



RESEARCH PAPER

Analysis of Gender Based Variations in Leadership Styles and its Efficacy

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ABSTRACT

The central objective of this study has been to explore the gender based variances in decision making patterns and its effectiveness. Allah Almighty has created human being with variant potentials and capabilities. Men and women do have a gender based varying status and role to perform in a society according to its expectations. A number of 60 respondents were face-to-face interviewed consisting of 30 male managers and 30 female managers working in different organizations having at least one-year managerial experience. The sampling area has been the district Kohat of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa and Islamabad, the Federal Capital of the Islamic Republic of Pakistan. The findings of study have shown that there were variations in decision making, involvement of employees in the organizational processes, consultation-status of employees in decision making, leadership choices and pace of decision making etc. with respect to differences of males and females. Female leaders were at advantage in making consultation-based decisions, while male leaders were at advantage of implementing decisions gradually. It is recommended that the leaders should adopt democratic leadership style for effectiveness by involving their employees in decision making processes.

Keywords: Decision Making, Gender Variances, Leadership, Manager, Organization, Social

Introduction

The leadership is important goal of human-being. For integration, organization and functioning of a human group, institution or society, the functional and effective leadership is crucial. The societies develop much and remain successful whose leaders are playing their roles efficiently. The concept and role of leader in guiding human society is as old as the era of Holy Prophet Adam Peace Be Upon Him. For current era, the matchless role-model leadership is of the Holy Prophet Muhammad Peace Be Upon Him. Females make about 49.60% of world population with males' ratio of 50.40% in 2018. Globally women are increasingly contributing in different capacities at all levels in public and private organizations. The male and female leadership need significant and diverse role to organize, run, and lead society smoothly. Both male and female play their role in organizations as managers, leaders, and as subordinates. An increased number of women are working at the top-management levels in the well-established organizations, and are leading in a surprisingly better way. These days, in Pakistan females do are making high level contributions as leaders. However, in this connection proper and scientific studies are lacking to analyze the phenomena in a systematic way by comparing the effectiveness of females' leadership in relation to the leadership of males.

The current study is designed to study the leadership styles of women and men working in different organizations. The study does have focus on consequent effects of

leadership styles of male and female in the development of organizations, satisfaction level of employees and effectiveness of the decisions made by them.

Literature Review

The Concept of Gender

According to Hannan (2008) gender refers to socially constructed roles learned through socialization, social traits and prospects associated with female and male, and interrelationships among them, and relations between 'women and women' and between 'men and men'. These characteristics are specific in relation to framework and time, hence are variable. The gender regulates about the anticipated, permitted and cherished roles for woman or man in a perspective. The conception of gender is varying from that of sex; the term sex does refer to physiological variances of females and males, hence gender means the distinct responsibilities, roles, privileges, opportunities, and expectations attributed to females and males in a particular society. It exhibits that the society regulates the determined roles for males and females to behave in particular ways. Usually, society decides that what men and women to be, what different roles they should be playing at their household, at market-place, government and office etc. (Akinboye, 2004). The terminology sex refers to the classification of individuals as females or males grounded upon their genetic built, anatomical and reproductive tasks, while gender is referred to connotations that communities and individuals assign to male and female groups (Becker & Eagly, 2004). Such variances prevail usually in most social perspectives and persists in ways men and women leaders lead. Oakley (1972) refers to sex as a natural dissection inferred from fundamental physiological differences of females and males, wherein such variances are determined genetically, chiefly constant and common. While, gender refers to cultural, psychological, and social traits recognizing someone as female or as male, and that are significantly variable and continuously varying across cultures.

The Leadership

Appleby (1994) says that leadership stands for directing. The actions of leader are dedicated toward helping groups in achieving its objectives. The leadership is also said to be the managerial capability of inducing subordinate for working toward achieving group goals. Bass (1974) while defining leadership theories says that "Great Man Theories" believe that the capacities of leaders as inherent. The "Trait Theories" also believe that individuals inherit traits and qualities which enable them for leadership. The "Contingency Theories" concentrate on specific environmental variables specifying leadership style best suited to a situation. The "Situational Theories" propose that leaders select most suitable path of action relying on situational variables. The "Behavioral Theories" assumes that the traits and qualities of leadership are not inherited; that can be learnt and expertised by almost all people. The "Participative Theories" say that the finest leadership style uses others' input into consideration. The "Management or Transactional Theories" concentrate upon importance of organization, supervision and performance of group, leadership based on mechanism of reward and punishment. The "Relationship or Transformational Theories" concentrate on links developed among leaders and followers; Transformational leaders do inspire and motivate group members by supporting them visualize significance and value of task.

The "Leadership Style" is meant as a way and method of giving path, executing plans, and inspiring employees. Cherry (2006) states that Kurt Lewin while leading a researchers' group in 1939 identified various leadership styles and explored that in the "Authoritarian or Autocratic leadership style" the leaders do direct employees about their will to achieve something and the manner of achieving their will, without receiving counsel of followers. In "Participative or Democratic leadership style" leader includes employee(s) in process of decision-making i.e. deciding what is to be done and in what manner. In "Declarative or Free

Reign leadership style” leader involve employees in decision-making, while being responsible for the decisions made. However, an upright leader uses all three styles, taking into consideration the forces involved between leader, followers and situation. The “Strategic leadership” involves a sequence of stages in which members of organization analyze prevailing situation and decide, implement, appraise, alter or change strategies as per requirement, involving fundamental functions of management. In “Transactional leadership” leaders give resources to the followers and recompense in place for productivity, motivation and effective task achievement. Bass (1990) and, Bass and Avolio (1994) say that transactional leadership basically is an interchange process among leaders and followers. Herein, the leader recognizes particular follower’s wishes and delivers commodities meeting wishes in place for followers achieving determined objectives or executing particular duties (Northouse, 2001). While, Transformational leadership is grounded on values, peculiar beliefs and on leader’s potentials and is characterized by the capability to fetch noteworthy change, not restricted to organization’s strategy, culture and vision but also in technologies and products (Bass & Avolio, 1990).

Variances in Gender Based Leadership Styles

The females and males are inclined toward differing patterns of leadership, numerous studies found gender based variations in leadership style (Bass, Avolio & Atwater, 1996; Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001). The men are inclined to authoritative style, hence females are inclined to transformational leadership style, depending mainly on relational skills. The career path and socialization describes regarding women’s leading variantly. Until 1960s, women and men were conveyed messages regarding expectations held from them e.g. women to be volunteers, wives, teachers, nurses, and mothers etc. Theirs such roles were making them supportive, understanding, cooperative, kind, providing service to others, while men were supposed to be appearing as strong, tough, competitive, in control and decisive. This division of roles expresses women of today as interactive leaders (Rosener, 1990). The observation can decide regarding females internalizing traditional gender-role behaviors linked to support and nurturing obviously descended toward transformational leadership (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Davidson and Cooper (1992) argues that women do management by rewards and men are inclined to manage through punishment, emphasizing variances in method of leadership among two groups and argues that women are socialized to maintain individuals’ domestic relationships and have stretched skills attained from household to workplace.

Gardiner and Tiggermann (1999) suggested that both gender and its ratio in industry effects leadership pattern, mental health and stress. Griggs (1989) said that the leadership traits of women are summarily described as: use consensus while making decisions, do power sharing, use productive methods to conflict, develop supportive work atmosphere and diversified workplace. These traits express that women are contented in environments of work that are not “boss-centred” hence evolve noticeably adaptive leadership styles. Vinnicombe and Cames (1998) found that female leaders marked themselves upper compared with male managers on together instrumental and expressive characteristics, they forward that belief “think manager, think male” is transforming and female leaders think that they are equally capable to males. Govender and Bayat (1993) suggested that for organizations it is significantly important to know that what stops leaders from transiting the leadership style, and what type of organizational and individual intercessions may be applied for bringing variations to take place. They stand that gender may be a slight deliberation, as both women and men may be recognized for skills maximizing organizational accomplishment.

Bass (1990) and, Bass and Stogdill (1990) establish particular variations based on gender in pattern of leadership. There are lesser chances that women exercise management-by-exception, intercessing merely when anything goes erroneous, they also especially respond reproach positively. The women may be more likely as charismatic, because they

are ranked higher on transformation feature as compared with men. Phillips (1995) argues regarding gender variances that female business leaders state their business like family. Thus, as organizational managers, female are inclined toward emphasizing on nurturing, praising and caring employees' relationships. Phillips argue that, in case an employee is unable to fulfill expectations, female leaders buffer criticism by anything praiseworthy. It is often claimed that males are bureaucratic and directive leaders, while females are rational and collaborative. Through research, Collard (2001) confirmed importance of gender differences in principalship, findings restraints opposite to considering them as unilateral and solitary influences, e.g. either managers working in secondary or principal setting, in a Govt. or autonomous school, often use a commanding effect regardless of their gender. Evidently issues about leaders' gender may not be comprehended fully without linking it to environment of organization.

Envick and Langford (1998) found that controlling behavior, considered formerly as a routine male trait, was in actual existing among females' business managers. They stand that female entrepreneur managers are by their choice inspired to be in power, making stance that control is expressed at work. The female business managers remain engaged in management of human resource and in in-house communication. Van Engen et al. (2001) analyzed that organizational context influences on gender-typing of leadership behavior of men and women leaders, hence found no gender based leadership styles variances, hence the location of organization surprisingly effects manager's behavior. Jaggi (1977) analyzed attitudinal style of managers to found link of leadership style to job satisfaction, hence findings gone against expectancy of higher satisfaction from job linked to supervision's closeness, hence satisfaction of job was positively associated to degree of participation and consultation.

Burke and Collins (2001) bring forward the self-reported patterns of leadership of females varying somehow from styles of leadership of males, as females were using the transformational leadership, receiving more opportunities of development as compare to their male-colleagues. The male managers that mostly do decision-making which affect ascending mobility of females, were found as perceiving the traits required for managerial achievements being connected with those often ascribed to men. Grant (1988) argued that there are few visible behavioural and personality variances between male and female managers. As and when females move upwards in corporate sector, they start identifying with men's model of managerial achievements. Few female managers subsequently reject even some of managerial feminine characteristics they might have previously validated.

Oakley (2000) analyzed numerous clarifications due to which women could not reach top positions including deficiency of relevant experience, lack of employment openings, gender based variances in linguistic styles and socialization, stereotypes linked with gender, old boy web at top and tokenism etc. Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt (2001) found that pattern of leadership inclined to be stereotypical based on gender. The female's transformational leadership style and usage of conditional incentives in addition to minimum usage of management-by-exception and laissez-faire style must augment effectiveness of organization. Such discoveries hence resound with consideration that journalists given to likelihood that females are good leaders as compared with males. Hence, focus should be on pinpointing roles of leadership and activities which a particular gender may perform better. Bass (1990) found no regular style of gender variances in leadership behaviour and style, hence even if gender variances persist in style of leadership, then necessarily be positioned in an appropriate perspective. Phillips (1995) argues that male and female varies among themselves in style of leadership, enormous men leaders are oriented toward relations and many female leaders exercise control and command. Many females consider that female leaders may become hostile and malicious than male managers. Quick decision-making, risk taking, and practicing sense of humour are linked

with men's managerial style, while sense of sensitivity and nurturing to persons and familial requirements are associated with the women's managerial style.

Kabacoff and Peters (1998) argue that female and male leaders differ, but that they are quite effective. Kabacoff (1998) found that females inclined to get higher scores on leadership scales assessing positioning towards results and production achievement are graded higher on mass-oriented leadership skills, while males are inclined to grade higher on orientation directed toward planning of strategies, organization's vision and on business-oriented skills of leadership. While regarding general effectiveness of leadership, supervisors observe male and female managers as effective correspondingly, hence peers and straight reports regarded females as somehow higher as compared to males. Kabacoff (2000) found connections between leadership effectiveness and leadership behaviours differing due to gender. Pounder and Coleman (2002) stated that in spite of some proof of an increasing deliberation of females to take up posts of leadership in field, educational leadership sector is till now a male sanctuary. They summarized some aspects which may be considered for variances in style of leadership, for example, socialization, national culture, nature of organization and its demographics. Peters and Kabacoff (2002) found fewer variances between behaviour of leadership of males and females in higher posts than for persons in lower cadres of management, arguing that seeming two variances between usual women managers and females that have broken through "glass ceiling". They argue that females in executive positions incline to be as leaning to strategic thinking and deliberated for risk taking likely to males. They approved that usefulness of men and women executives may be assessed utilizing varying criterions. Hence males are assessed on value of action-orientation and forcefulness, while females are inclined to be assessed on their capability of creating and sustaining affirmative interpersonal relationships.

Hypotheses

Based on available literature, observation and general view of society, the following hypotheses were evolved for study: -

Research Hypothesis-I: "The female leaders' decision making pattern and style is different from that of the male leaders in study area".

Research Hypothesis-II: "The male leaders' leadership is more effective and successful than that of the female leaders in study area".

Material and Methods

Nature

The focus of research is on gender based variations within contrary leadership practices while using descriptive form of research stating the prevailing social processes in context of phenomena under study.

Population

The universe for this research study has been formal organizations in district Kohat, of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa and Islamabad, the Federal Capital of the Islamic Republic of Pakistan. From universe, different organizations i.e. Schools, Colleges, Universities, Govt. Organizations, Private Organizations and NGOs from Kohat and Islamabad were selected. The selected organizations were indigenous, established from at least last five years having at least ten (10) workers/employees and faced no major crises in previous five years. The respondents were selected criterion based i.e. the respondents were having at least one year's leadership experience in an organization as manager, administrator or head, having

at least eight (09) employees working in their team/subordination or administrative control.

Sample Size

As this research is based on gender sensitive leadership style and effectiveness comparison, therefore a number of 30 males and a number of 30 females, totaling 60 respondents were selected. The respondents were Pakistanis having their age between 25 to 40 years. The respondents were not selected having their own business leadership or having own organization. This was done for neutralizing their personal dedicated involvement in affairs of their organization. They were the paid employees of organization having at least three years' contract or a regular service

Sample Technique

For primary data collection purpose, respondents were selected through non-probability sampling method, and purposive sampling technique was used for further narrowing down respondents' selection criterion.

Instrument

The data has been collected through face to face interviews of respondents while using an interview schedule. For some questions scales were used, for example, agreed, strongly agreed, disagreed, strongly disagreed; yes, no, to some extent. The primary data was gathered in year 2022.

Pilot Testing

Before start of actual data collection, the pilot testing of the instrument, i. e. interview schedule, was tested, and final adjustments were made accordingly.

Validity and Reliability

The validity, by mean of accurate instrument was assured, while reliability - consistency was also tested.

Data Analysis Technique

The collected data has been analyzed while using statistical averages/percentages, in quantitative form.

Ethical Considerations

The respondents were briefed about objectives and significance of research. They were ensured about their confidentiality, and their willingness was sought before conduct of interviews.

Primary Data Collection and Analysis

The collected data has been tabulated and described while using statistical averages/percentages, in quantitative form. The primary data was given in tables in three categories i.e. all respondents (males and females) responses, male respondents' responses and female respondents' responses.

Results and Discussion

Table 1
Knowledge of Leaders Regarding Different Leadership Styles

Gender of leader	Knowledge about different leadership styles			Best leadership style in respondents opinion		
	Yes(%)	No(%)	Somehow(%)	Authoritative (%)	Democratic(%)	Free reign(%)
Male	18(60)	7(23.33)	5(16.67)	8(26.67)	15(50)	7(23.34)
Female	19(63.33)	7(23.33)	4(13.34)	9(30)	14(46.67)	7(23.34)
Total	37(61.67)	14(23.33)	9(15)	17(28.34)	29(48.33)	14(23.33)

The Table-1 shows that out of total 60 respondents, 37(61.67%) told that they know about different leadership styles, 14(23.33%) do not know and 9(15%) know somehow. The 17(28.34%) respondent were liking authoritative leadership style, 29(48.33%) were liking democratic and 14(23.33%) were liking free reign leadership style. The comparison shows that 18(60%) males while 19(63.33%) female leaders do have knowledge of different leadership styles, 7(23.33%) males while 7(23.33%) females do not have and 5 (16.67%) males while 4(13.34%) females have somehow knowledge. The 8(26.67%) male while 9(30%) female leaders like authoritative leadership style, 15(50%) male while 14(46.67%) female leaders like democratic, and 7(23.34%) males while 7(23.34%) females liked free reign leadership style. Finding suggests that the difference between male and female leaders' knowledge regarding different leadership styles and liking of a particular leadership style is insignificant.

Table 2
Effectiveness of Decisions made by Leaders through Subordinates' Consultation

Gender of leaders	Decisions made through subordinate employees consultation are more effective				Sometimes the decisions made through leaders' personal will are more effective			
	Strongly agree (%)	Agree (%)	Disagree (%)	Strongly disagree (%)	Strongly agree (%)	Agree (%)	Disagree (%)	Strongly disagreed (%)
Males	5(16.67)	15(50)	10(23.33)	0(00.00)	9(30)	13(43.33)	8(26.67)	0(00.00)
Females	13(43.33)	11(36.67)	5(16.67)	1(3.34)	7(23.34)	9(30)	13(43.34)	1(3.34)
Total	18(30)	26(43.33)	15(25)	1(1.67)	16(26.67)	22(36.67)	21(35)	1(1.67)

The Table-2 shows that out of total 60 respondents, 18(30%) respondents strongly agreed that the decisions made with subordinates' consultation are more effective, 26(43.33%) agreed, 15(25%) disagreed and 1(1.67%) strongly disagreed. The 16(26.67%) respondents strongly agreed that sometimes the decisions made through personal will are more effective, 22(36.34%) agreed, 21(35%) disagreed and 1(1.67%) strongly disagreed. The comparison shows that 5(16.67%) male while 13(43.33%) female leaders strongly agreed that the decisions made through consultation with subordinate employees are more effective, 15(50%) males while 11(36.67%) females agreed, 10(23.33%) males while 5(16.67%) females disagreed and 00(00.00%) males while 1(1.67%) females strongly disagreed. The 9(30%) males while 7(23.34%) females strongly agreed that sometimes the decisions made through personal will are more effective, 13(43.33%) males while 9(30%) females agreed, 8(26.67%) males while 13(43.34%) females disagreed and 00(00.00%) males while 1(1.67%) females strongly disagreed. Inference is made that female leaders are slightly more inclined toward decision-making in consultation with employees rather than relying on their personal will.

Table 3
Status of Employees Inclusion in Decision Making

Gender of leaders	Leaders include employees in decision making process			Frequency of employees included in decision making process				
	Yes(%)	No(%)	To some extent(%)	A few(%)	Lesser(%)	Half(%)	More than half(%)	All(%)

Males	17(56.67)	8(26.67)	5(16.67)	8(26.67)	12(40)	8(26.67)	1(3.34)	1(3.34)
Females	18(60)	6(20)	6(20)	9(30)	7(23.34)	12(40)	1(3.34)	1(3.34)
Total	35(58.34)	14(23.34)	11(18.34)	17(28.34)	19(31.67)	20(33.34)	2(3.34)	2(3.34)

The Table-3 shows that out of total 60 respondents, 35(58.34%) respondents include their employees in decision making process, 14(23.34%) do not include and 11(18.34%) include employees to some extent. And out of the ratio of employees included in decision making, the 17(28.34%) respondents include a few of their employees in decision making process, 19(31.67%) include their lesser employees, 20(33.34%) include half of their employees, 2(2.34%) include more than half of their employees and 2(3.34%) include all of their employees in decision making process. The comparison shows that 17(56.67%) males while 18(60%) females agreed that they include their employees in decision making process, 8(26.67%) male while 6(20%) female leaders do not include their employees and 5(16.67%) males while 6(20%) females include their employees in decision making process to some extent. The 8(26.67%) males while 9(30%) females include a few of their employees in decision making process, 12(40%) males while 7(23.34%) females agreed for lesser employees, 8(26.67%) males while 12(40%) females agreed for half of employees, 1(3.34%) males while 1(3.34%) females agreed for more than half of employees and 1(3.34%) males while 1(3.33%) females agreed for all employees' inclusion in decision making process. The gender wise managerial style's difference regarding inclusion of employees in decision-making and number of employees included in decisions is less significant.

Table 4
Process Adopted while Making a Major Decision

Gender of leaders	Process adopted while making a major decision		Majority subordinates agree with leaders' decisions			Invite ideas from outside organizations' experts for upcoming plans		
	In group(%)	Individually (%)	Yes(%)	No(%)	Some extent(%)	Yes(%)	No(%)	Some extent(%)
Males	17(56.67)	13(43.34)	13(43.34)	12(40)	5(16.67)	17(56.67)	10(33.34)	3(10)
Females	21(70)	9(30)	20(66.67)	4(13.34)	6(20)	17(56.67)	9(30)	4(13.34)
Total	38(63.34)	22(36.67)	33(55)	16(26.67)	11(18.34)	34(56.67)	19(31.67)	7(11.67)

The **Table-4** shows that out of total 60 respondents, 38(63.34%) make major decisions in group, while 22(36.67%) make major decisions individually. The 33(55%) respondents told that majority subordinates agree with decisions of leaders, 16(26.67%) told that subordinates do not agree and 11(18.34%) told that they agree to some extent. The 34(56.67%) respondents invite ideas from outside organizations' experts for upcoming plans, 19(31.67%) do not invite ideas from outside organizations and 7(11.67%) invite ideas from outside organizations' experts for upcoming plans to some extent. The comparison shows that 17(56.67%) males while 21(70%) females like to take major decisions in group and 13(43.34%) males while 9(30%) females like to take major decisions individually. The 13(43.34%) male while 20(66.67%) female leaders told that subordinate employees agree with their decisions, 12(40%) males while 4(13.34%) females told that their subordinates do not agree with their decisions, 5(16.67%) males while 6(20%) females told that their subordinate employees agree to some extent with their decisions. The 17(56.67%) male while 17(56.67%) female leaders invite ideas from experts of outside organizations for upcoming plans, 10(33.34%) male while 9(30%) female leaders do not invite ideas of experts from outside organizations and 3(10%) males while 4(13.34%) females invite ideas of experts from outside organizations for upcoming plans to some extent. It is inferred that female leaders take significant lead with higher number in taking major decisions in group, while their number is less in taking decisions individually. Significant majority of female leaders told that their subordinates agree with their decisions. While there is almost no difference between male and female leaders regarding inviting ideas from outside organizations.

Table 5
Pace of Enforcing Decisions and Motivating Factors for Making Decisions

Gender of leaders	Pace of leaders enforcing decisions			Prime motivation for leaders' decision making		
	At once(%)	Gradually(%)	Slowly(%)	Self-interest(%)	Organizational interest(%)	Employees interest(%)
Males	8(26.67)	18(60)	4(13.34)	11(36.67)	13(43.34)	6(20)
Females	10(33.34)	15(50)	5(16.67)	1(3.34)	20(66.67)	6(20)
Total	18(30)	33(55)	9(15)	12(20)	33(55)	12(20)

Regarding pace of decision making, the **Table-5** shows that out of total 60 respondents, 18(30%) agreed that they enforce decisions at once, 33(55%) enforce decisions gradually and 9(15%) enforce decisions slowly. Regarding prime motivation for leader's decision making, the 12(20%) respondents make decisions for their self-interest, 33(55%) for organizational interest and 12(20%) for employees' interest. The comparison shows that 8(26.67%) male while 10(33.34%) female leaders enforce their decision at once, 18(60%) male while 15(50%) female leaders enforce their decisions gradually and 4(36.67%) male while 6(16.67%) female leaders enforce their decisions slowly. The 11(36.67%) male while 1(3.34%) female leaders make decisions on self-interest basis, 13(43.34%) males while 20(66.67%) females make decisions for organization's interest and 6(20%) males while 6(20%) females make decisions for employees' interest. Regarding enforcing decisions at once, females are at edge, while male leaders take edge in implementing decisions gradually. The females are at significant advantage on taking decisions for organizational interest, while males are more inclined toward taking decisions on self-interest basis. Male and female leaders have shown no difference regarding taking decisions for employees' interest.

Table 6
Pace and Strategic Basis of Taking Decisions

Gender of leaders	Speed at which leaders take decisions					Strategic basis of leaders taking decisions		
	Well before time (%)	On time (%)	After time (%)	Speedily (%)	Slowly (%)	Based on experience (%)	Based on planning (%)	Based on taking risk (%)
Males	6(20)	10(33.34)	9(30)	5(16.67)	00(00)	15(50)	11(36.67)	4(13.34)
Females	9(30)	13(43.34)	6(20)	2(6.67)	00(00)	14(46.67)	10(33.34)	6(20)
Total	15(25)	23(38.34)	15(25)	7(11.67)	00(00)	29(48.33)	22(36.67)	9(15)

Regarding speed at which leaders take decisions, the **Table-6** shows that out of total 60 respondents, 15(25%) take decisions well before time, 23(38.34%) on time, 15(25%) after time, 7(11.67%) speedily and no one agreed for taking decisions slowly. While, regarding strategic basis of leaders taking decisions, the 29(48.34%) respondents make decisions on experience basis, 22(33.67%) on planning basis and 10(16.67%) on risk taking basis. The comparison shows that 6(20%) male while 9(30%) female leaders take decisions well before time, 10(33.34%) males while 13(43.34%) females take decisions on time, 9(30%) male while 6(20%) female leaders take decisions speedily and no male or female leaders agreed for taking decisions slowly. The 15(50%) male while 14(46.67%) female leaders take decisions on strategic basis of experience, 11(36.67%) male while 10(33.34%) female leaders take decisions on the basis of proper planning and 4(13.34%) male while 6(20%) female leaders take decisions on the basis of taking risk. Females took advantage in taking decisions before time and on time, hence there is insignificant difference regarding mentioned strategic basis for taking decisions.

Table 7
Level of Cooperation of Employees and Achievement/Success Level

Gender of leaders	Level of employees' cooperation			Achievement level of leaders			
	Cooperative (%)	Cooperative somehow(%)	In-cooperative(%)	Always success(%)	Sometime success(%)	Often failure(%)	Sometime failure(%)
Males	9(30)	15(50)	6(20)	12(40)	13(43.34)	00(00)	5(16.67)
Females	17(56.67)	11(36.67)	2(6.67)	5(16.67)	16(53.34)	2(6.67)	7(23.34)
Total	26(43.34)	26(43.34)	8(13.34)	17(28.34)	29(48.34)	2(3.34)	12(20)

Regarding level of cooperation of employees with managers, the **Table-7** shows that out of total 60 respondents, 26(43.34%) told that their employees are cooperative, 26(43.34%) told that their employees are somehow cooperative, while 8(13.34%) told that their employees are in-cooperative. Regarding achievement level of leaders, the 17(28.34%) respondents shared their achievement level as always success, 29(48.34%) shared it as sometime successful, while 2(3.34%) shared it as it brings often failure and 12(20%) shared it as bringing sometime failure. The comparison shows that 9(30%) male while 17(56.67%) female leaders told that their subordinates/employees are cooperative, 15(50%) males while 11(36.67%) females said that their subordinates/employees are somehow cooperative and 6(20%) males while 2(6.67%) females said that their subordinates/employees are not cooperative. The 12(40%) males while 5(16.67%) females told that their achievement level in tasks is always successful, 13(43.34%) male while 16(53.34%) female leaders told that their achievement level in tasks is sometime successful, 00(00%) male while 2(6.67%) female told that their achievement level in tasks is often failure and 5(16.67%) male while 7(23.34%) female leaders told that their achievement level in tasks is sometime failure. Female leaders are at advantage regarding level of employees' cooperation, while males are at edge regarding success/achievement level.

Table 8
Achievement of Organizational Objectives Timely, Achievement of Devised Objectives Last Year and Status of Assigned Tasks' Manageability

Gender of leaders	Achieved organizational objectives in time			Last one year's devised objectives achievement			Assigned tasks are manageable		
	Yes(%)	No(%)	To some extent(%)	Yes(%)	No(%)	To some extent(%)	Yes(%)	No(%)	To some extent(%)
Males	17(56.67)	5(16.67)	8(26.67)	17(56.67)	9(30)	4(13.34)	17(56.67)	9(30)	4(13.34)
Females	14(46.34)	7(23.34)	9(30)	13(43.34)	5(16.67)	12(40)	19(63.34)	7(23.34)	4(13.34)
Total	31(51.67)	12(20)	17(28.34)	30(50)	14(23.34)	16(26.67)	36(60)	16(26.67)	8(13.34)

The **Table-8** shows that out of total 60 respondents, 31(51.67%) told that they achieve the organizational objectives in time, 12(20%) do not achieve and 17(28.34%) achieve to some extent. The 30(50%) respondents told that the last year's devised objectives are achieved, 14(23.34%) did not achieved and 16(26.67%) achieved it upto some extent. The 36(60%) respondents told that the tasks assigned to them are manageable, 16(26.67%) told that their tasks are not manageable and 8(13.34%) said that the tasks are manageable to some extent. The comparison shows that 17(57.67%) male while 14(46.34%) female leaders told that they achieve organizational objectives in time, 5(16.67%) male while 7(23.34%) female leaders do not achieve organizational objectives in time and 8(26.67%) males while 9(30%) females achieve their organizational objectives on time to some extent. The 17(56.67%) males while 13(43.34%) females told that the last year's devised objectives were achieved, 9(30%) male while 5(16.67%) female leaders did not achieve the last year's devised objectives and 4(13.34%) male while 12(40%) female told that the last year's devised objectives were achieved to some extent. The 17(56.67%) male while 19(63.34%) female leaders told that the assigned tasks are manageable by them, 9(30%) male while 7(23.34%) female leaders told that the assigned tasks are not manageable, 4(13.34%) male while 4(13.34%) females told that the assigned tasks are manageable for them to some extent. Regarding organizational objectives achievement, male leaders were at advantage. While regarding the manageability of assigned tasks, female leaders were at advantage.

Table 9
Tasks' Successfulness Credit and Failure's Responsibility

Gender of leaders	Successfulness's credit in tasks			Failure's responsibility in tasks		
	Selfly(%)	Employees(%)	Community(%)	Selfly(%)	Employees(%)	Community(%)
Males	8(26.67)	13(43.34)	9(30)	11(36.67)	14(46.67)	5(16.67)
Females	6(20)	11(36.67)	13(43.34)	5(16.67)	16(53.34)	9(30)
Total	14(23.34)	24(40)	22(36.67)	16(26.67)	30(50)	14(23.34)

Regarding giving credit of success in managerial tasks, the Table-9 shows that out of total 60 respondents, 14(23.34%) take credit of success in tasks by themselves, while 24(40%) give it to their employees and 22(36.67%) give it to community. While regarding failure's responsibility in managerial tasks, the 16(26.67%) respondents consider themselves responsible for failure in tasks, while 30(50%) consider their employees and 14(23.34%) consider community as responsible for failure in tasks. The comparison shows that 8(26.67%) male while 6(20%) female leaders take credit for themselves of success in tasks, 13(43.34%) males while 11(36.67%) females given credit to their employees and 9(30%) males while 13(43.34%) females give credit of success in tasks to community. The 11(36.67%) males while 5(16.67%) females consider themselves responsible for failure in tasks, 14(46.67%) males while 16(53.34%) females consider their employees as responsible for failure in tasks and 5(16.67%) males while 9(30%) females consider community as responsible for their unsuccessful in tasks. More number of male leaders took credit of success in tasks for themselves and given to employees, while more females give it to community. More males take responsibility of failure in tasks for themselves, while more females consider employees and community responsible.

Table 10
Opinion of Respondents Regarding Effect on their Success level if They were of Opposite Gender

Gender of leaders	If respondents were of opposite gender then their success level would have been different			If yes, then type of effect	
	Yes(%)	No(%)	To some extent(%)	Positive effect(%)	Negative effect(%)
Males	10(33.34)	14(46.67)	6(16.67)	4(13.34)	12(40)
Females	6(20)	13(43.34)	11(36.67)	5(16.67)	12(40)
Total	16(26.67)	27(45)	17(28.34)	9(15)	24(40)

The Table-10 shows that out of total 60 respondents, 16(26.67%) told that if they were of opposite gender then their success level would have been different, 27(45%) disagreed with any difference and 17(28.34%) agreed with difference upto some extent. The 9(15%) respondents were of view that it would have brought positive effects and 24(40%) have opined with negative effects. The comparison shows that 10(33.34%) males while 6(20%) females were of view that if they were of opposite gender then the level of their success would have been effected, 14(46.67%) males while 13(43.34%) females disagreed and 6(16.67%) males while 11(36.67%) females agreed with difference upto some extent. The 4(13.34%) male while 5(16.67%) female leaders viewed that if they were of opposite gender, it would have positively affected their success level in tasks achievement and 12(40%) males, while 12(40%) females viewed for negative effects. The significantly greater number of male leaders viewed that their success level would have been different if they were of opposite gender.

Table 11
Opinion of Respondents Regarding Opposite Sex is More Successful in Leadership and Type of Gender Contributing More in Completing Tasks

Gender of leaders	Respondents view opposite gender more successful in leadership			Type of gender contributing more in successful completion of tasks		
	Yes(%)	No(%)	To some extent(%)	Males(%)	Females(%)	Both(%)
Males	10(33.34)	17(56.57)	3(10)	16(53.34)	8(26.67)	6(20)
Females	12(40)	8(26.67)	10(33.34)	10(33.34)	14(46.34)	6(20)
Total	22(36.67)	25(41.67)	13(21.67)	26(43.34)	22(36.67)	12(20)

The **Table-11** shows that out of total 60 respondents, 22(36.67%) agreed that they have view opposite gender as more successful in leadership, 25(41.67%) disagreed and 13(21.67%) agreed upto some extent. The 26(43.34%) respondents shared that male employees are contributing more in completion of tasks, while 22(36.67%) said it regarding

female employees and 12(20%) said it regarding both genders. The comparison shows that 10(33.34%) males while 12(40%) females agreed that they have seen opposite gender as more successful in leadership, 17(56.67%) males while 8(26.67%) females disagreed and 3(10%) males while 10(33.34%) females said that they have seen opposite gender as more successful in leadership to some extent. The 16(53.34%) males while 10(33.34%) females, 8(26.67%) males while 14(46.34%) females agreed that male employees are contributing more in successful completion of tasks and 6(20%) males while 6(20%) females were of view that both male and female employees are contributing in successful completion of tasks. The female leaders were significantly more of view that opposite gender is more successful in leadership. The male leaders viewed themselves while female leaders viewed themselves contributing more in successful completion of tasks.

Conclusion

The major findings of study exhibit insignificant variance comparing male and female leaders' knowledge regarding different leadership styles, and liking or disliking of a particular leadership style. The female leaders were inclined toward decision-making in consultation with employees. The difference regarding inclusion of employees in decision-making and variance regarding number of employees included in decisions is less significant. Significant majority of female leaders do experience subordinates' agreement with their decisions. Insignificant gender differences were found regarding inviting ideas from outside organizations. Female leaders enforce decisions at once, while male leaders implement decisions gradually. More females take decisions for organizational interest, while more males take decisions for self-interest. Females take decisions before and on time, while men are at less advantage regarding this variable. Employees cooperate more with female leaders, while male leaders do express higher success and achievement level, and achieve organizational objectives. The female leaders express that the assigned tasks are manageable. Male leaders take credit of success, and accept responsibility of failure in tasks for themselves and for employees, while females give credit of success to the community. The male leaders viewed that their success level would have been different (in either direction) if they were of opposite gender, while female leaders were of view that opposite gender is more successful in leadership. The male leaders viewed themselves while female leaders viewed themselves contributing more in successful completion of tasks. The crux of study suggests that there are variances in leadership style and its effectiveness hence in some areas males are at advantage while in some areas females are at advantage. Therefore, the evolved Research Hypothesis-I that "the female leaders' decision making pattern and style is different from that of the male leaders in study area" have been proven, while the Research Hypothesis-II that "the male leaders' leadership is more effective and successful than that of the female leaders in study area" have been refuted.

Recommendations

It is recommended that the leaders should adopt democratic leadership style for effectiveness by involving their employees in decision making process, for this purpose leaders should get ideas and advices from their employees and experts from other organizations.

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