derived by adding together the scores for the items in the dimensions and dividing by the number of items. This was done so that the mean values would be reflected on the 5-point scale. Mean values above 3 would indicate that respondents selected mainly, frequently or almost always true for the items relating to the dimension. Std Deviation values less than 1 indicate a small degree of dispersion about the mean (in other words there is a small degree of deviation amongst respondents)

3.7.2. Reliability:

Cronbach's alpha was computed to determine reliability of the data. Cronbach alpha values were computed for each set of questions relating to the different dimensions of the leadership style. Values of Cronbach alpha that are 0.7 or higher indicate a high degree of

intercorrelation amongst the items and confirm that the items relate to a common construct. While, in general, the reliabilities less than .6 are considered to be poor.

For this study the Cronbach's Alpha for the ten questions for autocratic (authoritarian) style of leadership was .604, the reliability for Democratic (participative) style of leadership dimensions was .762, for Laissez Faire (delegate) style the Cronbach Alpha was .658, and for transformational leadership the reliability score was .718 for the eight questions and the reliability for the transactional leadership style was .449. The Cronbach's Alpha for individual questions please see the appendix. Thus, the internal consistency reliability of the measure used in this study can be considered to be acceptable except for the transactional leadership style.

3.7.3. <u>Test for Normality:</u>

The Kolmogorov test was used to determine whether data follows a normal (bell curve) distribution. Where data follow a normal distribution, then parametric tests (ANOVA and Independent samples T-test) was computed. Where the data did not follow a normal distribution or the sample sizes are small, then non-parametric equivalents of the anova and t-test was computed. Basically, this test helps to determine which type of t test and anova to use. These equivalent tests are the Mann-Whitney t test and Kruskal-Wallis anova.

For this study, only a few of the dimensions did not follow a normal distribution and the parametric and non-parametric results were similar for these dimensions. The results of the One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test reflect that the sub-dimension of the transformational, (intellectually Stimulating, Individualized Consideration, Motivation and Task Oriented) do not follow a normal distribution. The results of the Non-parametric tests for these dimensions were similar to the parametric tests, so only the results of the parametric anova and t-test are included in this report.

3.7.4. <u>Mann-Whitney T Test</u>

The non-parametric t-tests were computed to determine differences in means between male and female respondents within each category. The Mann-Whitney t-test was used because of small sample sizes for each category.

3.7.5. <u>T Test:</u>

Independent samples t-test were computed to determine differences in means.

3.7.6. <u>Analysis of variance (Anova):</u>

Anova were computed to determine differences in means.

3.7.7. <u>Pearson Correlation:</u>

Pearson correlation was computed to determine the linear relationships between the different leadership style and dimensions.

Chapter 4

4.1. Introduction:

This chapter intends to present the quantitative findings of the various perceptions of the leadership styles of men and women in our study in a sequential manner. The non-parametric t-tests were computed to determine differences in means between male and female respondents within each category. The Mann-Whitney t-test was used because of small sample sizes for each category. This chapter uses tables and figures to present the findings in this chapter in a simple approach, which makes it easy to understand.

4.2. Qualitative Result

Figure 1: The Gender
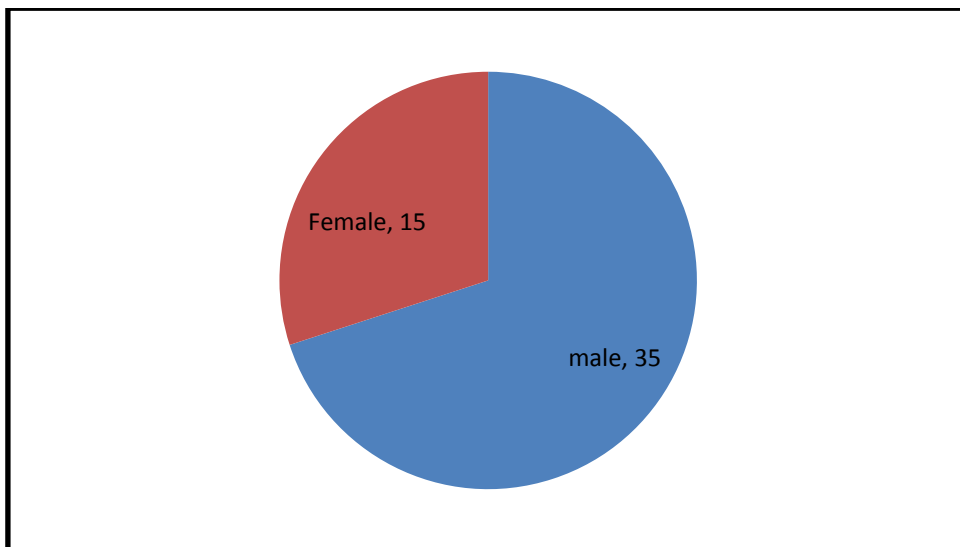
There are 50 respondents in total and among them are 35 males who made up of 70% of the total number of the respondents, while female leaders among them are 15 in number and made up of 30% of the respondents.

Figure 2: The Marital Status

Marital status

Married ■ Never married ■ Living with a partner ■ Widowed

1 1

14

33
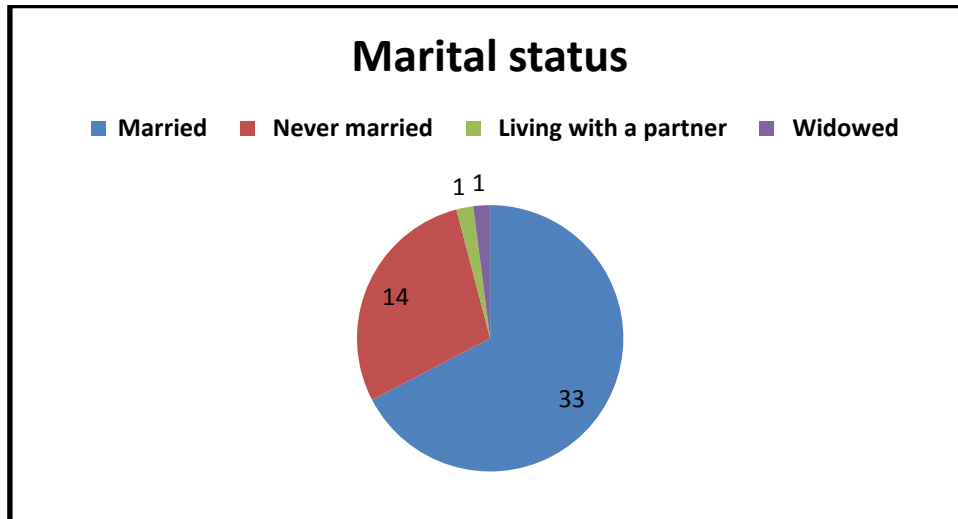
The majority of the respondents are married and they are 33 in number and make up 66% of the respondents, while 14 or 28% of the respondents are never married before and one person or 2% of the respondents is living with a partner and one is widowed and also make up 2% of the respondents.

Figure 3: The Age group

Age groups

2

15

12

10

11

■ 20-25 ■ 26-30 ■ 31-35 ■ 36-40 ■ 41+
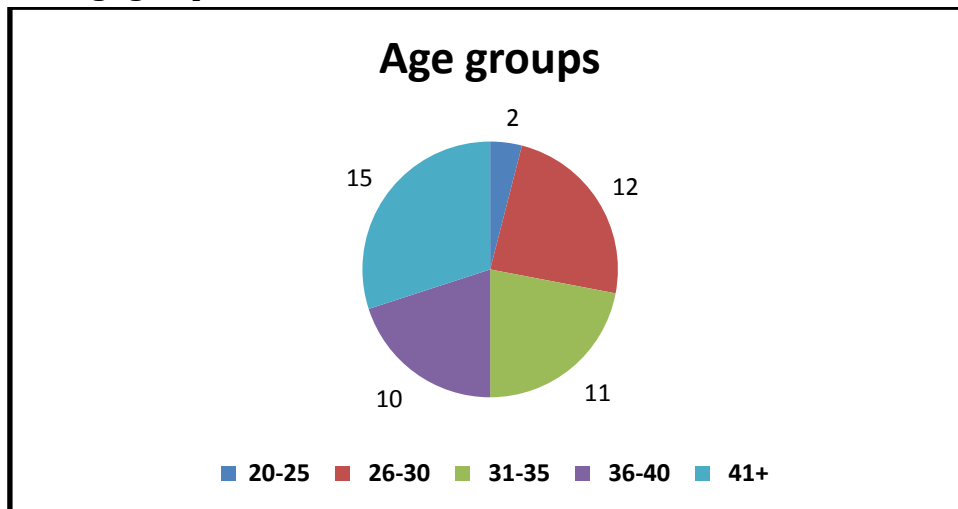
The ages of the respondents are evenly distributed' for instance those between the 26-30 years of age are 12 in number or 24% of the total number of the respondents. Those between the ages of 31-35 yrs are 11 or 22% of the respondents, while those between the ages of 36-40 yrs are 10 and make up 20% of the respondents. But the majority are those who are 41years or more, who are 15 in total and made up of 30% of the total number of the respondents, while those between the ages of 20-25 are just 2 or 4% of the total number.

Figure 4: The Programme, MBA
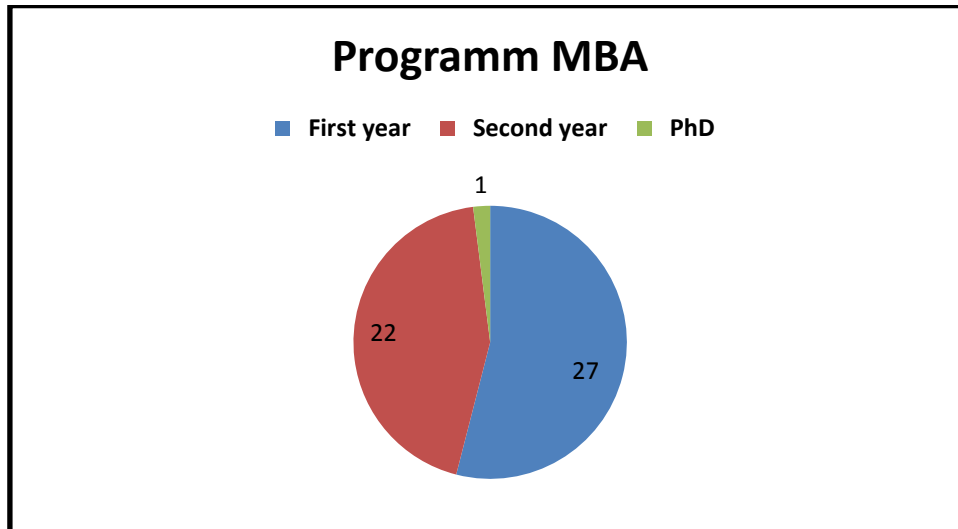
Among the respondents 27 or 54% of the respondents are first year MBA students, while those in second year are 22 and make up 44% of the respondents and only one of the respondents is a PhD student and he make up 2% of the total respondents.

Figure 5: The Years of education
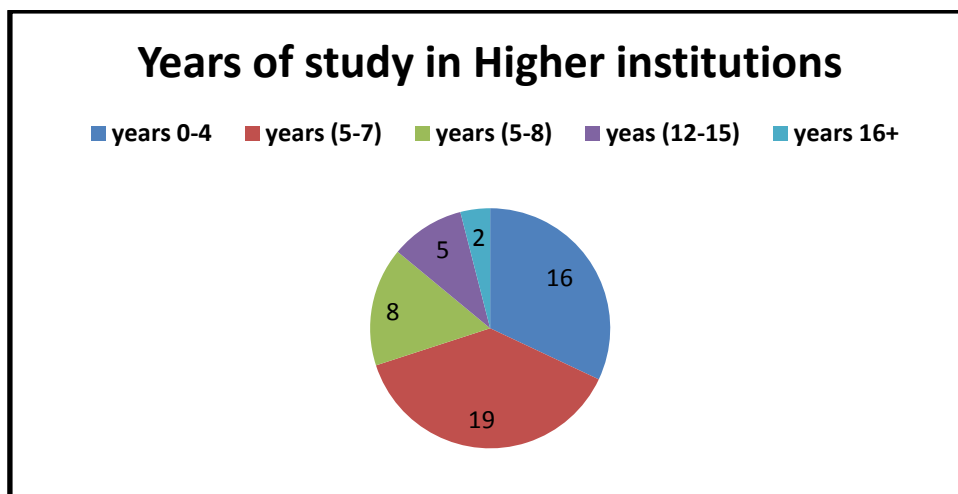
Among the respondents those who have spent up to 1-4 years in the higher institutions are 16 in total and they form 32% of the respondents. However, the majority of the respondents are those who have spent between 5-7 years in the higher institutions and they are 19 in number and made up of 38% of the total respondents. Those have spent 5-7 years are 8 and make up 16% of the respondents. Those who have spent between 12-15 years are 5 and make up 10% of the respondents. While those who have spent more than 16 years in the higher institution are only 2 and only make up 4% of the respondents.

Figure 6: Religion Raised

Religion Raised

- 1
- 2 1
- 14
- 32

Legend:
- African traditional religion
- Christianity
- Hinduism
- Islam
- Other
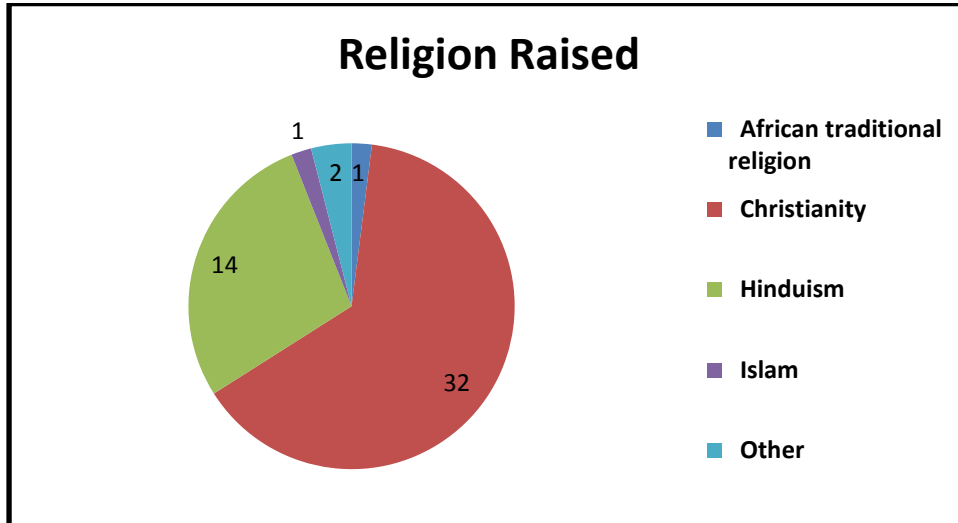
The majority of the respondents are Christians and they are 32 in number and make up 64% of the respondents. The second largest group of the respondents are the Hindus, they are 14 in total and make up 28% of the respondents. Those that belong to Islam and African traditional religion are one each and both make up 4% of the respondents, and others are only 2 in number or 4% of the total respondents.

Figure 7: Denominations

Lutherans, 2   protestants, 3

Baptists, 4

Pentecostals, 6

Mathodists, 6
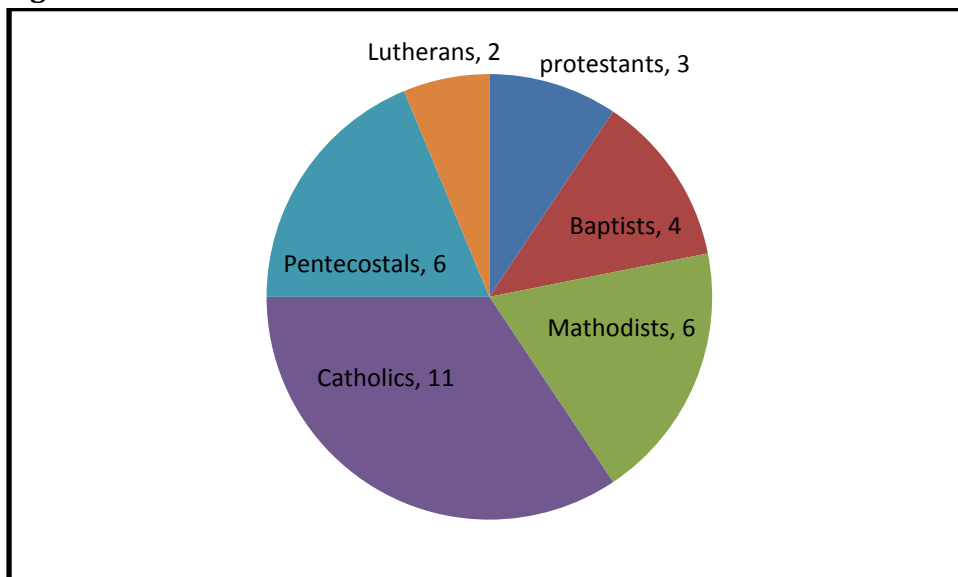
Catholics, 11

Among the Christians, Catholics are the majority and they are 11 in number and make up 34% of the respondents, followed by Pentecostals and Methodists each being 6 numbers and together both make up 38% of the respondents. The Baptists, Protestants, and Lithuanians, have 4, 3 and 2 respectively and together they make up 28% of the total respondents among the Christians.

Figure 8: Religion
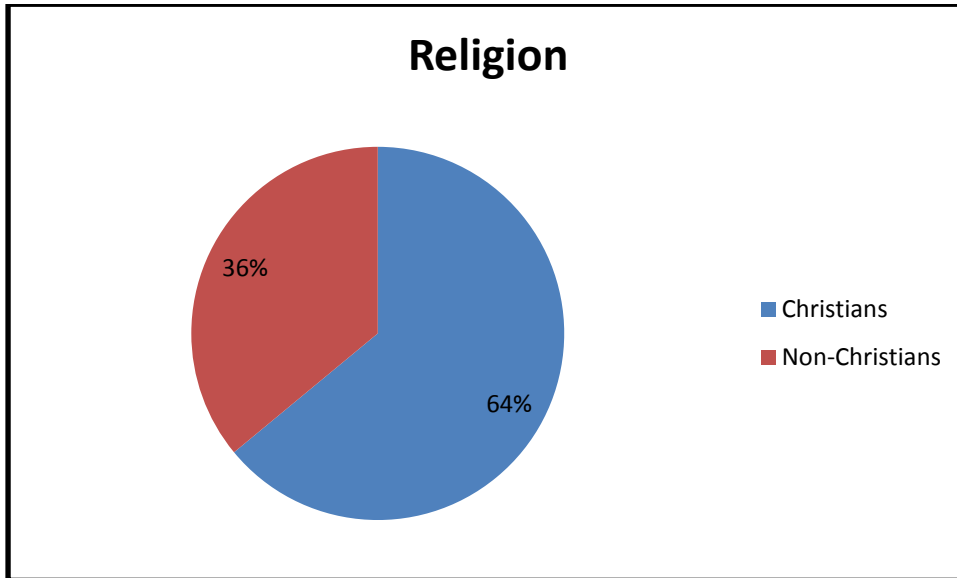
All the Christian put together are 32 in number or 64% of the respondents and non-Christians are 18 in number or 36% of the respondents.

Figure 9: Race
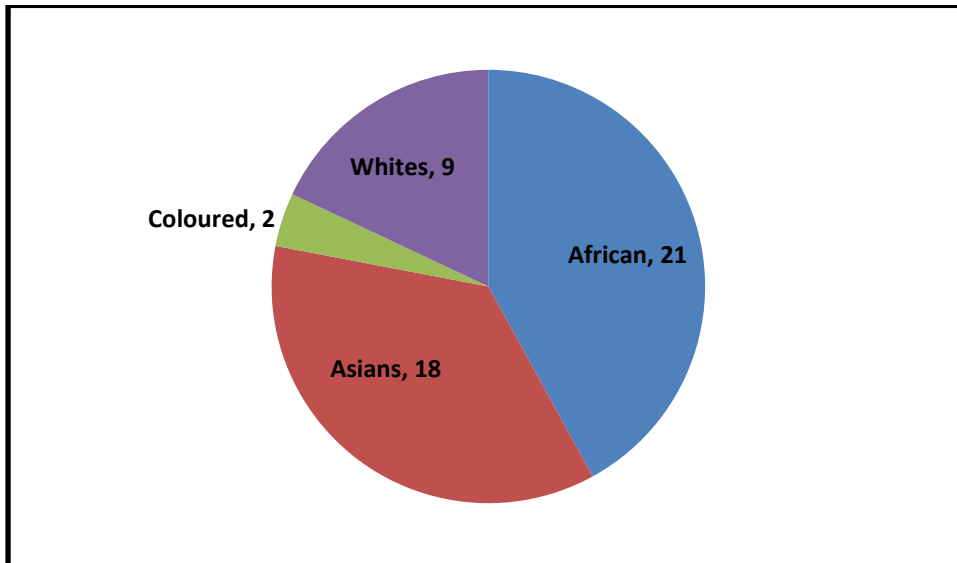
Africans are the majority in number among the respondents; they are 21 in total and make up 42% of the respondents, seconded by the Asians who are 18 in number and they make up 36% of the respondents. The Whites are 9 in number or 18% of the respondents, while the Coloureds are only 2 in number and make only 4% of the respondents

Figure 10: The Number of TV Hours
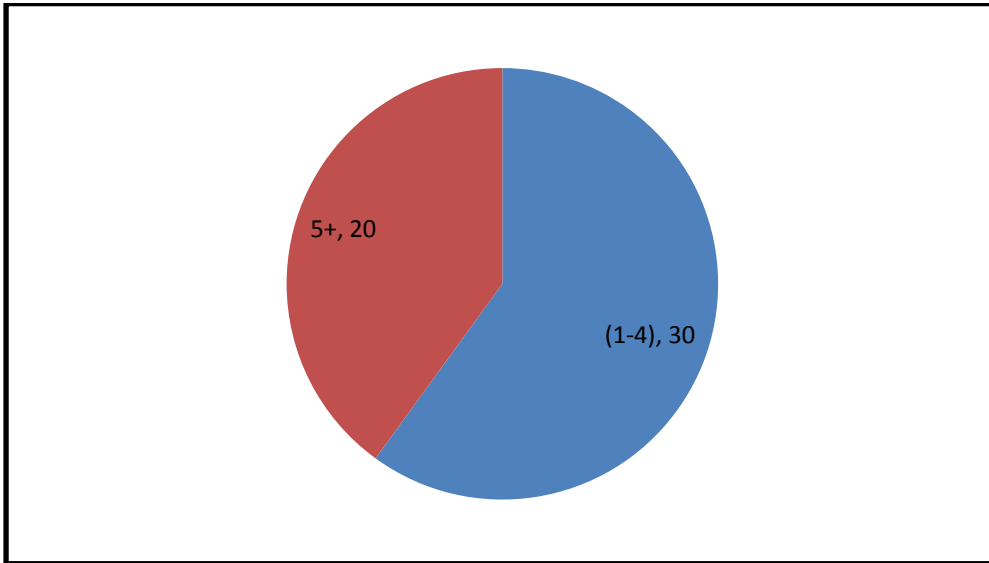
Those who watch TV between 1-4 hours in a day are 30 and they made up 60% of all the respondents and other respondents who watch TV for 5 hours or above are 20 in total and they make up 40% of the respondents.

Figure 11: The Current Leadership Position
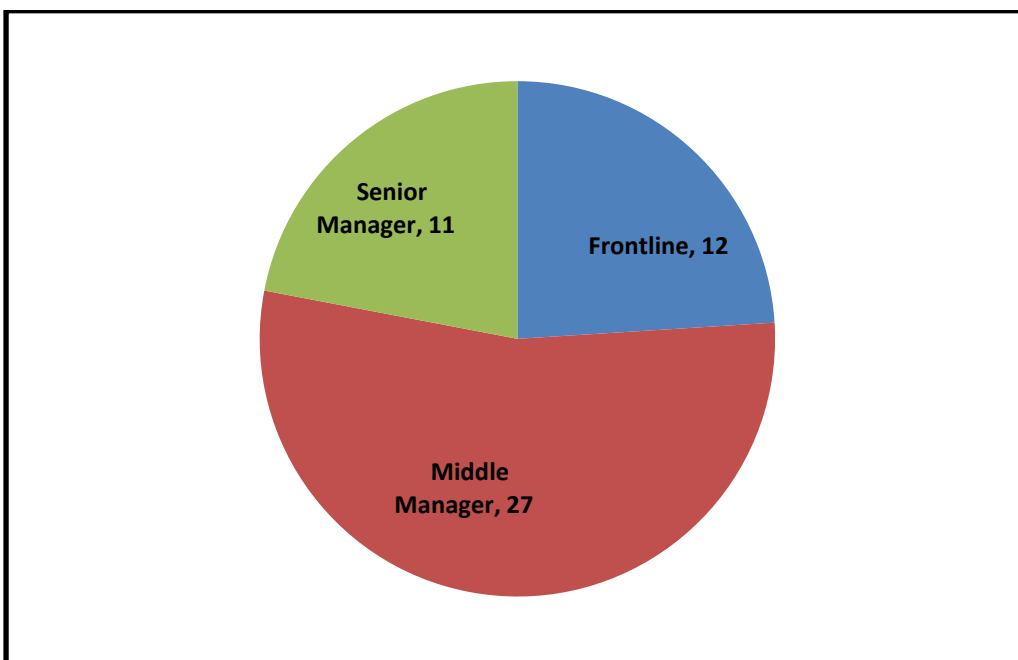
The respondents are made of leaders who held various positions in their respective organisations, and among these groups majority are the middle managers and they are 27 which is 54% of the respondents. The second largest group is the frontline (supervisors) they

are 12 in number or 24% of the respondents and those of them who are senor managers are 11 in number or 22% of the total respondents.

Table 18 : The Authoritarian Style

	Almost never true		Seldom true		Occasionally true		Frequently true		Almost always true	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
L1	0	.0%	7	14.0%	18	36.0%	17	34.0%	8	16.0%
L4	28	56.0%	11	22.0%	3	6.0%	5	10.0%	3	6.0%
L7	3	6.0%	3	6.0%	24	48.0%	15	30.0%	5	10.0%
L10	14	28.0%	11	22.0%	13	26.0%	8	16.0%	4	8.0%
L13	7	14.0%	18	36.0%	16	32.0%	3	6.0%	6	12.0%
L16	7	14.0%	9	18.0%	16	32.0%	13	26.0%	5	10.0%
L19	6	12.0%	7	14.0%	14	28.0%	17	34.0%	6	12.0%
L22	8	16.0%	9	18.0%	18	36.0%	10	20.0%	5	10.0%
L25	22	44.0%	12	24.0%	7	14.0%	7	14.0%	2	4.0%
L28	3	6.0%	4	8.0%	15	30.0%	16	32.0%	12	24.0%

The table 18 above reflects the number of percentage of respondents who responded to each question in this leadership style (authoritarian style). The response to the questions is evenly distributed, however, more people chose occasionally true.

Table 19: The Participative Style

	Almost never true		Seldom true		Occasionally true		Frequently true		Almost always true	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
L2	1	2.0%	1	2.0%	14	28.0%	25	50.0%	9	18.0%
L5	3	6.0%	2	4.0%	7	14.0%	24	48.0%	14	28.0%
L8	0	.0%	16	32.0%	11	22.0%	15	30.0%	8	16.0%
L11	2	4.0%	3	6.0%	6	12.0%	21	42.0%	18	36.0%
L14	3	6.0%	6	12.0%	18	36.0%	17	34.0%	6	12.0%
L17	0	.0%	1	2.0%	17	34.0%	19	38.0%	13	26.0%
L20	2	4.0%	5	10.0%	5	10.0%	28	56.0%	10	20.0%
L23	2	4.0%	3	6.0%	9	18.0%	16	32.0%	20	40.0%
L26	2	4.0%	3	6.0%	11	22.0%	21	42.0%	13	26.0%
L29	2	4.0%	8	16.0%	19	38.0%	17	34.0%	4	8.0%

The table 19 reflects the response to each question for participative leadership style or democratic leadership style. The response to the questions is also fairly evenly distributed, however, more people chose frequently true and almost always true.

Table 20: The Delegate Style

	Almost never true		Seldom true		Occasionally true		Frequently true		Almost always true	
	n	**%**	**n**	**%**	**n**	**%**	**n**	**%**	**n**	**%**
L3	11	22.0%	17	34.0%	10	20.0%	10	20.0%	2	4.0%
L6	7	14.0%	15	30.0%	12	24.0%	12	24.0%	4	8.0%
L9	10	20.0%	13	26.0%	15	30.0%	7	14.0%	5	10.0%
L12	1	2.0%	3	6.0%	18	36.0%	21	42.0%	7	14.0%
L15	5	10.0%	17	34.0%	13	26.0%	11	22.0%	4	8.0%
L18	0	.0%	1	2.0%	16	32.0%	23	46.0%	10	20.0%
L21	4	8.0%	9	18.0%	15	30.0%	13	26.0%	9	18.0%
L24	1	2.0%	4	8.0%	18	36.0%	19	38.0%	8	16.0%
L27	5	10.0%	10	20.0%	21	42.0%	12	24.0%	2	4.0%
L30	3	6.0%	9	18.0%	15	30.0%	15	30.0%	8	16.0%

The table 20 above reflects the response to each of the question for delegate leadership style or laissez faire style of leadership. The response to the questions is fairly evenly distributed, however, more people chose occasionally true and the next to it is frequently true.

Table 21: The Transformational leadership

	Almost never true		Seldom true		Occasionally true		Frequently true		Almost always true	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
L31	1	2.0%	0	.0%	7	14.0%	20	40.0%	22	44.0%
L33	0	.0%	1	2.0%	8	16.0%	24	48.0%	17	34.0%
L35	0	.0%	2	4.0%	5	10.0%	26	52.0%	17	34.0%
L37	0	.0%	1	2.0%	6	12.0%	27	54.0%	16	32.0%
L39	0	.0%	4	8.0%	6	12.0%	24	48.0%	16	32.0%
L41	1	2.0%	0	.0%	5	10.0%	30	60.0%	14	28.0%
L42	1	2.0%	2	4.0%	6	12.0%	25	50.0%	16	32.0%
L43	3	6.0%	5	10.0%	16	32.0%	18	36.0%	8	16.0%

The table 21 above reflects the response to each question for transformational style of leadership. The response to the questions is not evenly distributed; the majority of the respondents chose frequently true and followed by almost always true.

Table 22: The Transaction leadership

	Almost never true		Seldom true		Occasionally true		Frequently true		Almost always true	
	n	%	N	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
L32	0	.0%	0	.0%	10	20.0%	25	50.0%	15	30.0%
L34	1	2.0%	3	6.0%	17	34.0%	14	28.0%	15	30.0%
L36	0	.0%	3	6.0%	8	16.0%	25	50.0%	14	28.0%
L38	2	4.0%	5	10.0%	16	32.0%	18	36.0%	9	18.0%
L40	0	.0%	1	2.0%	16	32.0%	18	36.0%	15	30.0%
L44	2	4.0%	5	10.0%	14	28.0%	21	42.0%	8	16.0%
L45	10	20.0%	10	20.0%	12	24.0%	16	32.0%	2	4.0%
L46	9	18.0%	9	18.0%	11	22.0%	17	34.0%	4	8.0%

The table 22 above reflects the response to each question for transformational style of leadership. The response to the questions is evenly distributed from occasionally true, to frequently true and almost always true.

Table 23: The Descriptive Statistics

Descriptives

		Statistic				
		Authoritarian Style	Participative Style	Delegate Style	Transformational leadership	Transactional leadership
Mean		2.8720	3.7020	3.1380	4.0475	3.5850
95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	2.7177	3.5409	2.9869	3.9089	3.4553
	Upper Bound	3.0263	3.8631	3.2891	4.1861	3.7147
5% Trimmed Mean		2.8844	3.7267	3.1456	4.0681	3.5778
Median		2.8500	3.7500	3.1500	4.0000	3.5000
Variance		.295	.321	.283	.238	.208
Std. Deviation		.54287	.56694	.53180	.48766	.45628
Minimum		1.60	2.00	1.70	2.38	2.63
Maximum		3.80	4.80	4.30	4.88	4.75
Range		2.20	2.80	2.60	2.50	2.13
Interquartile Range		.85	.70	.60	.41	.38
Skewness		-.143	-.749	-.410	-.677	.399
Kurtosis		-.559	.879	.428	1.881	.501

The mean score for authoritarian or autocratic style of leadership is (m=2.872) on a 5-point scale, which is more or less average and is an indication that the majority of the respondents do not often favour the authoritarian leadership style few only seldom apply it. And similarly the delegate which has mean score of (m=3.138) is fairly above average is an indication that respondents occasionally apply this leadership style. While the mean score for participative leadership is (M=3.702) which is above average and is an indicative that a good number of the respondents applied this leadership style occasionally as well, and transactional 3.5 are moderately high which is an indicative that the respondents occasionally use these styles of leadership. While the mean score transformational leadership is 4 which is much above average indicates that the majority of the respondents frequently apply this style of leadership in their various organisations.

Table 24: The Descriptive

Descriptives

		Intellectually stimulating	Individualized consideration	Charisma	Motivation	Contingent reward	Management by exemption	Relationship oriented	Task oriented
								Statistic	
Mean		4.1600	4.0800	3.7600	4.1900	3.8133	2.8800	3.7400	4.0000
95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	3.9965	3.8932	3.5712	3.9872	3.6649	2.5864	3.5325	3.7633
	Upper Bound	4.3235	4.2668	3.9488	4.3928	3.9618	3.1736	3.9475	4.2367
5% Trimmed Mean		4.1778	4.1000	3.7722	4.2444	3.8111	2.8833	3.7500	4.0556
Median		4.0000	4.0000	3.7500	4.2500	3.8333	3.0000	3.5000	4.0000
Variance		.331	.432	.441	.509	.273	1.067	.533	.694
Std. Deviation		.57534	.65745	.66425	.71350	.52234	1.03293	.73011	.83299
Minimum		3.00	2.50	2.00	1.50	2.33	1.00	2.00	2.00
Maximum		5.00	5.00	5.00	5.00	5.00	5.00	5.00	5.00
Range		2.00	2.50	3.00	3.50	2.67	4.00	3.00	3.00
Interquartile Range		.50	.63	.50	.63	.67	1.25	.63	1.00
Skewness		-.166	-.307	-.235	-1.240	-.050	-.272	.164	-.662
Kurtosis		-.392	-.430	.347	2.755	.588	-.600	-.297	.161

Among the leadership dimensions of transactional and transformational leadership styles, the intellectually stimulating average mean score of (m= 4.160), individualized consideration (m=4.08), motivation (m=4.190) and task oriented (m=4.000) are all above average score which is as indication that the majority of the respondents frequently apply these leadership dimensions or behaviours in their organisations. The mean scores of Charisma 3.7, contingency reward 3.8 and relationship oriented which is moderate, an indication that some people just occasionally express such leadership behaviours. The mean score for management by exemption is 2.8 is low, which indicates that a few persons seldom apply this style of leadership behaviour.

Table 25: One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

	N	Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z	p
Authoritarian Style	50	.528	.943
Participative Style	50	.697	.716
Delegate Style	50	.900	.393
Transformational leadership	50	.861	.449
Transactional leadership	50	.982	.290
Intellectually stimulating	50	1.623	.010
Individualized consideration	50	1.496	.023
Charisma	50	1.328	.059
Motivation	50	1.379	.045
Contingent reward	50	.993	.278
Management by exemption	50	1.034	.235
Relationship oriented	50	1.335	.057
Task oriented	50	1.980	.001

The table 25 above shows that only a few of the dimensions did not follow a normal distribution and the parametric and non-parametric results were similar for these dimensions. The results of the One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test reflect that the sub-dimension of the transformational, (intellectually Stimulating, Individualized Consideration, Motivation and Task Oriented) do not follow a normal distribution.

Table 26: Comparison of means between male and female

	Male			Female			Independent samples t-test		
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	p
Authoritarian Style	35	2.909	0.566	15	2.787	0.493	0.724	48	0.473
Participative Style	35	3.671	0.626	15	3.773	0.406	-0.578	48	0.566
Delegate Style	35	3.157	0.567	15	3.093	0.454	0.385	48	0.702
Transformational leadership	35	4.011	0.511	15	4.133	0.432	-0.812	48	0.421
Transactional leadership	35	3.614	0.483	15	3.517	0.395	0.690	48	0.494
Intellectually stimulating	35	4.143	0.589	15	4.200	0.561	-0.319	48	0.751
Individualized consideration	35	4.086	0.670	15	4.067	0.651	0.093	48	0.926
Charisma	35	3.700	0.632	15	3.900	0.737	-0.975	48	0.334
Motivation	35	4.114	0.777	15	4.367	0.516	-1.150	48	0.256
Contingent reward	35	3.829	0.579	15	3.778	0.371	0.312	48	0.756
Management by exemption	35	2.900	1.063	15	2.833	0.994	0.207	48	0.837
Relationship oriented	35	3.771	0.751	15	3.667	0.699	0.461	48	0.647
Task oriented	35	4.086	0.702	15	3.800	1.082	1.114	48	0.271

The results in Table 26 reflect no significant differences between male and female respondents with regards to each of the dimensions at the 95% level (p>0.05). The (–) sign on the "t" column indicates where the average mean score of the female leaders is higher than their male counterparts on the different leadership styles and behaviours, although not at a significant level.

Autocratic/Authoritarian Style: The t-test was conducted to compare the leadership style (Authoritarian style) of men and women leaders. There is no statistically significant (p=0.473) difference in the autocratic leadership style of the female and male leaders. This indicates that

male and female leaders exhibit similar autocratic leadership styles. This argument can further be substantiated by the fact that the difference in mean scores for both male (m=2.909) and female (m=2.787) leaders is negligible. Hence hypothesis 1.1: Male leaders exhibit more autocratic leadership style than the female leaders, was not substantiated; so it is rejected.

Democratic/Participative Leadership Style: There is no statically significant difference (p=0.566) in the democratic leadership style of the female and male leaders. This argument can be substantiated by the fact that the difference in mean score for male (m=3.671) and female (m=3.773) leaders is negligible. This indicates that males and females leaders show a similar democratic leadership style. Hence, hypothesis number 1.b: female leaders exhibit a more democratic leadership style than their male counterparts was not substantiated, therefore, the hypothesis is rejected

Delegate Leadership Style: There is no statistically significant difference (p=0.702) in the delegate leadership style of the female and male leaders, because the p = is above the cut off level. This argument can be substantiated by the fact that the difference in mean scores for male leaders (m=3.157) and the female leaders (m=3.093) is insignificant. This indicates that males and females leaders demonstrate a similar democratic leadership style. As a result the hypothesis 1.c: male leaders exhibit a more laissez faire leadership style than the female leaders was not substantiated; hence the hypothesis is rejected.

Transformational Leadership Style: There is no statistically significant difference (p=0.421) between the transformational leadership of men and women leaders. This also indicated that males and females leaders exhibit a similar transformational leadership style. This argument can be substantiated by the fact that the difference in mean scores for male leaders (m=4.011) and the female leaders (m=4.133) is negligible. This result indicated that the hypothesis 1.d: female leaders exhibit a more transformational leadership style than their male counterparts was not substantiated; therefore, the hypothesis is rejected.

Transactional Leadership: There is no statistically significant difference (p=0.494) in the level transactional leadership style of men and women leaders. This indicates that male and

female leaders demonstrate a similar transactional leadership style. This argument can be proved by the fact that the mean average scores difference for male leaders (m=3.614) and the female leaders (m=3.517) is rather insignificant. Hence, hypothesis 1.e: male leaders exhibit a more transactional leadership style than women leaders was not substantiated, so the hypothesis is rejected.

Intellectually Stimulating: There is no statistically significant difference (p=0.751) in the level of intellectually stimulating leadership behaviour exhibited by men and women leaders. This argument can be proved by the fact that the mean average score difference for male leaders (m=4.143) and the female leaders (m=4.200) is rather negligible. This indicates that male and female leaders demonstrate similar intellectual stimulating leadership characteristic with their subordinates. Hence, hypothesis 1.f: male leaders exhibit more intellectual stimulating leadership behaviour than the female leader was not substantiated, hence, the hypothesis is rejected.

Individualised Consideration: There is no statistically significance difference (p=0.926) in the level of individual consideration of the leadership behaviour of male and female leader. This argument can be substantiated by the fact that the mean average score for male leaders (m=4.086) and the female leaders (m=4.067) is insignificant. Hence, the hypothesis 1.g: female leaders exhibit a more individualised consideration leadership behaviour than the male leaders) was not substantiated, as a result it is rejected.

Charisma/Idealised Influence: There is no statistically significance difference (p=0.333) in the level of charisma/idealised influence leadership behaviour of male and female leaders in dealings with their subordinates. This signifies that male and female leader display a similar charisma when dealing with followers. This argument can be substantiated by the fact that the difference in mean values for male leaders (m=3.700) and the female leaders (m=3.900) is insignificant. Therefore hypothesis 1.h: male leaders demonstrate more charisma leadership behaviour than the female leaders was not substantiated, so it is rejected.

Inspirational Motivation: There is no statistically significant difference (p=0.256) in the level of inspirational motivational leadership behaviour between men and women leaders. This means

that male and female leaders display comparable inspirational motivational characteristics. This argument can be substantiated by the fact that the mean average score for male leaders (m=4.114) and the female leaders (m=4.367) is insignificant. The hypothesis 1.i: female leaders exhibit a more inspirational motivational leadership behaviour than the male leader was not substantiated, thus it is rejected.

Contingent Reward: There is no statistically significant difference (p=0.756) between male and female leaders in their exhibition of contingent reward leadership behaviour. This means that male and female leaders demonstrate a similar contingent reward behaviour when dealing with their employees. This argument can be substantiated by the fact that the mean average score for male leaders (m=3.829) and the female leaders (m=3.778) is insignificant. Thus the hypothesis 1.j: male leaders exhibit a more contingent reward leadership reward than the female leader was not substantiated, therefore the hypothesis is rejected.

Management by Exemption: There is no statistically significant difference (p=.837) in the level of management by exemption leadership behaviour exhibited by men and female leaders. This signifies that male and females leaders show similar management by exemption leadership characteristics. This argument can be substantiated by the fact that the mean average score for male leaders (m=2.900) and the female leaders (m=2.833) is negligible. Hypothesis is 1.k: male leaders will significantly exhibit more of a management by exemption leadership behaviour than the female leaders were not substantiated; hence, the hypothesis is rejected.

Relationship Oriented: There is no statistically significant difference (p=0.647) in the level of relationship oriented leadership behaviour of male and female leaders. This show that male and female leaders exhibit a similar relationship oriented leadership style.This argument can be substantiated by the fact that the mean average score for male leaders (m=2.771) and the female leaders (m=2.833) is small. Hypothesis1.l (female leaders will exhibit a more relationship oriented leaders leadership behaviour than the male leaders) was not substantiated, thus, it is rejected.

Task Oriented Style: There is no statistically significant difference (p=0.271) between male and female leaders in the exhibition of task oriented leadership characteristics. This is an indication that male and female leaders exhibit similar task oriented leadership characteristics.This argument can be substantiated by the fact that the mean average score for male leaders (m=4.086) and the female leaders (m=3.800) is small. Thus, hypothesis 1.m: male leaders exhibit a more task oriented leadership behaviour than the female leaders was not substantiated, hence, it is rejected.

Table 27: Comparison between Married and Not Married

	Married			Not married			Independent Samples T Test		
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	p
Authoritarian Style	33	2.839	0.580	17	2.935	0.473	-0.588	48	0.559
Participative Style	33	3.764	0.596	17	3.582	0.500	1.073	48	0.289
Delegate Style	33	3.067	0.598	17	3.276	0.347	-1.332	48	0.189
Transformational leadership	33	4.053	0.520	17	4.037	0.432	0.111	48	0.912
Transactional leadership	33	3.621	0.419	17	3.515	0.528	0.779	48	0.440

The (–) sign in 't' column is an indication of where married respondents score higher than the unmarried respondents.

The results in Table 27 reflect no significant differences between married and unmarried respondents with regards to each of the dimensions at the 95% level (p>0.05). The categories of never married, living with a partner, Widowed and Other were combined as not married. The p-values for all the categories are all greater than the 0.05 cut off point.

Autocratic/Authoritarian Style: The t-test was conducted to compare the leadership style (Authoritarian style) of men and women leaders. There is no statistically significant difference (p=0.473) in the level of the autocratic leadership style of the married and unmarried leaders. This argument can be substantiated by the fact that the mean value for married leaders (m=2.839)

and the unmarried leaders (m=3.935) is insignificant. This indicates that married and unmarried leaders exhibit a similar autocratic leadership style. Thus hypothesis 2.a was not substantiated, it is rejected.

Democratic/Participative Leadership Style: There is no statically significant difference (p=0.289) in the level of a democratic leadership style of married and unmarried leaders. This argument can be substantiated by the fact that the mean average score for married leaders (m=3.764) and the unmarried leaders (m=3.582) is small. This indicates that married and unmarried leaders show a similar democratic leadership style. Thus hypothesis 2.e was not substantiated, it is rejected.

Delegate Leadership Style: There is no statistically significant difference (p=0.182) in the level of the delegate leadership style of the married and unmarried leaders. This indicates that both married and unmarried leaders exhibit the same level of delegate leadership style. This argument can be substantiated by the fact that the difference in mean scores for married respondents (m=4.067) and unmarried respondents (3.276) leaders is small. Thus hypothesis 2. c was not substantiated, it is rejected.

Transformational Leadership Style: There is no statistically significant difference (p=0.912) between the transformational leadership of men and women leaders. This indicates that both married and unmarried leaders exhibit a similar transformational leadership style. This argument can be substantiated by the small difference between the average mean score for married (m=4.053) and unmarried (m=4.037) leaders. Thus hypothesis 2.f was not substantiated, it is rejected.

Transactional Leadership: There is no statistically significant difference (p=0.440) in the level of the transactional leadership style of married and unmarried leaders. This indicates that both married and unmarried leaders exhibit a similar transactional leadership style. This argument can be substantiated by the minor difference in the average mean score of the married (m=3.621) and the unmarried (3.515) being insignificant. Thus hypothesis 2.b was not substantiated, it is rejected.

Table 28 : Comparison of male and female within the Married and Unmarried groups

| | Marital Status | | | | | |
| | Married | | | Not married | | |
	Mann-Whitney U	Z	p	Mann-Whitney U	Z	p
Authoritarian Style	82.000	-.758	.449	33.500	-.147	.883
Participative Style	99.000	-.042	.966	25.000	-.981	.327
Delegate Style	89.500	-.442	.658	25.500	-.936	.349
Transformational leadership	90.000	-.423	.672	32.000	-.295	.768
Transactional leadership	99.000	-.043	.966	29.500	-.540	.589
Intellectually stimulating	94.000	-.265	.791	31.000	-.416	.677
Individualized consideration	90.000	-.441	.659	26.000	-.908	.364
Charisma	85.500	-.634	.526	23.000	-1.223	.221
Motivation	75.000	-1.081	.280	33.500	-.152	.879
Contingent reward	99.500	-.021	.983	34.500	-.051	.960
Management by exemption	95.000	-.214	.830	29.000	-.596	.551
Relationship oriented	94.000	-.259	.796	30.500	-.452	.651
Task oriented	85.500	-.677	.498	35.000	.000	1.000

Grouping Variable: Gender

A Mann-Whitney test was carried out to determine if there is a difference in the leadership style of married and unmarried female and male leaders based on marital status. The results in the Table 28 above indicate no significant differences in the level of leadership styles between males and females who are married or males and females who are unmarried at the 95% level ($p>0.05$). This is because their various p values are all above the cut off $p=0.05$ for all the leadership dimensions. This argument was further analysed separating each leadership style bearing in mind p values and the level of the z values for each.

The above argument can be sustained by considering the p=values and the z values of all the leadership styles: authoritarian style of married (p=.449, z=-.758) and not married (p=.883, z =-.147); Participative style married (p=.966, z = -.042) and not married (p=.327, z = -.981); Delegate style married (p=.658, z = -.442) and not married (p=349, z =-.936); transformational style (p=.672, z -.432) not married (p=.768, z =-.295); Transactional leadership (p=.966, z = -.043), and not married (p=.589, z = -.540).

For the other leadership behaviours like intellectual stimulating behaviours married (p=.791, z = -.265) not married (p=.677, z = -.416); individual consideration married (p=.659, z =-.441) and not married (p=.364, z -.908); charisma married (p=.526, z =-.634) and not married (p=.221, z -1.223); motivation (p=.28, z =-1.081) and not married (p=.879, z -.152); contingent reward (married (p=.983, z = -.021) and not married (p=.960, z =-.052); management by exemption married (p=. 830, z =-.214) and not married (p=.552, z =-.596); relationship oriented married (p=.796, z = -.259) and not married (p=.651, z = -.452); task oriented married (p=.498, z = -.677) and not married (p=.1.000, z = -.000). As a result of the above report it has been proven that there are no significant difference in the leadership styles of male and female leaders based on marital status, thus the hypothesis 2 Leaders who are married are more likely to exhibit traditional leadership style ascribed to male and women leaders than those who are single (married male leaders are more (a) autocratic, (b) transactional, (c) delegate and (d) task oriented and married female leaders (e) democratic, (f) transformational and (g) relationship oriented) was not substantiated, it is rejected

Table 29: <u>**Comparison between programmes**</u>

	First year			Second year			Independent Samples t Test		
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	p
Authoritarian Style	27	2.737	0.523	22	3.005	0.531	-1.769	47	0.083
Participative Style	27	3.863	0.452	22	3.495	0.646	2.338	47	0.024*
Delegate Style	27	3.174	0.492	22	3.082	0.593	0.595	47	0.555
Transformational leadership	27	4.130	0.377	22	3.943	0.599	1.328	47	0.190
Transactional leadership	27	3.625	0.433	22	3.528	0.497	0.727	47	0.471
Intellectually stimulating	27	4.130	0.598	22	4.182	0.568	-0.311	47	0.757
Individualized consideration	27	4.167	0.588	22	3.977	0.748	0.993	47	0.326
Charisma	27	3.796	0.697	22	3.705	0.648	0.473	47	0.639
Motivation	27	4.426	0.532	22	3.909	0.826	2.650	47	0.011*
Contingent reward	27	3.914	0.552	22	3.712	0.475	1.352	47	0.183
Management by exemption	27	2.889	1.041	22	2.795	1.008	0.317	47	0.753
Relationship oriented	27	3.741	0.656	22	3.750	0.842	-0.043	47	0.966
Task oriented	27	4.000	0.877	22	4.000	0.816	0.000	47	1.000

*significant at 95% level

The first years were 27 in number and the second years were 22 in total and the PhD student was not included in this report. The (-) sign in the 't' column indicates where the mean values for the second year student are insignificantly higher than the first.

The results in Table 29 reflect a significant difference (p=0.024) in mean Participative Style between 1st year and 2nd year respondents at the 95% level (p<0.05). Those in 1st year have a higher level of Participative style than those in 2nd year. This argument can be substantiated by the fact that the mean value of the first years (m=3.863) is higher than the second years (m=3.495). The Table also reflects a statistical significant (p=0.11) difference in mean value for

motivation, those in 2nd year (m=3.909) have a higher level of motivational behaviour than those in 1st year (m=4.426).

There are no significant difference with regards to the other dimensions at the 95% level (p>0.05). This assertion can be proven by considering the individual p value and the mean value for other leadership style; for example, the (p=0.083) and mean average scores for the authoritarian leadership for 1st year (2.73) and 2nd year (3.05) are significant; the same for the following leadership styles: delegate style (p=.555), mean score for 1st year = (3.174) and 2nd year = (m=3.082); transformational style (p=0.190), mean score for 1st year (m=4.130) and 2nd year (m=3.943), transactional leadership style (p=0.471), mean score for 1st year (m=3.625) and for 2nd year (m=3.52).

There is also no statistical significant difference in the following leadership dimensions for example; intellectualized stimulating (p=0.755, 1st m=4.130, 2nd m=4.182), individualized consideration (p=0.326, 1st m=4.167, 2nd m=3.977), charisma (p=0.639, 1st =m=3.796, 2nd m=3.705), contingent reward (p=0.183, 1st m=3.91, 2nd m=3.712), management by exemption (p=0.753, 1st m=2.889, 2nd m=2.795), relationship oriented (p=0.966, 1st m=3.741, 2nd m=3.750) and task oriented, (p=1.000, 1st m=4.00, 2nd m=4.00). The p values for all the above leadership behaviour are above the cut-off point and the differences in the average mean values for both 1st and 2nd which is very insignificantly serves to support the argument that there is no difference in the leadership style and behaviours of the respondents in the first year and second year of their MBA programmes respectively.

Table 30: Comparison of male and female within the programme groups

	Programme, MBA					
	First year			Second year		
	Mann-Whitney U	Z	p	Mann-Whitney U	Z	p
Authoritarian Style	76.000	-.258	.796	44.000	-.296	.768
Participative Style	64.500	-.853	.394	30.000	-1.330	.183
Delegate Style	57.500	-1.213	.225	45.500	-.185	.853
Transformational leadership	62.500	-.958	.338	32.000	-1.188	.235
Transactional leadership	77.500	-.182	.856	33.000	-1.127	.260
Intellectually stimulating	80.000	-.054	.957	39.000	-.704	.482
Individualized consideration	60.000	-1.140	.254	36.500	-.869	.385
Charisma	70.500	-.557	.577	34.000	-1.076	.282
Motivation	66.000	-.808	.419	23.000	-1.882	.060
Contingent reward	65.000	-.844	.398	46.500	-.114	.910
Management by exemption	72.000	-.472	.637	36.000	-.895	.371
Relationship oriented	72.000	-.478	.633	44.500	-.263	.793
Task oriented	56.000	-1.387	.166	43.000	-.400	.689

b Grouping Variable: Gender

The Mann-Whitney U test was carried out to find if there is a statistically significant difference in the leadership styles of male and female leaders in the first year and second year of their programmes. The results in Table 30 indicate no differences in the leadership style of the male and female respondents with each programme year at the 95% level ($p > 0.05$); because all the p values for the various leadership styles are above the cut off point of 0.05.

For example, authoritarian style, 1st ($p=.796$, $z = -.258$) and 2nd ($p=.768$, $z = -.296$); participative 1st ($p=.394$, $z = -.853$) and for 2nd ($p=.183$, $z = - 1.330$); Delegate style 1st ($p=.225$, $z = -1.213$) and 2nd ($p=.853$, $z = -.185$), transformational style 1st ($p=.338$, $z = -.958$) and 2nd ($p=.235$, $z = - 1.188$); Transactional leadership 1st ($p=.856$, $z = -.182$) and 2nd ($p=.260$, $z = -1.127$); intellectual stimulation 1st ($p=.957$, $z = -.054$) and 2nd ($p=.482$, $z = -.704$); individualized consideration 1st ($p=.254$, $z = - 1.140$) and 2nd ($p=.385$, $z = -.869$); charisma 1st ($p=.577$, $z = -.557$) and 2nd

(p=.282, z = -1.076); motivation 1st (p=.419, z = -.8.8) and 2nd (p=.060, z = -1.882); contingent reward 1st (p=.398, z = -.844) and 2nd (p=.910, z = -.114); management by exemption 1st (p=.637, z = -.472) and 2nd (p=.371, z = -.895); relationship oriented 1st (p=.633, z = -.478) and 2nd (p=.793, z = -.263) and task oriented 1st (p=.166, z = -1.387) and 2nd (p=.689, z = -.400). These indicate that the first year and the second year male and female respondents have similar leadership styles. Thus, hypothesis 3 there is a significant difference in the leadership style of male and female leaders based on the years spent in the higher institution (Educational experiences), the more years they spent in higher institution the more the leadership style be the similar for male and female.

Table 31: <u>Comparison between Christian and No Christian</u>

	Christian			Non-Christian			Independent Samples T test		
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	p
Authoritarian Style	32	2.797	0.574	18	3.006	0.468	-1.314	48	0.195
Participative Style	32	3.703	0.498	18	3.700	0.689	0.019	48	0.985
Delegate Style	32	3.016	0.526	18	3.356	0.482	-2.258	48	0.028*
Transformational leadership	32	4.035	0.482	18	4.069	0.511	-0.236	48	0.814
Transactional leadership	32	3.574	0.451	18	3.604	0.478	-0.221	48	0.826
Intellectually stimulating	32	4.188	0.535	18	4.111	0.654	0.447	48	0.657
Individualized consideration	32	4.016	0.654	18	4.194	0.667	-0.922	48	0.361
Charisma	32	3.750	0.718	18	3.778	0.575	-0.141	48	0.889
Motivation	32	4.188	0.716	18	4.194	0.730	-0.033	48	0.974
Contingent reward	32	3.802	0.455	18	3.833	0.639	-0.201	48	0.841
Management by exemption	32	2.922	1.063	18	2.806	1.002	0.379	48	0.706
Relationship oriented	32	3.656	0.689	18	3.889	0.796	-1.083	48	0.284
Task oriented	32	4.031	0.782	18	3.944	0.938	0.351	48	0.727

*significant at 95% level. The number of Christians is 32 and non Christians are 18, and the (-) in the column signify where non Christians mean value is negligibly higher than the Christians.

These categories of Hindu, Islam, African Traditional and Other were combined as Non Christian.

The results in Table 31 reflects a significant difference (p=0.028) between Christian and Non Christian respondents with regards to Delegate style at the 95% level (p<0.05). Non Christians have a higher mean value for Delegate Style and this argument can be substantiated by the difference in mean value for both groups Christians (m=3.016) and non Christians (m=3.356) indicates that non Christians leaders have a higher mean, which indicates that non Christians delegate more than Christian leaders.

There were no differences with regards to the other dimensions; for example authoritarian style (p=0.195, Christians (m=2.797) and non Christians (m=3.006); participative style (p=0.985), Christian (m=3.700) and, non Christians (m=3.703); transformational leadership style (p=0.814), Christians (m=.4.035), and non Christians (m=4.069); transactional leadership (p=0.814), Christians (m=3.574) and non Christians (m=3.604); intellectual stimulating style (p=0.657), Christians (m=4.188) and non Christians (m=4.111); individual stimulating behaviour (p=0.361), Christians (m=4.016), and non Christians (m=4.194); charisma (p=0.889), Christians (m=3.750), and non Christians (m=3.778); motivation (p=0.974), Christians (m=4.188) and non Christians (m=4.194); contingent reward (p=0.841), Christians (m=3.802) and non Christians (m=3.833); management by exemption (p=0.706), Christians (m=2.922) and non Christian (m=2.806); relationship oriented (p=0.284), Christians (m=3.656), and non Christians (m=3.889); and Task oriented (p=0.727), Christians (m=4.031) and non Christians (m=3.944). The insignificant nature of the mean values for all these leadership styles indicates that the level of delegate leadership style for Christians and non Christians are similar.

Table 32: Comparison of male and female within the Christian and Non-Christian groups

	Religion					
	Christian (male vs female)			Non-Christian (males vs female)		
	Mann-Whitney U	Z	p	Mann-Whitney U	Z	p
Authoritarian Style	90.500	-.546	.585	34.500	-.141	.888
Participative Style	98.500	-.210	.833	32.000	-.375	.707
Delegate Style	77.500	-1.094	.274	36.000	.000	1.000
Transformational leadership	82.500	-.888	.375	25.500	-.989	.323
Transactional leadership	84.000	-.824	.410	32.000	-.382	.703
Intellectually stimulating	103.500	.000	1.000	32.000	-.386	.700
Individualized consideration	86.000	-.770	.441	30.500	-.532	.595
Charisma	95.000	-.367	.714	21.500	-1.428	.153
Motivation	92.500	-.478	.632	27.500	-.829	.407
Contingent reward	89.500	-.606	.545	34.000	-.190	.849
Management by exemption	91.500	-.508	.611	33.500	-.239	.811
Relationship oriented	97.500	-.260	.795	35.000	-.096	.924
Task oriented	95.500	-.364	.716	28.500	-.760	.447

Grouping Variable: Gender

A Mann-Whitney U test revealed no significant differences in the self-perception of leadership style of male and female Christian or male and female non-Christian respondents at the 95% level (p>0.05) for all the leadership style. This argument can be substantiated by the fact that all the p values are above the cut-off point of 0.05, as indicated in the next paragraph.

Authoritarian style Christians (p=.585, z = -.546) and non Christians (p=.888, z = -.141); Participative style Christians (p=.833, z = -.210) and non Christian (p=.707, z = -.375); delegate Christians (p=.274, z = -1.094) non Christians (p=.1.000, z = .000); transformational leadership Christians (p=.375, z= -.888) and non Christians (p=.323, z = .989); transactional leadership Christians (p=.410, z = -.824) and non Christians (p=.703, z = -.382); intellectual stimulating Christian (p=.1.000, z = .000) and non Christians (p=.700, z = -.386); individualized

consideration Christians (p=.441, z = -.770) and non Christians (p=.595, z = 532); charisma Christians (p=.714, z = -.367) and non Christians (p=.153, z = - 1.428); motivation Christians (p=.632, z = -.478) and non Christians (p=.407, z = -.829); contingent reward Christians (p=.545, z = -.606); management by exemption Christians (p=..611, z = -.508) and non Christians (p=.811, z = -.239); relationship oriented leadership Christians (p=.795, z = -.260) and non Christians (p=924, z = -.094); and task oriented Christians (p=.716, z = -.364) and non Christians (p=.447, z = -.760). All the p value for the above different leadership styles and behaviours of male and female Christian leaders and male and female non Christian leaders are above the cut-off point at the 95% level (p>0.05). Thus, hypothesis 4 which states that there is a significant difference in the leadership style of men and women leaders who are raised in the orthodox Christianity religion and those raised as non-Christians cannot be substantiated.

Table 33: <u>Comparison between numbers of hours of watching television</u>

	5+			1-4			Independent Samples T test		
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	p
Authoritarian Style	20	2.870	0.559	30	2.873	0.541	-0.021	48	0.983
Participative Style	20	3.565	0.651	30	3.793	0.494	-1.409	48	0.165
Delegate Style	20	3.080	0.585	30	3.177	0.499	-0.626	48	0.534
Transformational leadership	20	4.069	0.476	30	4.033	0.503	0.249	48	0.804
Transactional leadership	20	3.588	0.549	30	3.583	0.393	0.031	48	0.975
Intellectually stimulating	20	4.250	0.618	30	4.100	0.548	0.901	48	0.372
Individualized consideration	20	4.075	0.674	30	4.083	0.658	-0.043	48	0.966
Charisma	20	3.750	0.803	30	3.767	0.568	-0.086	48	0.932
Motivation	20	4.200	0.523	30	4.183	0.825	0.080	48	0.936
Contingent reward	20	3.733	0.558	30	3.867	0.500	-0.882	48	0.382
Management by	20	3.000	1.088	30	2.800	1.005	0.667	48	0.508

exemption								
Relationship oriented	20	3.775	0.819	30	3.717	0.678	0.274	48	0.785
Task oriented	20	3.950	0.999	30	4.033	0.718	-0.343	48	0.733

The number of those who watch TV for 5+ hrs were 20 in total and the number of those who watch TV between 1-4 hrs are 30 in total. And in the 't' column the (-) sign indicate where those who watch TV between 1-4 hrs have an insignificant higher means score.

The T-test results in the table above reflect no significant differences between those who watch TV for more than 5 hours or more in a day and those who watch between 1-4 hours of TV at the 95% level (p>0.05). Thus, this argument can be substantiated by the fact that the p values for the leaderships style and behaviours were above the cut point of (p>0.05) and the average mean scores for all the dimensions are very negligible; for example; authoritarian leadership style (p=. 0.983) 5hrs+ (m=2.870) and 1-4hrs (m=2.873); participative style (p=0.165) 5hrs+ (m=3.565) and 1-4yrs (m=3.793); delegate style (p=0.534) 5hrs+ (m=3.080) and 1-4hrs (m=3.177); transformational leadership (p=0.804) 5hrs+ (m=5.069) and 1-4hrs (m=4.33), transactional leadership (p=0.975) 5hrs+ (m=3.588) and 1-4yrs (m=3.583), intellectually stimulating (p=0.372) 5yrs+ (m=4.250) and 1-4hrs (m=4.100); individualized consideration (p=0.966) 5hrs+ (m=4.075) and 1-4hrs (m=4.083); charisma (p=0.932) 5+ (m=3.750) and 1-4 (m=3.767); motivation (p=0.936) 5hrs+ (m=4.200) and 1-4hrs (m=4.183); contingent reward (p=0.382) 5hrs+ (m=3.733) and 1-4hrs (m=3.867); management by exemption (p=0.508) 5hrs+ (m=3.000) and 1-4hrs (m=2.800), relationship oriented (p=0.785) 5+ (m=3.775) and 1-4 (m=3.717) and task oriented (p=0.733) 5hrs+ (m=3.950) and 1-4hrs (4.033).

Table 34: Comparison between male and female within the categories of Number of hours of watching TV

Test Statistics (b)

| | Number of hours TV turned in a day | | | | | |
| | 5+ | | | 1-4 | | |
	Mann-Whitney U	Z	p	Mann-Whitney U	Z	p
Authoritarian Style	45.000	-.232	.816	62.000	-.909	.363
Participative Style	23.500	-1.898	.058	63.000	-.862	.389
Delegate Style	37.500	-.816	.414	78.500	-.098	.922
Transformational leadership	47.000	-.078	.938	72.500	-.395	.693
Transactional leadership	42.500	-.429	.668	77.500	-.149	.881
Intellectually stimulating	48.000	.000	1.000	74.500	-.307	.759
Individualized consideration	46.500	-.119	.906	79.000	-.078	.938
Charisma	46.000	-.159	.874	42.000	-1.977	.048*
Motivation	28.000	-1.620	.105	78.000	-.126	.900
Contingent reward	45.000	-.237	.812	74.500	-.300	.764
Management by exemption	37.000	-.865	.387	74.500	-.298	.766
Relationship oriented	46.500	-.119	.905	76.500	-.202	.840
Task oriented	37.000	-.891	.373	76.500	-.224	.823

Grouping Variable: Gender: *significant at 95% level.

A Mann-Whitney U test revealed a significant difference in the charisma leadership style of male and female respondents among those who watch TV between 1-4 hours in a day at the 95% level (p>0.05). The p value is 0.048 and the z score -1.977 of those who watch TV between 1-4hrs indicates that there is a significant difference for male and female leaders in this group for charisma leadership style. In other words the results in Table 34 above indicates significant differences for charisma style for male and female respondents within the category at the 95% level (p>0.05). But it revealed no significant difference for male and female leaders who watch TV for 5hrs or more.

The above argument can be substantiated by looking at the p values and the Z scores of the various leadership styles and behaviours for both male and female respondents in both groups together. Authoritarian style 5 hr + (p=.816, z =-.232) and 1-4 hrs (p=.363, z = -.909); participative style (p=.058, z = -1.898) and 1-4 (p=.389, z = -.862), delegate style 5+ (p=.414, z = -.816) and 1-4 (p=.922, z = -.098); transformational leadership 5+ (p=.938, z =-.078) and 1-4 (p=.693, z = -.395); transactional leadership 5+ (p=.668, z = -.429) and 1-4 (p=.881, z 149); intellectual stimulating style 5+ (p=.1.000, z = .000) 1-4 (p=.759, z = -.307); individualized consideration 5+ (p=.906, z = -.119) 1-4 (p=.938, z = -.078); motivation 5+ (p=.105, z = -1.260) and 1-4 (p=.900, z = -.126); contingent reward 5+ (p=.812, z = -.237) and 1-4 (p=.764, z = -.300); management by exemption 5+ (p=.387, z = -.856) and 1-4 (p=.766, z = -.298); relationship oriented 5+ (p=..905, z = -.119) and 1-4 (p=.823, z = -.202); task oriented 5+ (p=.373, z = -.891) and 1-4 (p=.823, z = -.224).

Thus, hypothesis 5: there is a significant different between men and women leaders who watch TV from 1-4hrs and those who watch it for 5hrs or more; (men who watch more TV are more (a) autocratic, (b) transactional, (c) task oriented, (d) contingent reward, (e) management by exemption, (f) delegate, than their female counterparts and the female will be more (g) transformational, (h) participative, (i) relationship oriented, (j) charisma, and individual consideration who spent the same hours was not substantiated, thus it is rejected.

Table 35: ANOVA - Age group

	F	p
Authoritarian Style	1.505	.217
Participative Style	1.956	.118
Delegate Style	.874	.487
Transformational leadership	.986	.425
Transactional leadership	.274	.893
Intellectually stimulating	.495	.739
Individualized consideration	.841	.507
Charisma	.487	.745
Motivation	1.794	.147
Contingent reward	.652	.628
Management by exemption	.085	.987
Relationship oriented	.450	.772
Task oriented	.293	.881

The results in Table 35 indicate no statistical significant differences at the 95% level (p>0.05). The p value for all the leadership style and leadership behaviours are all above the 0.05 cut-off point as indicated in the table above. This indicated that the hypothesis: 1; there is no difference in the leadership style of the male and female leaders was substantiated, thus it is rejected.

Table 36: Comparison of male and female within age groups

	Age group											
	26-30			31-34			35-40			41+		
	Mann-Whitney U	Z	p	Mann-Whitney U	Z	p	Mann-Whitney U	Z	p	Mann-Whitney U	Z	p
Authoritarian Style	11.000	-.852	.394	8.500	-.718	.473	9.500	-.541	.588	17.000	-.656	.512
Participative Style	14.000	-.341	.733	11.000	-.205	.838	11.000	-.215	.830	20.500	-.196	.844
Delegate Style	9.000	-1.195	.232	7.000	-1.021	.307	7.500	-.962	.336	21.000	-.132	.895
Transformational leadership	9.000	-1.199	.230	8.000	-.842	.400	9.000	-.642	.521	12.500	-1.252	.211
Transactional leadership	11.000	-.872	.383	9.500	45.500	-.516	.606	.630	10.500	20.500	-.326	.745
Intellectually stimulating	15.500	-.087	.930	11.000	-.225	.822	11.000	-.222	.824	19.000	-.416	.677
Individualized consideration	7.500	-1.478	.140	7.500	-1.013	.311	11.000	-.223	.824	18.500	-.489	.625
Charisma	10.000	-1.073	.283	11.500	-.104	.917	9.000	-.671	.502	11.000	-1.492	.136
Motivation	7.000	-1.600	.110	11.000	-.226	.821	7.000	-1.118	.264	11.500	-1.396	.163
Contingent reward	7.500	-1.467	.142	8.000	-.852	.394	11.000	-.217	.828	13.500	-1.136	.256
Management by exemption	13.000	-.517	.605	11.000	-.208	.835	12.000	.000	1.000	19.500	-.331	.741
Relationship oriented	14.500	-.262	.794	11.500	-.106	.916	8.500	-.799	.424	16.000	-.814	.416
Task oriented	9.000	-1.298	.194	11.500	-.108	.914	8.000	-.964	.335	17.500	-.647	.518

Grouping Variable: Gender

A Mann-Whitney U test revealed no significant differences in the self-perception of leadership style of male and female respondents at the 95% level (p>0.05) based on age differences. In other words, the results in the Table 36 above indicate no differences between male and female respondents within the different age groups at the 95% level (p>0.05). These results indicate that both male and female level of leaders of different age groups apply the same level of leadership style.

The above argument can also be substantiated by the fact that the p values and the z scores for the various leadership styles are above the cut-off point. Authoritarian style 26-30 years (p=.394,

z = -.852), 31-35 years (p=.473, z = -.718), 36-40 years (p=.588, z = -.541), and 41yrs+ (p=.512, z -.656). Participative style 26-30yrs (p=.733, z = -.341), 31-35yrs (p=.838, z = -.205), 36-40yrs (p=.830, z = -.215), and 41yrs+ (p=.844, z = -.196). Delegate style 26-30yrs (p=.232, z = -1.195), 31-35yrs (p=.307, z = -1.021), 36-40yrs (p=.336, z = -.962), and 41yrs+ (p=.895, z = -.132). Transformational leadership 26-30yrs (p=.230, z = 1.199), 31-35yrs (p=.400, z = -.842), 36-40yrs (p=.521, z= -.642), and 41yrs+ (p=.211, z = -1.252). Transactional leadership 26-30yrs (p=.383, z = -.872), 31-35yrs (p=.516, z = 45.500), 36-400yrs (p=.521, z = 10.500), and 40yrs+ (p=.745, z = -.326). Intellectually stimulating 26-30yrs (p=.930, z = -.087), 31-35yrs (p=.822, z = -.225), 36-40yrs (p=.824, z = -.222), and 41yrs (p=.677, z = -.416). Individualized consideration 26-30yrs (p=.140, z = -1.478), 31-35yrs (p=.311, z = -1.013), 36-40yrs (p=.824, z = -.223) and 40+yrs (p=.625, z = -.489). Charisma 26-30yrs (p=.283, z = -1.073), 31-35yrs (p=.917, z = -.104), 36-40yrs (p=.502, z = -.671), and 41yrs+ (p=.136, z= -1.136). Motivation 26-30yrs (p=.110, z= -1.600), 31-34yrs (p=.821, z = -.226), 36-40yrs (p=.264, z = -1.118) and 41+yrs (p=.163, z = -1.396). Contingent reward 26-30yrs (p=142, z = -1.467) 31-35yrs (p=.394, z = -.394), 36-40yrs (p=.828, z = -217) and 41+yrs (p=.256, z = -1.136). Management by exemption 26-30yrs (p=.605, z = -.517), 31-35yrs (p=.835, z = -.208) 36-40yrs (p=.1.000, z = .000) and 41yrs+ (p=.741, z = -.331). Relationship oriented 20-30yrs (p=.794, z = -.262), 31-35yrs (p=.916, z = -.106), 36-40yrs (p=.424, z = -.799) and 41yrs+ (p=.416, z = -.814). Task oriented 26-30yrs (p=.194, z = -1.298), 31-35yrs (p=.914, z = -.108), 36-40yrs (p=.335, z = -.964), 41yrs+ (p=.518, z = -.647). Thus, hypothesis 6: there is a significant difference between the self-perception of leadership style of male and female business leaders based on age, was not substantiated, and thus it is rejected,

Table 37: ANOVA - Years of Education

	F	p
Authoritarian Style	.222	.925
Participative Style	.245	.911
Delegate Style	2.067	.101
Transformational leadership	.341	.849
Transactional leadership	.393	.813
Intellectually stimulating	.378	.823
Individualized consideration	.433	.784
Charisma	.737	.572
Motivation	.353	.840
Contingent reward	.314	.867
Management by exemption	1.474	.226
Relationship oriented	.149	.963
Task oriented	.207	.933

The results in Table 37 indicate no statistical differences at the 95% level (p>0.05). The p=value for all the leadership style and leadership behaviours are all above the 0.05 cut-off point as indicated in the table above. The result thus indicated that the hypothesis: 1.7 is accepted. "There are no significant differences in the leadership style of the male and female leaders who have spent more years in higher institution (Educational experiences)".

Table 38: Comparison of male and female within Years of education

| | Years of education | | | | | | | | |
| | 1-4 | | | 5-7 | | | 8-11 | | |
	Mann-Whitney U	Z	p	Mann-Whitney U	Z	p	Mann-Whitney U	Z	p
Authoritarian Style	19.500	-.547	.585	34.000	-.439	.660	2.000	-1.640	.101
Participative Style	13.500	-1.287	.198	36.500	-.220	.826	1.000	-1.950	.051
Delegate Style	19.000	-.610	.542	38.500	-.044	.965	5.000	-.764	.445
Transformational leadership	10.500	-1.684	.092	38.000	-.088	.930	1.000	-1.950	.051
Transactional leadership	12.000	-1.502	.133	38.500	-.044	.965	7.000	-.151	.880
Intellectually stimulating	18.000	-.768	.442	31.000	-.747	.455	2.500	-1.537	.124
Individualized consideration	10.000	-1.782	.075	31.500	-.681	.496	4.000	-1.366	.172
Charisma	22.000	-.262	.794	35.000	-.358	.720	3.500	-1.230	.219
Motivation	20.000	-.516	.606	39.000	.000	1.000	2.500	-1.518	.129
Contingent reward	16.000	-1.033	.302	28.000	-.990	.322	3.500	-1.230	.219
Management by exemption	17.000	-.872	.383	31.500	-.671	.502	3.500	-1.214	.225
Relationship oriented	20.500	-.440	.660	36.000	-.273	.785	4.000	-1.083	.279
Task oriented	16.500	-1.015	.310	33.500	-.532	.595	7.500	.000	1.000

Grouping Variable: Gender

A Mann-Whitney U test revealed no significant differences in the self-perception of leadership style of male and female respondents at the 95% level (p>0.05) based on educational experience. In other words the results in the above Table indicate no differences between male and female respondents within categories of years of education at the 95% level (p>0.05).

The above statements can be justified by looking at the z and p values for all the leadership styles and behaviours. Authoritarian style 1-4yrs (p=.585, z = -.547), 5-7yrs (p=.660, z = -.439), and 8-11yrs (p=.101, z = -1.640). Participative style 1-4yrs (p=.198, z = -1.287), 5-7yrs (p=.826, z = -

.220), and 8-11yrs (p=.052, z = -1.950). Delegate 1-4yrs (p=.542, z = -.610), 5-7yrs (p=.965, z = -.044), and 8-11yrs (p=.445, z = -.764). Transformational leadership 1-4yrs (p=.092, z = -1.684), 5-7yrs (p=.930, z = -.088) and 8-11yrs (p=.051, z = 1.950). Transactional leadership 1-4yrs (p=.133, z = -1.684), 5-7yrs (p=.965, z = -.044), and 8-11yrs (p=.888, z = -.151). Intellectual stimulation 0-4yrs (p=.442, z = -.768), 5-7yrs (p=.455, z = -.747) and 8-11yrs (p=.880, z = -1.537). Individualised consideration 1-4yrs (p=.075, z = -1.782), 5-7yrs (p=.496, z = -.681), and 8-11yrs (=.172, z = -1.366). Charisma 1-4yrs (p=.794, z = -.262), 5-7yrs (p=.720, z = -.358), and 8-11yrs (p=.219, z = -1.230). Motivation 1-4yrs (p=.606, z = -.516), 5-7yrs (p=.1.000, z = .000) and 8-11yrs (p=.129, z = -1.518). Contingent reward 1-4yrs (p=.302, z = -1.033), 5-7yrs (p=.322, z = -.990) and 8-11yrs (p=.129, z = -1.230). Management by exemption 1-4yrs (p=.383, z = -.872), 5-7yrs (p=.502, z = -.671), and 8-11yrs (p=.225, z = -1.2140. Relationship oriented 1-4yrs (p=.660, z = -.440), 5-7yrs (p=.785, z = -.273) and 8-11yrs (p=.279, z = -1.083). Task oriented 1-4yrs (p=.310, z = -1.015), 5-7yrs (p=.595, z = 632) and 8-11yrs (p=1.00, z = .000). Thus, hypothesis 3 which states that: there is a significant difference in the leadership style of male and female leaders based on the years spent in the higher institution (Educational experiences). The more years male and female leaders spent in the higher institution the similar their leadership style was not substantiated, thus it is rejected.

Table 39: ANOVA - Race groups

	F	p
Authoritarian Style	.588	.626
Participative Style	.767	.518
Delegate Style	1.783	.164
Transformational leadership	.541	.656
Transactional leadership	.421	.739
Intellectually stimulating	1.728	.174
Individualized consideration	.413	.745
Charisma	.328	.805
Motivation	.999	.402
Contingent reward	.783	.510
Management by exemption	.202	.895
Relationship oriented	.678	.570
Task oriented	1.377	.262

The results in Table 39 indicate no statistical significant differences at the 95% level (p>0.05). The p value for all the leadership style and leadership behaviours are all above the 0.05 cut-off point as indicated in the table above. Thus hypothesis: 7 which states that there is a significant difference in female and male leaders on self perception of the leadership style and behaviour based on race. (a) White male and female will have similar leadership style for all the variables, (b) Asians and African male leaders will be more authoritarian, task oriented; African and females leaders are more likely to be relationship oriented, charisma and transformational leadership oriented is not approved

Table 40: Comparison between male and female within the race groups

| | Race | | | | | | | | |
| | African | | | Asians | | | Whites | | |
	Mann-Whitney U	Z	p	Mann-Whitney U	Z	p	Mann-Whitney U	Z	p
Authoritarian Style	33.000	-.580	.562	31.000	-.681	.496	8.000	-.259	.795
Participative Style	26.500	-1.118	.263	36.000	-.227	.820	4.000	-1.302	.193
Delegate Style	33.000	-.580	.562	35.500	-.273	.785	6.000	-.778	.437
Transformational leadership	39.500	-.042	.967	26.000	-1.142	.253	6.000	-.802	.423
Transactional leadership	30.000	-.841	.400	30.000	-.787	.431	6.500	-.662	.508
Intellectually stimulating	37.000	-.262	.793	36.500	-.188	.851	4.000	-1.543	.123
Individualized consideration	29.000	-.954	.340	35.500	-.280	.780	7.000	-.549	.583
Charisma	35.500	-.380	.704	**14.500**	**-2.285**	**.022**	5.000	-1.084	.279
Motivation	23.500	-1.429	.153	24.000	-1.386	.166	6.000	-.798	.425
Contingent reward	30.000	-.847	.397	32.500	-.554	.579	2.500	-1.761	.078
Management by exemption	24.500	-1.296	.195	33.500	-.462	.644	7.500	-.391	.696
Relationship oriented	29.000	-.944	.345	33.500	-.463	.643	4.000	-1.336	.181
Task oriented	34.500	-.491	.623	37.500	-.100	.920	8.500	-.142	.887

Grouping Variable: Gender

The results in Table 40 indicate no differences between male and female respondents within race groups for all dimensions except Charisma at the 95% level (p>0.05). Within the Asian group, there is a significant difference (p=.022) between male and female at the 95% level (p<0.05). The mean values for male (m=3.5455) and female (4.1429) (reflected in Table 40a below), show that the Asian female respondents have a higher mean value for Charisma than the male respondents. This indicates that the Asian female leaders have a higher need to influence followers than do their male counterparts.

Table:40 a

		Gender					
		Male			Female		
Race		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Asians Charisma		11	3.5455	.52223	7	4.1429	.47559

Female respondents mean value (m=4.1429) is significantly higher the men (3.5455) respondents.

Except for the charisma (idealized influence) there are no significant differences in the other leadership styles, the argument can be proved by considering their p and z values. Authoritarian style; Africans (p=.562, z = -.580), Asians (p=.496, z = 681), and Whites (p=.795, z =-.258); participative style, Africans (p=.263, z = -1.118); Asians (p=.820, z = -.227), and Whites (p=.193, z = -1.302); delegate style Africans (p=.562, z = -.580), Asians (p=.785, z = -.273); Whites (p=.437, z = -.778); transformational, Africans (p=.967, z = -.042) Asians (p=.253, z = -1.142), and whites (p=.437, z = -.802); transactional leadership, Africans (p=.400, z = -.841), Asians (p=.431, z = -.787), and Whites (p=.508, z = -.662); intellectual stimulating, Africans (p=.793, z = -.262), Asians (p=.851, z = -.188), Whites (p=.123, z = -1.543) individualized consideration, Africans (p=.340, z =-.954), Asians (p=.780. z = -.280), and Whites (p=.583, z = -.549); charisma, Africans (p=.704, z = -.380), Asians (p=.022, z = -2.285) and Whites (p=.297, z = -1.084); motivation, Africans (p=.153, z = -1.429), Asians (p=.166, z = -1.386), and Whites (p=.425, z = -.798); contingent reward, Africans (p=.379, z = -.847), Asians (p=.579, z = -.554), and Whites (p=.078, z = -1.761); management by exemption, Africans (p=.195, z = -1.296), Asians (p=.644, z = -.462) and Whites (p=.696, z = -.391); relationship oriented, Africans (p=.345, z = -.944), Asians (p=.643, z = -.463), Whites (p=.181, z = -1.336); task oriented, Africans (p=.623, z = -.491) Asians (p=.920, z = -.100), Whites (p=.181, z = -.142). The above p values for the various leadership styles are above the cut off point or 0.05, indicating that male and female operate at the same leave in theses leadership style. Thus, hypothesis 7: there is a significant difference in the leadership style of male and female business leaders based on race, (a) White male and female will have similar leadership style for all the variables, (b) Asians and African male leaders will be more authoritarian, task oriented; African and females women are

more relationship oriented, charisma and transformational leadership oriented, was not substantiated, except for charisma.

Table 41: ANOVA - Position

	F	p
Authoritarian Style	.374	.690
Participative Style	.360	.700
Delegate Style	.333	.718
Transformational leadership	.018	.982
Transactional leadership	1.496	.235
Intellectually stimulating	.278	.759
Individualized consideration	.513	.602
Charisma	.434	.651
Motivation	.464	.632
Contingent reward	1.755	.184
Management by exemption	.791	.459
Relationship oriented	.072	.931
Task oriented	.225	.799

The results in Table 41 indicate no differences at the 95% level (p>0.05)

Table 42 : Comparison between male and female within positions

| | Current Leadership position | | | | | | | | |
| | Frontline | | | Middle Manager | | | Senior Manager | | |
	Mann-Whitney U	Z	p	Mann-Whitney U	Z	p	Mann-Whitney U	Z	p
Authoritarian Style	5.000	-1.878	.060	57.000	-.351	.726	4.500	-.160	.873
Participative Style	8.000	-1.373	.170	57.000	-.351	.726	1.000	-1.271	.204
Delegate Style	12.000	-.682	.495	57.000	-.351	.725	5.000	.000	1.000
Transformational leadership	7.500	-1.459	.145	51.500	-.677	.499	1.500	-1.122	.262
Transactional leadership	14.000	-.345	.730	59.500	-.207	.836	4.500	-.162	.871
Intellectually stimulating	8.500	-1.318	.187	51.500	-.728	.467	1.500	-1.164	.245
Individualized consideration	16.000	.000	1.000	55.000	-.483	.629	.500	-1.500	.134
Charisma	9.500	-1.147	.251	61.000	-.120	.905	3.000	-.681	.496
Motivation	**3.500**	**-2.193**	**.028**	56.000	-.424	.671	4.500	-.166	.868
Contingent reward	10.500	-.967	.334	59.000	-.237	.813	1.500	-1.164	.245
Management by exemption	13.000	-.521	.603	62.500	-.030	.976	2.000	-.997	.319
Relationship oriented	8.500	-1.323	.186	49.500	-.813	.416	2.000	-.971	.332
Task oriented	6.000	-1.809	.070	**30.500**	**-2.066**	**.039**	.500	-1.573	.116

Grouping Variable: Gender

The results in Table 42 indicate no differences between male and female respondents within each position for all dimensions except Motivation (p=.028, -2.193) and Task Oriented (p=.039, z-2.066) at the 95% level (p>0.05). Within the Frontline group, Motivation is statistically significant different (p=.028) between males and females (p<0.05) while within the Middle manager group, Task oriented is significantly different (p=.039) between male and female.

Table42 a:

Current Leadership position		Gender					
		Male			Female		
		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Frontline	Motivation	4	3.5000	.40825	8	4.3750	.58248
Middle Manager	Task oriented	21	4.1429	.72703	6	3.1667	1.16905

The mean values for the two dimensions help to determine which gender has a higher need to motivate the employees and which one has a higher need for results. The data in Table 42a shows that Female respondents in the Frontline category have a higher mean (m=4.3750) for Motivation than the males (m=3.5000) in this category while male respondents in the Middle Manager category are more task oriented (m=4.1429) than the female (m=3.1667) respondents. Thus, the results indicate that female frontline or supervisors have a higher need to motivate their employees, while the male middle managers have a higher need to achieve results.

The argument that there are no statistical significant differences in the leadership style except for the motivation and task oriented behaviours (between the males and females frontline, middle and senior managers) can be sustained by looking at the p values for each of the dimensions; authoritarian frontline (p=.060, z= -1.878), middle-managers (p=.726, z = -.351), and senior managers (p=.873, z = -.160); Participative style, frontline (p=.170, z = -1.373), middle managers (p=.726, z = -.351), and senior managers (p=.204, z = -1.271); Delegate, style frontline (p=.495, z = -.682) middle managers (p=.725, z = -.351) senior managers (p=1.00, z = .000); Transformational leadership, frontline (p=.145, z = -1.459), middle managers (p=.499, z = -.677), and senior managers (p=.262, z = -1.122); Transactional leadership, frontline (p=.730, z = -.345), middle managers (p=.836, z = -.207), and senior managers (p=.871, z = -.162); intellectual stimulation, frontline (p=.187, z = -1.318), middle managers (p=.476, z = -.728), and senior manager (p=245, z = -1.164); individualized consideration, frontline (p=.1.000, z = .000), middle

manager (p=.629, z = -.483), and senior manager (p=.134, z = -1.500); charisma, frontline (p=.251, z = -1.147), middle manager (p=.905, z = -.120) and senior managers (p=.496, z = -.681), motivation, middle managers (p=.671, z = -.424) and senior managers (p=.868, z = -.166); contingent reward, frontline (p=.334, z = -.9967), middle managers (p=.813, z = -.137), and senior managers (p=.245, z = -1. 164); management by exemption, frontline (p=.603, z = -.521), middle manager (p=.976, z = -.030), and senior managers (p=.319, z = -997); relationship oriented, frontline (p=.186, z = -1.323), middle managers (p=.416, z = -.813), senior managers (p=.332, z = -.971); task oriented, frontline (p=.070, z = -1.809) middle managers (p=.039, z = -2.066), and senior managers (p=.116, z = -1.573). Thus, there is no leadership difference for male and female business leaders based on position.

Table 43: Correlations

Correlations

		Authoritarian Style	Participative Style	Delegate Style	Transformational leadership
Authoritarian Style	Pearson Correlation				
	p				
	N				
Participative Style	Pearson Correlation	-.039			
	p	.788			
	N	50			
Delegate Style	Pearson Correlation	.429**	.111		
	p	.002	.441		
	N	50	50		
Transformational leadership	Pearson Correlation	.086	.477**	.255	
	p	.552	.000	.074	
	N	50	50	50	
Transactional leadership	Pearson Correlation	.316*	.079	.236	.611**
	p	.026	.585	.100	.000
	N	50	50	50	50

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Delegate and Authoritarian: The table above reflects a significant moderate positive relationship between Delegate and the Authoritarian styles (Pearson correlation=0.429, p<0.05).

The positive correlation indicates that leaders who apply moderate level of laissez faire style of leadership also practice a moderate level of authoritarian leadership style.

Transactional Leadership and Authoritarian leadership style: There is a moderate positive correlation (relationship) between the Transactional leadership style and the Authoritarian leadership Style which is significant (Pearson correlation=0.316, p<0.05). The positive correlation indicates that leaders who are inclined to use the transactional leadership style also exercise authoritarian leadership style.

Transformational Leadership and Participative Leadership style: There is a significant moderate positive relationship between the Transformational leadership and the Participative leadership styles (Pearson correlation=0.477, p<0.05). The positive correlation indicates that leaders who apply the transformational leadership style also use participative style. In other words the transformational leadership style has an association with the participative leadership style. In other words there is an association between these two leadership styles.

Transactional Leadership style and Transformational leadership style: There is a significant moderate but positive relationship between the Transformational leadership style and the Transactional leadership style (Pearson correlation=0.611, p<0.05). The positive correlation means that leaders who apply the transactional leadership style also apply a transactional leadership style. There is an association between these two leadership styles.

Participative Leadership Style and Authoritarian Leadership style: There is a very weak negative correlation between the participative and the authoritarian leadership styles which is not significant (Pearson correlation= -.039, p<0.05). This means that leaders who apply the participative leadership style will not apply the authoritarian leadership style, although this relationship is very weak. In other words the participative leadership style has no association with the authoritarian leadership style.

Transformational leadership style and Authoritarian style: There is a very weak positive and not significant correlation between the transformational leadership style and the authoritarian

style (Pearson correlation=-.086, p<0.05). This means that there is an indication that leaders who apply the transformational leadership also apply the authoritarian style. Again this is very weak relationship.

Delegate style and Participative Style of Leadership: There is a very weak positive and not significant correlation between delegate leadership style and the participative leadership style (Pearson correlation=.111, p<0.05). The positive correlation indicates that the leaders who apply the delegate style also apply the participative leadership style, but this association is very weak.

Transactional Leadership Style and Participative: There is a very weak positive and not significant correlation between transactional leadership style and participative leadership style (Pearson correlation=.079, p<0.05). The positive correlation indicates that the leaders who apply transactional leadership style also apply participative leadership style, but this association is very weak.

Transformational and Delegate Leadership Style: There is a very weak positive and not significant correlation between the transformational leadership style and delegate leadership style (Pearson correlation=.255, p<0.05). The positive correlation indicates that the leaders who apply the transformational leadership style also apply the delegate leadership style, but this association is very weak.

Transactional and Delegate Leadership Style: There is a very weak positive and not significant correlation between the transactional leadership style and the delegate leadership style (Pearson correlation=.236, p<0.05). The positive correlation indicates that the leaders who apply the transactional leadership style also apply the delegate leadership style, but this association is very weak.

4.3. <u>Conclusion:</u>

This chapter has highlighted the various self-perceptions of the leadership styles of the male and female leaders in our study. The finding did not show much significant difference in the various leadership styles and behaviours. The reason for this will be the main subject of our next chapter. Moreover, the next chapter will lead us to the in-depth discussions of the general findings in this chapter.

Chapter 5

Discussions and Recommendations:

5.1.Introduction:

This last chapter aims to discuss critically the results of the analysis done in the preceding chapter. The results of the analysis of all the variables were discussed and appropriate recommendations were given.

5.2.The Descriptive statistics:

The results of table 23, the descriptive statistics indicate that the transformational leadership style with the mean score of 4.047 on a five point scale is the most popular leadership style among the respondents, and followed by the participative/democratic leadership style which has a mean score 3.702 and the third most popular is the transactional leadership style. This is good news for South Africa business environment because the three leadership styles, especially the first two are the two leadership styles widely acclaimed to have helped leaders turn around their ailing companies to become more competitive (Jick, 2003). They have been highly recommended for use during the era of economic downturn, because transformational leadership and democratic/participative style allow for inclusion of the employees in the decision-making, which in turn makes them feel respected, cherished and important. This valuable because it brings out the best in the employees; it makes them feel ownership of whatever result comes out of their own decision, it makes them feel like we did it ourselves. On the same note it is good news that the autocratic leadership style was the least favoured leadership style among the respondents. It implies for the opposite of what a transformational and democratic leadership style stands for. It alienates workers from the decision making that affects their everyday activities. It does not encourage hard work as workers feel like outsiders; it encourages resistance to change and hinders progress and productivity. It is not recommended for the present economic environment.

It comes as no surprise also that the motivation, intellectually stimulating and individualised consideration are the most favoured among the leadership dimensions (see the of result table 24).

The lest favoured of the leadership dimensions is the management by exemption, which is also a good sign because like autocratic leadership and management by exemption are not suitable for the modern day economic environment, because any business that wants to survive needs democratic and active leaders, leaders with a vision, drive, and a leader who leads by example.

5.3. The Leadership Style Differences based on Gender:

The hypothesis 1 and its sub-hypotheses which state that there is a difference in the leadership of male and female based on gender could not be substantiated. The results of our analysis (of table 26) in this study indicates that there is no statistically significant difference in the leadership of men and women leaders for all the leadership styles and behaviours although the p values and the mean scores indicate that there is no significant difference. The mean scores at least show that however small it may be that female leaders use a participative style, transformational leadership, intellectually stimulating, charisma/idealised influence and motivation slightly more often than the male leaders; for more detailed analysis see table 26. Male leaders use the other leadership styles slightly more often than their female counterparts.

Overall the result of the analysis of this study supported the study done by Oshagbemi et al (1992) where they discovered that there is no statistical differences in the leadership style of male and female leaders except in the delegating style, where they found out that female leaders delegate less than the male leaders, but found no differences in participative, directive and consultative styles. This study also support the result of the study done by Jones et al (2007) who investigated whether the leadership style of college leaders are transactional, transformational and laissez-faire, but the result revealed that there were no difference in the female and male leadership style. Walumbwa, et al, (2001); Rice, (2001) indicated that no significant correlations were found between leadership style and gender.

The result found in this section of the study stands to support those who claimed that the leadership style of men and female leaders are not gender based but pointed out that many factors can contribute to the leadership styles employed by male and females leadership (Barbuto, et al (2007).

Generally the results of table 26 did not support hypothesis 1 nor did it support any of its sub-hypotheses, because there was no statistically significant difference in all the leadership styles and their sub-dimensions. In other words the mean scores and the p values did not indicate any significant differences. The lack of differences in the leadership style of male and female leaders in this study can be attributed to the numerous articles in academic journals and the main stream news papers which have created enough awareness on what makes an effective leadership irrespective gender. The change in attitude or leadership behaviour for female leaders was possible because of the numerous leadership articles explaining the cause of the differences in leadership styles of men and women in the past and why they should change their mentality.

5.4.   Marital Status and the Leadership Style of Male and Female Leaders

The hypothesis number 2 which states that there is a difference in the leadership style of male and female based on marital status could not be proved. The results of tables 27 and 28 did not revealed any significant differences in the leadership style of male and female leaders. The results of table 27 did not show that there is a difference in the leadership style of married and unmarried leaders and the results of table 28 did not show any difference among the married or unmarried females and male leaders in the different leadership styles.

The major reason why the leadership style of married and unmarried female and male leaders shows no significant difference can be attributed to attitudinal change. According to Watson (2004) the aspirations of women have changed drastically as a result of civil rights and the women movements. Many women want careers not just jobs and they aspire to be in an equal footing with their male counterparts. For many decades marriage has been one of the reasons for women not moving climbing up the corporate ladder. As a result both married and unmarried women leaders are under great pressure to perform when they find themselves in leadership positions. To avoid been regarded as weak they try to copy their male counterparts. Finally as a result of the economic hardship, both husbands and wives are taking fulltime employment and some times in the same employment. The result of the constant interaction between husband and wife as equals has contributed to lack of difference in the leadership style between both genders.

5.5.   Education and the Leadership Style of Male and Female Leaders:

Hypothesis number 3 states that there is a significant difference in the leadership style of male and female leaders based on the educational experiences. Men and women who have spent more years in higher institutions will have similar leadership styles, to those who have spent fewer years. The results in table 30 did not indicate any significant difference in the leadership styles or behaviours among the male and female leaders within the programme year (first and second year MBA students). This hypothesis was not substantiated and as a result was not accepted.

The further test was carried out to determine if there are any significant differences in the leadership style of men and women based on the number of years they spent in the higher institution. This did not indicate any significant differences in the leadership style between male and female who have spent fewer and those who have spent more years in the higher institutions. Both the Anova (table 37) and Mann-Whitney U (table 38) both tests did not indicate any significant differences.

The possible reason/s for this similarity in the respondents is that the respondents have spent years together studying various leadership styles, their advantages and disadvantages. They have internalised this knowledge and were able to apply it in practice. For example Judge (2008) commented that it has been proven that people who are more highly educated and or who possesses more cognitive ability will likely be more critical about their traditional roles, as they are likely to adjust their attitude based on evidence they encounters in their field of study rather than historical norms. Rechardson (2008) also pointed out that educational attainment is the best predictor of gender role orientation. This means that education helps in shaping the mindset of the individual. We assumed that MBA programme in this case has helped to shape the mindset of our respondents. Barbuto (2007) also pointed out that peoples' educational level influences the perception of both their leadership style and influences their tactics. Nishuyama (2006) pointed out that the highly educated female managers are even more likely to adopt a transactional leadership style than the male leaders, because as he said women who have competed with men in the academic setting feel more pressured not to fail. In order to do that they have to copy the men.

5.6.   Religion and the Leadership Styles of Male and Female leaders:

The results of table 31 indicate that there is no statistically significant difference in the leadership style of male and female based on religion, except for the delegate leadership style. The non Christian leaders score higher in the delegate leadership style than the Christian leaders, This means that non Christian leaders are more likely than the Christian leaders to engage in responsibility avoidance, be more absent when needed, and slightly more likely to fail to follow up requests for assistance made by subordinates.

But the main subject of our study is to find out is there is a difference between the male and female leaders based on religion. The results of table 32 indicate that there is no statistical difference between the Christian male and female leaders and also there is no significant difference in the leadership style of non Christian male and female leaders. Again the similarities in the results have highlighted the change of attitude about the role of women in difference religions, especially among the newly founded churches and the Anglican Communion. In Hindu religion also, the role of women has been modified. Other religions that still hold on to traditional role of men and women in the church and in the society, are gradually allowing women to carry out certain functions that usually they were not allowed to carry out.

5.7.   TV Hours and the Leadership Style of Men and Women:

Television broadcasts has been blamed widely for indoctrinating people's attitudes and behaviours. Witt (2001) suggests that the gender-biased and gender-stereotyped behaviour and attitudes that young people are exposed to on television will have an impact on their perception of gender behaviour or attitudes later in adult life.

The results of tables 33 and 34 indicate there is no statistical difference in the leadership of men and women for those who watch TV between 1-4 hours and those watch TV for 5 hours or more, except for the charisma leadership style where there is a difference for those who watch TV between 1-4 hours a day. The result of the this study is supportive of the cognitive development approach school of thought, which points out that child development is based on what a child could make out of its environment, which means that the child is not a passive recipient of what he sees on TV Ingham (1977). He argue that it is somewhat naïve to assume that images children see on television are simply stored in the child's mind without any measure of active

interpretation on the part of the child. That is to say that the characteristics of a person whether a man or women is not a product of what he sees on TV but a product of his/her innate quality.

5.8. Age and the Leadership Style of Men and Women:

It has been suggested that different age group, according to Judge (2008), perceived the role of women and men in the society differently, that is to say people who are older or younger conform to the expectation of their generation. It was suggested that attitudes often experience a shift within individuals, over time. But this view was not confirmed by this result or convincingly by other researches done on this topic.

The result of table 36 did not conform to any of the above expectations and did not substantiate the hypothesis 6 which states that there is a significant difference between the self-perception of the leadership styles of male and female leaders based on age differences. The result in this study, however, supports the result of the study done by Oshagbemi (2004) in which he discovered that both the young and old leaders practise directive and delegate leadership to the same degree, except for participative leadership where older leaders display more a participative leadership style than the younger ones. However, for this study there is no significant difference in the leadership style among all the age groups in our study.

5.9. Race and the Leadership Style of Men and Women:

The results of table 39 and 40 indicate no significant difference in the leadership within and among the race groups, except for charisma. Within the group, there is a significant difference between male and female respondents.

The mean values reflected in Table 40a; show that the Asian female respondents have a higher mean value for Charisma than the Asian male respondents. The mean score for female leaders (m=4.1429) is higher than that of the male leaders (m=3.5455) which shows that female leaders exhibit more idealised influence on their subordinates. Female leaders in this category display conviction, emphasis trust, take stands on difficult issues, present their most important value, and emphasis the importance of purpose, commitment more than their male counterparts do. The hypothesis which says that Asian women will demonstrate a higher charisma (individualised

influence) then their male counters was substantiated, so it is accepted. There is that competition for women in general and Asian female leaders in particular because of cultural reasons to prove themselves that they are equal to male leaders, so they have to do a bit extra to motivate their employees to give their best.

5.10. Position and the Leadership Style of Male and Female leaders:
The results of the Mann-Whitney U in table 42a show that there is a significant difference in the dimensions of motivation for the frontline group and the task oriented behaviour within the middle managers group. But there is no significant difference for the other dimension.

The follow up or ad hoc test show that the mean score of (m=4.375) for women is higher than that of the male leaders of (m=3.500) which indicate that female leaders in this category are more likely than men to articulate an appealing vision of the future, challenge followers with high standards talk optimistically and with enthusiasm, and provide encouragement and meaning for what needs to be done. The male leaders in the middle management (m=4.142) have a higher mean score than the female leaders (m=3.166). This is an indication that male leaders of middle management are more concerned about results, profits, bottom-line and finance than they care about the welfare of the workers.

5.11. Correlation of the Variables:
It is important to note that the results in table 43 show an interesting relationship between the main dependent variables. The results indicate that leaders who use authoritarian leadership also use transactional leadership and those who employ a transformational leadership style also employ democratic leadership style as well. This combination allows for participation of the subordinates in making decision that affecting their welfare and are more likely to accept any outcome of the decision reached. The best of all the relationship in the result is the relationship between the transactional and transformational leadership style which has a higher moderate correlation (.611). This is an indication that the respondents often employ these two leadership styles, which is very important for the survival of the organisations in this economic downturn. An effective leader is the one who seeks for maximum performance from the subordinates as well seeks for the welfare of those who work under her/him. This relationship is more likely than

any thing else to bring out the best in the employees and reduces resistance to change, reduce staff turnover, improves productivity and the bottom-line. The questionable correlation is the one between the authoritarian and delegate leadership styles because both styles do not care much about the welfare of their subordinates and they are more likely to lead to poor productivity, increase resistance and high employee turnover.

5.12. Summary:

The results of this study did not show much difference in the leadership styles of men and women leaders but there are a few differences in the leadership dimensions of the transformational and transactional leadership style. Some researches in the past have identified differences in the way men and women lead, however, others identify no differences. Examples of those who did not identify any difference in their study include Foti, et al (2003) and Rechardson, et al (2008) who also cited some other researchers where no differences were discovered, (Kolb (1999) and Shimanoff et al (1991). These examples indicate that there are more similarities than differences in the leadership style of men and women. The result of this particular study therefore, supports the idea that there are more similarities than differences in the leadership styles of male and female leaders.

The findings in this study is a good news for employers in general and South African women in particular, because in order to succeed or be successful in a leadership position women must pattern their behaviour and style to that traditionally ascribed to men in leadership (Korabitk, 1990). Moreover, men on the other hand must incorporate the female style of leadership because it has been recognised that the leadership style attributed to women is best suited for the present difficult economic reality.

However insignificant the differences may be, it is wise to mention that women score slightly higher than men in the leadership styles traditionally ascribed to women. For example, the results of table 26 show women leaders scored slightly higher than men in the participative/democratic and transformational leadership styles and they equally scored slightly higher in some dimensions of transformational leadership, intellectually stimulating, charisma, and motivation. Men score slightly higher in autocratic, transactional and delegate leadership styles. Men also

scored slightly higher in other dimensions like management by exemption and task oriented behaviours. These are the traditional leadership styles the society ascribed to women and men in the leadership position. This is an indication, however, that whatever differences there are in the past between male and female leadership such differences have diminished. This change of attitude can be mainly attributed to the awareness created on this important topic in recent times.

5.13. Conclusion:

The result of this study supports the argument of the American Psychological Association (2006) which stated that some men will have more "feminine" leadership styles and some women will have more "masculine" leadership styles. In the meantime, employers would do well to remember that gender-based bias can help or hinder not only the workers but their organization as well. We conclude bearing in mind the result of this study. Judging women on the basis of gender, given the findings of overall equal leadership skill, not only denies opportunity to talented women also hinders organizational development or survival.

5.14. Recommendations:

As we have already pointed out above there are many similarities in the leadership styles and behaviour of male and female respondents in this study. The similarities in the leadership style of male and female can be attributed to the fact that the respondents have been studying management together and both groups have internalised what it mean to be a good leaders. Therefore, I recommend that organisations should add a gender-positive module to their programme of study and provide a realistic job preview of how to educate women in their employment so that they can be able to counter the negative effects of gender stereotyping.

Internship programmes should be expanded to include experiences in a gender-positive environment; the training needs in the organisation should aim at helping male and female leaders to become more effective in managing problems generated by male-female relationships at work by increasing their understanding of each others' perspective.

Universities also should make some changes in the curriculum, for instance changes can be made in the traditional course taught in the business/management core area, for example gender case

may be used in human resource management classes to help eliminate gender stereotypes against women in leadership position.

Since the labour force population itself is undergoing major demographical change, it is imperative for organisations to take stock of where they are and what they need to do to keep in tune with realistic needs and challenges brought about by the increase in numbers of women in leadership positions.

5.15.   Recommendations for Further Research

We recommend that further research should be carried out in a big company where both the leaders and the subordinates will be sampled this is to enable the researcher to incorporate a bigger number of respondents in the study so as to avoid bias and improve the reliability of the result.

We recommend research involving evaluations of leaders by supervisors, subordinates, and peers in real world settings be carried out (Walumbwa, et al. (2001).

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Appendix 1

Reliability

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
L1	25.20	25.959	.279	.579
L4	26.84	25.851	.160	.608
L7	25.40	25.347	.333	.568
L10	26.18	25.457	.184	.603
L13	26.06	24.588	.302	.572
L16	25.72	23.593	.383	.552
L19	25.52	26.173	.153	.608
L22	25.82	22.396	.497	.521
L25	26.62	24.730	.263	.582
L28	25.12	25.128	.273	.579

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.604	10

Reliability

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
L2	33.22	28.951	.279	.759
L5	33.14	26.000	.463	.736
L8	33.72	30.573	.031	.797
L11	33.02	23.653	.724	.696
L14	33.68	25.242	.555	.723
L17	33.14	29.225	.251	.762
L20	33.24	25.329	.565	.722
L23	33.04	24.570	.586	.717
L26	33.22	25.563	.530	.727
L29	33.76	28.145	.299	.758

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.762	10

Reliability

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
L3	28.88	24.230	.235	.653
L6	28.56	22.129	.423	.611
L9	28.70	26.500	.020	.700
L12	27.78	22.951	.540	.598
L15	28.54	23.274	.341	.629
L18	27.54	25.233	.320	.637
L21	28.10	21.643	.468	.600
L24	27.80	24.776	.286	.640
L27	28.46	22.988	.443	.610
L30	28.06	24.058	.265	.646

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.658	10

Reliability

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
L31	28.14	10.776	.671	.632
L33	28.24	11.941	.518	.670
L35	28.22	11.767	.546	.664
L37	28.22	13.155	.303	.710
L39	28.34	11.576	.479	.675
L41	28.26	12.482	.414	.690
L42	28.32	12.059	.383	.696
L43	28.92	13.218	.109	.769

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.718	8

Reliability

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
L32	24.58	11.106	.365	.369
L34	24.90	10.500	.272	.382
L36	24.68	10.753	.344	.364
L38	25.14	9.796	.380	.330
L40	24.74	11.258	.240	.402
L44	25.12	13.822	-.202	.570
L45	25.88	10.924	.116	.459
L46	25.72	9.879	.234	.399

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.449	8

Questionnaire

Please answer questions 1-8 by circling the appropriate number in each question below.

1. Gender: **1. Male............ 2. Female...................**

2. Marital Status: **1.** Married.... 2. Never married.... 3. Living with a partner.... 5. Divorced/separated.... 6. Widowed..... 7. Others.....

3. Age: **1. 20-25.... 2. 26-30.... 3. 31-34.... 4. 36-30.... 5. 41 +**

4. Programme: **MBA: 1. First rear.......2. Second year ....3. PhD...........................**

5. Years of education in higher institutions: **1. 0-4yrs..... 2. 5-7..... 3. 8-11..... 4. 12-15... 5. 16+**

6. Race: **1. African..... 2. Asians ...... 3. Coloured...... 4. Whites........**

7. Religion: In what religion were you raised? **1. African Traditional Religion …… 2. Christianity ….3. Hinduism…. 4. Islam …. 5. Jewish …. 6. Others please indicate…**

8. If <u>Christianity</u> please indicate which denomination: **1. Protestant…. 2. Baptist….3. Methodist….4. Roman Catholic…. 5. Pentecostals…... 6. Lutheran**.

9. How many hours (at an average) are your family turned to a television in a day? **1. 1- 4hrs..... 2. 5 -7hrs...... 3. 7-10...... 4. 11-14hrs...... 5. 15hrs +**

10. What is your current/last leadership position held in your organisation? **1. Front-line.... 2. Middle-manager..... 3. Senior manager.**

Leadership Style Survey: Directions

This questionnaire contains statements about leadership style beliefs. Next to each statement, circle the number that represents how strongly you feel about the statement by using the following scoring system: **Almost Always True – 5, Frequently True - 4, Occasionally True – 3, Seldom True – 2 , Almost Never True - 1** Be honest about your choices as there is no right or wrong answers.

1	I always retain the final decision making authority within my department or team.	5	4	3	2	1
2.	I always try to include one or more employees in determining what to do and how to do it. However, I maintain the final decision making authority.	5	4	3	2	1
3.	I and my employees always vote whenever a major decision has to be made.	5	4	3	2	1
4.	I do not consider suggestions made by my employees as I do not have the time for them.	5	4	3	2	1
5.	I ask for employee ideas and input on upcoming plans and projects.	5	4	3	2	1
6.	For a major decision to pass in my department, it must have the approval of each individual or the majority.	5	4	3	2	1

7.	I tell my employees what has to be done and how to do it.	5	4	3	2	1
8.	When things go wrong and I need to create a strategy to keep a project or process running on schedule, I call a meeting to get my employee's advice.	5	4	3	2	1
9.	To get information out, I send it by email, memos, or voice mail; very rarely is a meeting called. My employees are then expected to act upon the information.	5	4	3	2	1
10	When someone makes a mistake, I tell them not to ever do that again and make a note of it.	5	4	3	2	1
11.	I want to create an environment where the employees take ownership of the project. I allow them to participate in the decision making process.	5	4	3	2	1
12.	I allow my employees to determine what needs to be done and how to do it.	5	4	3	2	1
13.	New hires are not allowed to make any decisions unless it is approved by me first.	5	4	3	2	1
14.	I ask employees for their vision of where they see their jobs going and then use their vision where appropriate.	5	4	3	2	1
15.	My workers know more about their jobs than me, so I allow them to carry out the decisions to do their job.	5	4	3	2	1
16.	When something goes wrong, I tell my employees that a procedure is not working correctly and I establish a new one.	5	4	3	2	1
17.	I allow my employees to set priorities with my guidance.	5	4	3	2	1
18.	I delegate tasks in order to implement a new procedure or process.	5	4	3	2	1
19.	I closely monitor my employees to ensure they are performing correctly.	5	4	3	2	1
20	When there are differences in role expectations, I work with them to resolve the differences.	5	4	3	2	1
21.	Each individual is responsible for defining their job.	5	4	3	2	1
22.	I like the power that my leadership position holds over subordinates.	5	4	3	2	1
23.	I like to use my leadership power to help subordinates grow.	5	4	3	2	1
24.	I like to share my leadership power with my subordinates.	5	4	3	2	1
25.	Employees must be directed or threatened with punishment in order to get them to achieve the organizational objectives.	5	4	3	2	1
26.	Employees will exercise self-direction if they are committed to the objectives.	5	4	3	2	1
27.	Employees have the right to determine their own organizational objectives.	5	4	3	2	1
28.	Employees seek mainly security.	5	4	3	2	1
29.	Employees know how to use creativity and ingenuity to solve organizational problems.	5	4	3	2	1
30.	My employees can lead themselves just as well as I can.	5	4	3	2	1
31.	I talks optimistically and enthusiastically about the future.	5	4	3	2	1
32.	I clarify expectation and rewards for meeting expectations.	5	4	3	2	1
33.	I articulate a compelling vision for the future.	5	4	3	2	1
34.	I provide reward for meeting expectations.	5	4	3	2	1
35.	I encouraged and challenges subordinate to think in a new way.	5	4	3	2	1
36.	I am always concerned with tasks and goal accomplishment.	5	4	3	2	1
37.	I emphasis critical thinking before implementing solution to problem.	5	4	3	2	1

		5	4	3	2	1
38.	I enforce rule to meet performance standard for the organisation.	5	4	3	2	1
39.	I considers each employee's needs, abilities and aspirations.	5	4	3	2	1
40.	I am always concerned with the wellbeing and satisfaction of the subordinates.	5	4	3	2	1
41.	I work with followers to help them develop their individual full potentials.	5	4	3	2	1
42.	I motivate sense of pride and respect from subordinates.	5	4	3	2	1
43.	I display power and confidence when working with subordinates.	5	4	3	2	1
44.	I allow followers to continue doing their jobs as always if performance goals are met.	5	4	3	2	1
45	I do not get involved with subordinates until failures or deviations in workflow occur.	5	4	3	2	1
46	I do routinely provide negative feedback.	5	4	3	2	1

Item	Score	Item	Score	Item	Score
1	_____	2	_____	3	_____
4	_____	5	_____	6	_____
7	_____	8	_____	9	_____
10	_____	11	_____	12	_____
13	_____	14	_____	15	_____
16	_____	17	_____	18	_____
19	_____	20	_____	21	_____
22	_____	23	_____	24	_____
25	_____	26	_____	27	_____
28	_____	29	_____	30	_____
TOTAL	_____	TOTAL	_____	TOTAL	_____
	Authoritarian Style		Participative Style		Delegate Style
	(autocratic)		**(democratic)**		(laissez faire)

Item	Score	Item	Score
31	_____	32	_____
33	_____	34	_____
35	_____	36	_____
37	_____	38	_____
39	_____	40	_____
41	_____	44	_____
42	_____	45	_____
43	_____	46	_____
TOTAL		TOTAL	_____

	Transformational		Transactional

Transformational leadership (For men and women)
Intellectually stimulating---------questions 35 and 37
Individualized consideration----39 and 41
Charisma ----42 and 43
Motivation --- 31 and 33

 Transaction leadership (for men and women)
 Contingent reward---32, 34, 44
Management by exemption – 45, 46
Relationship oriented – 40 and 38
 Task oriented --- 36

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12 September 2009

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Dear Mr Nwokeiwu

PROTOCOL: Analysis of Gender Role Socialisation influence on Perception of Leadership
Style of Males and Females
ETHICAL APPROVAL NUMBER: HSS/0514/2009

In response to your application dated 07 August 2009, Student Number: **991238211** the
Humanities & Social Sciences Ethics Committee has considered the abovementioned
application and the protocol has been given **FULL APPROVAL.**

PLEASE NOTE: Research data should be securely stored in the school/department for a
period of 5 years.

I take this opportunity of wishing you everything of the best with your study.

Yours faithfully

Professor Steve Collings (Chair)
HUMANITIES & SOCIAL SCIENCES ETHICS COMMITTEE

cc: Dr A S Gani
cc: Prof. S Perumal
cc: Mrs C Haddon