Leadership trait preference amongst a 21st Century, multi-gendered workforce.

A Research report presented to the
Graduate School of Business Leadership
University of South Africa

In partial fulfillment of the requirements for the

MASTERS DEGREE IN BUSINESS LEADERSHIP,
UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA

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30 November 2007

ABSTRACT

This paper aims to identify leadership trait preferences among the South African workforce. It is noted that the workforce has changed significantly over the past decade from a gender perspective, thus it is important to identify the changing leadership requirements of those that set the organizational wheels in motion.

The research problem, thus, resides within the question, "what leadership traits elicit maximum productivity from the new gender-diverse workforce in South Africa?"

The research methodology that has been used in this study is quantitative and is achieved using the Schein Descriptive Index questionnaire. The study is a replication of Virginia Schein's research originally conducted in 1973, which has been replicated in various countries globally over the last few decades.

The report findings indicate that South African's prefer feminine leadership, albeit not significantly. The implications of these findings support that organizations need to eliminate gender bias, especially with regard to women's advancement into leadership roles, to be successful.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I take this opportunity to thank my husband for all his love and support over this period, without which this would not have become a reality. His love, devotion and above all, his understanding, has helped me through the difficult times which have brought me to this very point.

Additionally, I would like to show my gratitude and appreciation to my supervisor, Professor Lize Booysen, who has shaped the course of this paper into what it has become. Without her guidance, this would have been an impossible task.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT i
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS ii
SECTION 2 ..... - 1 -
CHAPTER 1 ..... - 1 -
Orientation to Women in Leadership ..... - 1 -
Statement of the problem ..... - 2 -
Hypothesis: ..... - 3 -
Research questions: ..... - 3 -
Importance and Benefits of the Proposed Study ..... - 3 -
Delimitations of the study ..... - 6 -
Outline of the research report ..... - 7 -
CHAPTER 2 ..... - 8 -
Leadership – definition and theories ..... - 8 -
What is leadership? ..... - 8 -
Leadership Theories ..... - 9 -
CHAPTER 3 ..... - 19 -
Women in Management ..... - 19 -
Limitations to Women Reaching Management and Beyond ..... - 19 -
Conclusions ..... - 20 -
CHAPTER 4 ..... - 23 -
Social Role Theory ..... - 23 -
CHAPTER 5 ..... - 28 -
Leadership Styles - Agentic and Communal ..... - 28 -
CHAPTER 6 ..... - 36 -
Research Methodology ..... - 36 -
Method ..... - 36 -
Sampling Technique ..... - 37 -
Sample ..... - 37 -
Measurement instrument ..... - 39 -
Research process ..... - 40 -
Data Analysis ..... - 40 -
CHAPTER 7 ..... - 42 -
Research Results ..... - 42 -
Quantitative Results ..... - 42 -
Sample Representation ..... - 46 -
CHAPTER 8 ..... - 50 -
Discussion and implications of the study ..... - 50 -
Recommendations ..... - 53 -
Conclusion ..... - 55 -
SECTION 3 ..... - 56 -
List of References ..... - 56 -
Appendix 1: ..... - 61 -
Measurement Instrument ..... - 61 -

LIST OF TABLES

Table I:	Comparison of Masculine and Feminine Leadership Models	Page 28
Table II:	The Twentieth and Twenty-First Century Organization - Compared	Page 32
Table III:	Representation of the theoretical number of respondents by gender and questionnaire	Page 38
Table IV:	Analysis of variance of mean item ratings and intra class coefficients	Page 45

LIST OF FIGURES

Graph I:	Graphic distribution of respondents by questionnaire (final sample of 75)	Page 38
Graph II:	Graphic distribution of respondents by gender and questionnaire (final sample of 75)	Page 39

SECTION 2

CHAPTER 1

Orientation to Women in Leadership

Like most countries, South Africa has seen a vast increase of women into the workforce. Recent statistics reflect that women constitute 46% of the South African labour-force (Statistics South Africa, 2006). Aside from the natural progression of women into the workforce, South Africa has enacted various statutes like the Employment Equity Act, to accelerate the movement of women and other previously disadvantaged individuals into the labour-force.

The growing influx of women into the workforce year-on-year is clearly evidenced by global figures published. Global statistics compiled by the International Labour Organization (ILO) indicates that progress is being made toward gender equality, in many countries. In a study by Wirth (2001) of women's managerial status in 41 countries using internationally comparable 1998-1999 data available, it was revealed that women typically held 20-30 percent of legislative, senior official and managerial positions in almost half of the 41 countries (that included Austria, Germany, Greece, Israel, Peru and Singapore). In 16 of the 41 countries, including New Zealand, Poland, Portugal and the UK, women held between 31-39 percent of such jobs. However, in countries such as the Republic of Korea and Sri Lanka women held less than 10 percent of these positions (Schein, 2007: 6-7). Wirth's study did not include data from Africa owing to such data not being available.

The report of the Commission of Employment Equity in South Africa covering the period July 2005 - April 2006 is one of the most comprehensive studies of employment equity progress in South Africa. It reflects that women constituted 11,9% of top management in 2001, which increased to 16,5% by 2005, reflecting a minimal increase of 4,6%. A similar trend in senior management has been noted over the same period, with an increase of 5,9% from 17,7% in 2001 to 23,6% in 2005. The percentage increase of professionally qualified women also increased insignificantly by only 0.2%, from 38,2% in 2001 to 38,4% in 2005. The report reflects that not much progress, in terms of gender, has been made over the period reviewed by the Commission of Employment Equity.

With the advent of globalization, the spotlight has been on issues related to the advancement of women like, the "glass ceiling" phenomenon, which concerns the barriers that impede the upward mobility of women into management and leadership roles (Littrell and Nkomo, 2005) and the "think manager-think male" phenomenon, which is the stereotype of gender traits which has led to the association of management with masculinity (Brenner, Tomkiewicz, Schein, 1989).

Virginia Schein's 1970's empirical research has been replicated in studies such as "Brenner,Tomkiewicz, and Schein (1989)", "Heilman, Block, Martell and Simon (1989)", "Martell, Parker and Emrich (1998)", and "Dodge, Gilroy and Fenzel (1995)", which revealed that the "think manager-think male" phenomenon is still maintained, despite the influx of women into the workforce and their progress. Unfortunately, South African research into sex role stereotyping and requisite management characteristics is still quite limited.

Statement of the problem

With women now being fairly well represented within the South African workforce today, the time is ripe for an examination of leadership traits within the said workforce, with a view to establishing what sub-ordinates really expect and prefer from their leaders. Previously, male domination prevailed within management and leadership positions, thus studies of this nature were not of much concern.

The research problem, thus, resides within the question, "what leadership traits elicit maximum productivity from the new gender-diverse workforce in South Africa?"

The sub-problems that follow on from the research problem are:

- Are there leadership trait preferences between male and female employees?
- Can the trait preferences be clearly identified as either feminine or masculine in nature to enable the researcher to draw clear conclusions related to preferred leadership style?
- Is the preferred leadership traits characteristic of feminine traits
- Is the preferred leadership traits characteristic of masculine traits
- Is the preferred leadership traits a combination of masculine and feminine traits

The management dilemma lies within the missed opportunities and reduced productivity that business risks daily, by passing over females from management positions based on the dated "think manager-think male" ideology.

The significance of this study revolves around an entire system of recruitment, selection, promotion and career development that includes a gender bias, which might have a negative impact on the organizations productivity, and thereby, the bottom-line. It is this formidable rationale that requires further investigation to identify whether a change to the status quo, is indeed, imminent (Alimo-Metcalfe, 2002)

It is from the above that the following hypotheses and research questions have been formulated:

Hypothesis:
There are leadership trait preferences among the South African workforce.

Sub-hypothesis:

1. Female employees will rate feminine traits higher than male employees.
2. Female employees tend to favour feminine leadership traits.
3. Female employees will rate masculine traits lower than male employees.

Research questions:

1. Has male and female stereotypes changed relative to previous research findings owing to the impact of social changes.

2. What is the leadership style preference among employees in South Africa?

3. Are preferred leader characteristics masculine or feminine?

Importance and Benefits of the Proposed Study
Traditional trait theory concepts were formulated within a timeframe where the workforce gender was predominantly male, hence successful leadership traits were associated with masculinity rather than femininity.

The intention of this study is to identify leadership traits that employees respond to favourably, thereby extracting maximum workforce productivity. Harry Truman once

said, "Leadership is the ability to get men to do what they don't like to do and like it." (Kets, Manfred, Loper & Doyle, 1994). With women now constituting a vast portion of the labor-force, the researcher intends to focus on the characteristics that employees find desirable in a leader, and then relate them to a gender type – within a South African context.

According to the United Nations (2000), women's participation in management and administrative positions averages 15 percent across 26 African countries. A 2004 update of global progress, using the same ILO classifications as in Wirth's 2001 study, revealed that women's share of managerial jobs increased by 1-5 percent in 26 countries between 1996-1999 and 2000-2002 (Schein, 2007: 7). Catalyst (2006) reports that in the US, the percentage of Fortune 500 Board seats held by women have increased from 9.6 percent in 1995 to 14.6 percent in 2006. The percentage of Fortune 500 Corporate Officer positions held by women has increased to 15.6 percent in 2006, up from 8.7 percent in 1995.

South Africa is currently experiencing the influences of globalization and internationalization with added challenges being presented by cultural diversity, including language, religion, race and gender issues. Affirmative action and equal opportunity programs are prompting changes in the workplace and in peoples' values and norms which impact upon the level and style of management. The result is not only far more gender-diverse management teams, but also a far more gender-diverse workforce (Booysen, 2007).

Imperative within the South African environment is the understanding that the appreciation of gender and cultural diversity, along with the adaptation of one's leadership behaviour to suit these contexts and people, will achieve effective workforce management.

McEvoy and Beatty's (1989) findings support that the anonymous ratings by subordinates were more valid predictors of future effectiveness than assessment data, by comparing data collected from a group of managers attending an assessment centre in the US in 1977, with anonymous ratings obtained from the managers' subordinates' via an employee climate survey questionnaire. (Alimo-Metcalfe, 2002).

Based on McEvoy and Beatty's (1989) research findings, Beverly Alimo-Metcalfe (2002) cited that "In this study, subordinate ratings were considerably better intermediate term predictors of ratings (of managerial effectiveness) than the OARs (overall assessment ratings from assessment centres)." Alimo-Metcalfe also quotes that in a recent paper by US psychologists Hogan and Hogan (2001: 40), they go so far as to state "We believe subordinates' ratings are the best single way to evaluate a manager's performance".

With this study, the researcher seeks to identify whether the findings of global studies conducted is also reflective of the situation within the diverse South African workforce and to establish how the change in workforce gender has affected traditional trait theory, in terms of those traits identified as being reflective of effective leadership within the "new workforce".

Notably, a leader's success is determined by the influence they have over their sub-ordinates in channeling their efforts toward the successful achievement of organizational goals.

With the above in mind, the importance of this study resides within the following:

- ✓ Highlighting that there might be missed opportunities by companies who employ primarily male leaders as opposed to a mix of male and female - if indeed, feminine traits are identified by the workforce as traits that promote productivity and motivation.

- ✓ Current recruitment procedures and policies (testing, questionnaires, etc) are geared toward masculine traits for leadership roles - these would need to be re-aligned in line with the workforce requirement.

- ✓ The negative economic implications associated with the enlisting of leaders that do not elicit maximum productivity and the non-appointing of leaders with attributes that are able to do so. This results in the inefficient usage of an expensive resource. Additionally, the employment of leaders who are not geared towards the maintenance of employee satisfaction and the costs

associated with the subsequent loss of valuable resources due to the lack of employee satisfaction is indeed a costly affair.

- ✓ The researcher intends to highlight via this research the bias that exists between male and female employees/managers, thereby heightening the importance and benefits of diversity training in South Africa, which should form part of any organization's training program. Diversity training can be used to increase the awareness and appreciation of differences between individuals and reduce the stereotypes held by organizational members. A study by Rudman, Ashmore and Gary (2001) examined the impact of diversity education on stereotypes and prejudices, and found that training can reduce these biases at multiple levels.

Delimitations of the study

This study has been undertaken in Johannesburg (South Africa) and is therefore limited to this area and did not attempt to cover any of the other areas in South Africa.

The study aimed at the establishment of what traits are preferred by the workforce, thereby achieving the greatest productivity from the human resource capability. An effective leadership style has been identified, based on the results. The findings have also been evaluated against similar studies and literature to ascertain if the results are related.

This study is not a representation of which traits current leaders believe to be requisite of successful and effective leaders, whether it be masculine or feminine. It is, however, a quantitative study from a sub-ordinate perspective, undertaken using the Schein Descriptive Index questionnaire. The units of study were the existing students of the a well-recognized South African correspondence business school, and have been selected due to them being a multi-gendered group, forming part of the South African workforce.

Outline of the research report

- Chapter 2 outlines the best possible definition of leadership and the various leadership theories that have been developed and evolved over the past few decades.
- Chapter 3 covers the aspect of women in management and highlights the limitations experienced by women over the years to reach management and beyond. The chapter also deals with factors that have attributed to the rise of women into management and leadership positions.
- Chapter 4 captures the socially stereotyped behaviour associated with males and females and how they have impacted upon the leadership traits of each gender. The chapter highlights the behavioural aspects of each gender, their social expectations and includes the cultural aspect of gendered behaviour.
- Chapter 5 follows the socially stereotyped behaviour into leadership styles or patterns. This chapter talks about the leadership styles of each gender and is to a large extent a comparison of the two leadership styles. The chapter also covers what has been postulated as the pre-requisite leadership traits and styles for the 21st century.
- Chapter 6 covers the study's research methodology and provides a motivation for the respective selections. It covers the method, sampling technique, sample, research process, measurement instrument, research process and data analysis.
- Chapter 7 provides an overview of the statistical analyses undertaken and the research results that have been obtained.
- Chapter 8 concludes with a discussion of the research results linked to existing literature. The chapter also provides recommendations to organizations, managers and researchers based on the research results.

CHAPTER 2

Leadership – definition and theories

There are various definitions and theories of leadership that have accumulated over the last few decades. This chapter explores these definitions and theories and provides an overview of their evolution.

What is leadership?

Bennis and Nanus (1985: 4) have concluded that although thousands of empirical investigations have been conducted over the past 75-years providing more than 350 adequate definitions of leadership, there is still no clarity as to what distinguishes leaders from non-leaders, and, perhaps more importantly that distinguishes effective leaders from ineffective ones.

The basic premise of leadership, however, seems to be 'the ability to influence people toward the achievement of a common goal' (Armandi, Oppedisano and Sherman, 2003).

It has been noted that the reality in management practice is that leaderless teams of workers, left on their own, lack direction and discipline, as well as, that they accomplish very few goals. Leaders are, thus, needed to set objectives, to allocate scarce resources, to focus attention on goals of the firm, to coordinate change, to provide a common interpersonal contact with followers, and to chart the correct or best course when failures occur. It is simply a fact of life that groups with leaders can do these things more efficiently and more correctly than any leaderless group (Gibson, Ivancevich & Donnelly (Jnr), 1991).

Fulop and Linstead (1999) have pointed out that one of the most significant claims of the Human Relations Movement was that leadership was the single most important factor in motivating employees and improving productivity. This in itself provides the impetus for organizations to invest in mastering the art of leadership.

Leadership also forms one of the four functions that constitute the management process. Planning sets the direction and objectives; organizing brings the resources together to turn plans into action; leading builds the commitments and enthusiasm

needed for people to apply their talents fully to help accomplish plans; and controlling makes sure that things turn out right.

Leadership Theories

Trait theory focuses on personal traits, or relatively stable and enduring characteristics, as the key to leadership success. The research goal was aimed at finding a set of universal traits that separate effective and ineffective leaders.

Trait theories fundamentally described traits in masculine terms, and considered these characteristics as vital for successful leadership. The importance bestowed upon male characteristics or traits in leadership was confirmed in influential research which described the "think manager-think male" phenomenon (Schein, 1973).

In the 1990s, small numbers of women began to enter the workforce with some women filling "helping roles". Jogulu and Wood (2006) refer to Koziara, Moskow and Tanner's (1987) assertion that women were typically seen as carers, assistants, teachers, or nurses rather than leaders. Therefore, the caring and nurturing characteristics ascribed to females were not seen as appropriate in the leadership role.

The potential source of gender bias by the marked denomination of research conducted by male researchers of male subjects in the 1970s was unchallenged and of minimal, if any, interest. In some studies, certain traits were identified that differentiated effective from ineffective leaders, however, many contradictory research findings exist. Despite these shortcomings, the trait approach is not completely invalid. Stogdill concisely captured the value of the trait approach when he said: "The view that leadership is entirely situational in origin and that no personal characteristics are predictive of leadership....seems to overemphasize the situational and underemphasize the personal nature of leadership".

Exchange theories propose that group members make contributions at a cost to themselves and receive benefits at a cost to the group or other members. Interaction continues because members find the social exchange mutually rewarding. This interaction is indicative of the "group" theory of leadership.

Instead of searching for traits, researchers in the 1940s examined behaviours and their impact on the performance and satisfaction of followers – this research has resulted in a number of personal-behavioural leadership theories.

In 1947, Rensis Likert studied how best to manage the efforts of individuals to achieve desired performance and satisfaction objectives. The purpose of his team was to discover the principles and methods of effective leadership.

Through interviewing leaders and followers, two distinct styles of leadership, being job-centred and employee-centred, were identified. The job-centred leader practices close supervision and has a task-related focus whereas the employee-centred leader believes in delegation and aiding followers in satisfying their needs.

This study, run by The University of Michigan, only examined two aspects of leadership, which are the task-related and people-related behaviour and was inconclusive in demonstrating one as more effective than the other.

The Ohio State University study resulted in the development of the two-factor theory of leadership, namely, initiating structure and consideration. Initiating structure involves behaviour in which the leader organises and defines the relationships in the group, tends to establish well-defined patterns and channels of communication, and spells out ways of getting the job done. This type of leader is goal and results oriented.

The leader with a high consideration overview encourages open communication and participation as this type of leader involves friendship, mutual trust, respect, warmth and rapport between the leader and the follower.

This behavioural theory has been criticised for its simplicity relative to it theorising only two leadership dimensions, its lack of generalizability and reliance on questionnaire responses to measure leadership effectiveness. Most researchers believe that environmental variables play some role in leadership effectiveness. The linkage between such important performance indicators as production, efficiency and satisfaction has not been conclusively resolved by either of the two personal-behaviour theories.

Situational theories of leadership evolved to suggest that leadership effectiveness depends on the fit between personality, task, power, attitude and perception. Situational importance came to the fore only after inconclusive and contradictory results were achieved from much of the early trait and personal-behavioural research. The most widely accepted situational theories are explored below:

- Fiedler's Contingency Leadership Model

Fred Fiedler developed a theory based on the premise that good leadership depends on a match between leadership style and situational factors.

Leadership style is measured on what Fiedler calls the "least preferred co-worker scale" (LPC) that describes a persons tendencies toward either task-motivated or relationship-motivated leadership. The key to leadership success, according to Fiedler, is putting the existing styles to work in situations for which they are good "fits". Fiedler described situational favourableness in terms of the following empirically derived dimensions:

- The leader-member relations factor – this factor refers to the degree of confidence, trust and respect that the followers have in the leader, and reflects acceptance of the leader.
- The task structure factor – this dimension includes the following components:
  - Goal clarity – the degree to which tasks and duties are clearly stated and known to those performing the job
  - Goal-path multiplicity – the degree to which obstacles can be dealt with procedurally
  - Decision verifiability – the degree to which the "correctness" of the solutions or decisions typically encountered in a job can be demonstrated by appeal to authority, by logical procedures or by feedback
  - Decision specificity – the degree to which there is generally more than one correct solution
- The position power factor – refers to the power inherent in the leadership position.

Graen and associates present evidence that the research support for this model is weak, especially if studies conducted by researchers not associated with Fiedler, are examined. Researchers also called to attention the questionable measurement of the LPC.

- Path-goal Theory

The other widely recognized theoretical development from a contingency approach is the path-goal theory derived from the expectancy framework of motivation theory. Robert J. House developed this model which posits that leaders are effective because of their positive impact on followers' motivation, ability to perform and satisfaction. The theory is designated path-goal as it focuses on how the leader influences the followers' perceptions of work goals, self development goals and paths to goal attainment.

House identifies four leadership styles that may be used in this "path-goal" sense:

- Directive leadership – essentially directing and clarifying the what, how and why of the task.
- Supportive leadership – doing things to make work more pleasant; treating group members as equals; being friendly and approachable; showing concern for the well-being of subordinates.
- Achievement-orientated leadership – setting challenging goals; expecting the highest levels of performance; emphasizing continuous improvement in performance; displaying confidence in meeting high standards.
- Participative leadership – involving subordinates in decision-making; consulting with subordinates; asking for suggestions from subordinates; using these suggestions when making a decision.

This leadership model has met with some criticism in that the subordinate performance might be the cause of changes in leader behaviour instead of, as predicted by the model, the other way around. Reviewers also point to the record of inconsistent research results associated with the model.

- Hersey-Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory

Hersey-Blanchard's situational leadership theory suggests that successful leaders adjust their styles depending on the readiness of followers to perform in a given

situation and as followers in a given situation change over time. Combinations of task-orientated and relationship-orientated behaviours are:

- DELEGATING – allowing a group to make and take responsibility for task decisions; a low-task, low-relationship style.
- PARTICIPATING – emphasizing shared ideas and participative decisions on task directions; a low-task, high-relationship style.
- SELLING – explaining task directions in a supportive and persuasive way; a high-task, high-relationship style.
- TELLING – giving specific task directions and closely supervising work; a high-task, low-relationship style.

Managers using this model must be able to implement the alternative leadership styles as required, or else this approach can prove to be ineffective.

➢ Vroom-Jago revised leadership model

Victor Vroom and P. Yetton initially developed a leadership and decision-making model that indicated the situations in which various degrees of participative decision making are appropriate. A single contingency notion underlies the Vroom-Jago leadership participation model: effective leadership results when the decision method used correctly matches the characteristics of the problem to be solved. In general, managers are advised to use participation and make more group decisions when:

- They lack sufficient information to solve a problem by themselves.
- The problem is unclear and help is needed to clarify the situation.
- Acceptance of the decision by others is necessary for its implementation.
- Adequate time is available to allow for true participation.

On the other hand, the model suggests that managers can use authority and make more individual decisions when:

- They personally have the expertise needed to resolve the problem.
- They are confident and capable of acting alone.
- Others are likely to accept the decision they make.
- Little or no time is available for discussion.

The model forces a person to make a definite response, however, work situations are not that easy to categorize and in many situations, neither a "yes" nor a "no" is accurate. The model is also criticized for being too complex, and, according to some critics, fails to deal with the realities today's managers face in terms of change, technological advancement and international competition.

Charismatic leadership is noted as a throwback to the old conception of leaders as being those who "by the force of their personal abilities are capable of having profound and extraordinary effects on followers."

There are two types of charismatic leaders, one that arises through dissatisfaction with the status quo or a lack of being challenged with the existing situation and one that is crisis-produced.

Jay Conger developed a model that illustrates how charisma evolves.

- Stage one - the leader continuously assesses the environment, thereby adapting and formulating a vision of what must be done. The leader's goals are then established.
- Stage two - the leader communicates his or her vision to followers, using whatever means necessary.
- Stage three – this segment is highlighted by working on trust and commitment. Doing the unexpected, taking risks and being technically proficient are important at this stage.
- Stage four - the charismatic leader serves as a role model and motivator. The charismatic leader uses praise and recognition to instil within followers the belief that they can achieve the vision.

A criticism of the early work on charismatic leadership is that the explanations of it lacked specificity.

A transactional leader helps the follower identify what must be done to accomplish the desired results: better-quality output, more sales or services and/or the reduced cost of production. In helping the follower identify what must be done, the leader takes into consideration the person's self-concept, esteem needs and relies on

contingent reward and management by exception. This type of management is not often found in organizational settings.

The term transformational leadership describes someone who uses charisma and related personal qualities to raise aspirations and shift people and systems to new and higher-level performance patterns. The special qualities of transformational leaders include, vision, charisma, symbolism, empowerment, intellectual stimulation and integrity.

Transformational leadership encompasses trait theory, leadership behaviour theory, contingency theory and more.

Charismatic leadership has been vastly examined over the past two decades owing in part to the volatility and turbulence being experienced by organizations today, leading to the conception of "new charismatic leadership". This globally competitive business environment calls for charismatic leaders who provide an appealing vision and meaning (Conger & Kanungo, 1998; Kets de Vries, 1998), which have a motivational effect on followers encouraging the achievement of high levels of performance (Jung and Sosik, 2006:12). Over the decades, there has been much consensus that a charismatic leader inspires followers and generates some excitement among them so that they perform beyond expectations (Bass, 1985; Burns, 1978; Conger & Kanungo, 1998; House, 1977).

Choi's, 2006, study promotes three components of charisma, being envisioning, empathy and empowerment – which is a framework that stimulates the follower's need for achievement, affiliation and power.

Charismatic leadership, however, can also have a negative impact on followers, an example being when there is an abuse of power. When charisma is exploitative and/or non-egalitarian, it can have disastrous effects. Adolf Hitler provides a good example of such a charismatic leader.

In addition, the recent trend in leadership theory and research, as noted in Groves (2005: 30) revolves around the examination of social and emotional competence as key components of charismatic leadership. Groves (2005) study attempts to link

gender to key charismatic behaviours. Overall, the study suggests that women may have a trait-based advantage for superior emotional, non-verbal competences that lay the groundwork for charismatic leadership (Groves, 2005: 42). The impact surrounding these findings would suggest significant changes toward organizational selection, promotion and placement procedures, as well as to executive training programs and assessment centre methods.

Graham (1991) argued that charisma is the underpinning of the servant leadership model. Servant leadership, first coined by Robert Greenleaf, views a leader as a servant of his/her followers (Smith, Montagno and Kuzmenko, 2004:80). Servant leadership emphasizes the interests of the followers prior to that of the leader and focuses on the personal development and empowerment of the followers. This leadership is contrasted to the traditional model of leadership in that the leader assumes the leadership position in response to the perseverant requests of others, whereas traditional leaders have an innate desire to lead.

A constraint that arises from this leadership model revolves around the follower's adopting passivity to the external environment, and developing an aversion to effect a change to internal conditions, where such substantive changes to the status quo are inadvertently required.

The construct of spiritual leadership was defined by Fry (2003: 711) as "comprising the values, attitudes, and behaviours that are necessary to intrinsically motivate ones' self and others so that they have a sense of spiritual survival through calling and membership." Markow and Klenke (2005: 10) put forward that several leadership researchers have suggested that a connection exists between leadership, spirituality and personal meaning.

Fairholm (1996) has looked at spiritual leadership from an individuals' work and livelihood perspective. To elaborate, the author has taken cognizance of the fact that "work" has taken up a vast portion of an individual's life, where some individuals have even replaced family, friendship circles, church and social groups with work. In essence, this means that spirituality is a missing element within our livelihood. Research by Jacobson (1994) strongly suggests that both leaders and workers alike are seeking economic rewards as well as spiritual identity and satisfaction from the

work environment and spiritual leadership is one method of integrating spirituality back into an individual's professional or work life.

Although spiritual leadership is moral leadership, its acceptance might be limited as it is founded upon the principles of Judeo-Christian teachings, whilst South Africa in particular, is a nation constituted of various cultures and religious beliefs. This type of leadership might cause conflict within organizations if not properly managed.

Emotional intelligence was a term that was initially established by Salovey and Mayer in 1990, who hypothesized a framework describing a set of skills (Kerr, Garvin, Heaton & Boyle, 2005: 265): "...relevant to the accurate appraisal and expression of emotion in oneself and in others, the effective regulation of emotion in self and others, and the use of feeling to motivate, plan and achieve in one's life (Salovey & Mayer, 1990: 185)".

Salovey and Mayer's theory is centered around the degree to which people's cognitive capabilities are informed by their emotions and vice versa (Kerr, Garvin, Heaton & Boyle, 2005: 265).

Various emotional intelligence (EI) models have been developed. Ability models are those that are focused on cognitive capabilities solely, and view EI as a form of intelligence reflecting the ability to process emotional information (Caruso, Mayer & Salovey, 2002; Day & Carroll, 2004). Mixed models incorporate a diverse range of abilities. Daus and Ashkanasy (2005) further evolved the models into three streams, stream 1 which is based on the ability model relating to the individuals ability to perform EI related tasks; stream 2 which is also based on the ability model, but adopting to a self or peer report format and stream 3 which is based on the mixed model and also adopts the self or peer format.

Mayer and Salovey (1997) developed one of the most popular ability models, which is a four branch hierarchical model, namely:

- Identifying emotions
- Using emotions to facilitate thought
- Understanding emotions
- Managing emotions

At its simplest form, leadership is a process of social interaction where the leader's ability to influence the behaviour of their followers can strongly influence performance outcomes (Kerr *et al*, 2005:268). The link between emotional intelligence and leadership is formed within this definition and is the ability of the leader to recognize followers' emotional states and manipulate them accordingly. It has thus been noted that those who are best able to recognize and understand emotional states are most effective in response to change in social environments and in building supportive networks (Kerr *et al*, 2005).

With the understanding of leadership theories and their evolution to present day, it is essential to investigate women in management, with a view to establishing their leadership positions within our organizations.

CHAPTER 3

Women in Management

This chapter reviews the stature of women in management, their struggle to attain positions of power and indeed, their actions adopted to move forward beyond such boundaries.

More women are entering the workforce the world-over, however, the concomitant increase of women in management is not keeping abreast of this boom.

With the end of apartheid and after the first democratic elections in South Africa in 1994, the influx of women into the labour force, together with the political, social and economic efforts to advance gender equity in the work setting, is beginning to result in increasing numbers of women occupying positions of leadership in South Africa (Booysen & Nkomo, 2006). Several authors argue, however, that women of all races are still disadvantaged in South Africa and hold hardly any senior positions – especially in the corporate world. They still remain a wasted resource (Booysen, 1999).

Limitations to Women Reaching Management and Beyond

The organisational context is a critical element in shaping the next generation of managers. An environment where women feel estranged from the development process, naturally may neglect an essential resource – a pool of talented ambitious women seeking to develop their own careers to the dual benefit of themselves and their employers.

- Organizations that have a male-centered corporate culture are resistant to feminine leadership. Women, have therefore found themselves in a "catch-22" situation, where in order to succeed they were required to conform to the masculine role behaviour thus requiring them to suppress their feminine qualities. This has been detrimental to them because this action has resulted in them losing a part of their identity, whilst still encountering barriers, since prejudices still exist.

- According to research (Appelbaum & Shapiro, 1993) dealing with the issue of male managers' attitudes toward women, women are seen as poor prospects

for managerial positions for a number of reasons, being: women lack career orientation, women lack leadership potential, women are undependable and women are emotionally less stable. The very expression of emotion is widely viewed as a feminine weakness that would interfere with effective business processes.

Erasmus' (1998) study on South African career women found that in spite of being talented, educated and committed to their careers, misconceptions and stereotyping hindered women's upward mobility. Women were perceived as not having leadership potential purely due to their leadership behaviours differing from traditional male leaders.

- The scarcity of female mentors and teachers in both management and management training programs implies that the potential management talent pool from which organizations can draw, is also skewed in terms of its representation of the population and gender groups, favouring white males – thereby, providing them with an unfair advantage, further hindering the upward mobility of women (Booysen, 1999).
-
- Despite the female advantage and feminization of the workplace, management is still seen as a male dominated occupation, by both men and women and masculine behaviour is still preferred in management (Booysen & Nkomo, 2006: 26).

Conclusions

Women's rise into management and leadership positions can be attributed mainly to the following factors:

- Women have Changed

As women shift more of their time from domestic to paid labour, they assume the personal characteristics required to succeed in their new roles (Eagly et al., 2000). In addition to women's increased human capital investments, women's psychological attributes and related behaviours have changed in concert with their entry into formerly male-dominated roles.

- Organisational Practices have Changed

Also important to a women's rise is the change in organisational practices, brought about via the enactment of certain legislation. In South Africa, specific laws are geared towards the influx of women into the workforce and their furtherance into management. Eagly and Carli (2003) assert that with more women occupying managerial roles, organisations are beginning to dispense with the "old-boy" networks, to rewarding talent over gender. Additionally, such organisations may support women by encouraging, mentoring, networking and establishing more family-friendly policies. Also critical, is a clear message from executives at the top of the organisation, endorsing equitable opportunities. Special efforts of these types have increased women's access to leadership roles (Eagly & Carli, 2003).

- The Culture has Changed

In view of changes in leader roles and organisational practices, female leaders have come to symbolize new types of leadership that connote greater effectiveness and synergy than leadership of the past (Adler, 1999). In addition, the culture of many organisations now embraces the benefits of including women and minorities among their leaders. The appointment of women signals an organisation's departure from past practices and helps it to capture the symbols of innovation and progressive change.

The demographics of management, as well as corporate boardrooms, are in a process of transformation. The overwhelmingly homogeneous white male majority in these institutions are starting to give way to much greater organisational population diversity, more in line with the country's general population.

Women entering organisations at managerial levels, transport with them their own norms of relationship, friendship and interaction. This has created an environment where traditional guidelines for co-workers' are fading, hence causing strain on their interactions, as the traditional requisite behaviours have changed.

The most ubiquitous motive for affirmative action in South Africa is the critical need to restore the existing race and gender imbalances in management because, aside from the universal social conception of white and male superiority, discrimination was well-entrenched in the country's statutes.

Nevertheless, according to Booysen's research (1999) she quotes Manning (1997: 91), "women of all races are disadvantaged, and a wasted resource. They still hold hardly any senior positions, except perhaps in market research, personnel, and finance... But here, as elsewhere, they are pouring out of their homes, through the education system, and into the workplace".

This has not changed significantly as is evidenced by the 2007 Businesswomen's Association Census, which, reflects that women make up 51 percent of the adult population in South Africa and 42 percent of the working South African population, however, they constitute only 19.2 percent of all executive managers and 13.1 percent of all directors in the country. Additionally, the Commission for Employment Equity's annual report for the period 2006-2007 provides comparative figures from 2000 to 2006. These figures reflect that females occupied 12.4 percent of top management level positions in 2000, which increased by 9.2 percent to 21.6 percent in 2006. Comparative changes at the senior management level from 2000 to 2006 reveals an increase in women occupying these positions by 7.4 percent, from 21 percent, in 2000, to 27.4 percent, by 2006.

Notably women face a multitude of limitations to gain access into the upper reaches of management, however, they have been taking actions necessary to attain success. The figures do not reflect that a significant level of success has yet been obtained, but they certainly do reflect that constant change is occurring to support women in management.

It is important to understand the difference between men and women in terms of trait, behaviours, etc. The next chapter evaluates these differences and explores the attributions to such differences.

CHAPTER 4

Social Role Theory

This chapter aims to highlight the socially stereotyped behaviour associated with males and females, which has impacted upon the leadership traits of each gender.

Gender is seen as a social construct, referring to stereotypical gender behaviour, namely female and male leadership styles, which are socially constructed, influenced by culture and are learned, thus resulting in gendered behaviour. Although gender is regarded as a social construct, coupled with biological sex, it identifies differences and similarities in leadership style.

Typically, women are stereotyped as more communal and men as more agentic. Communal characteristics are primarily concerned with the welfare of other people, including attributes such as compassion, kindness, sentimentality, helpfulness, and generosity. Agentic characteristics describe the more assertive, dominant, and confident tendencies, including attributes such as aggressiveness, ambition, independence and self-confidence. Agentic characteristics have traditionally been aligned with leadership roles and masculinity (Eagly, 1987).

In her article of 1999, Booysen cites Hofstede's (1991) argument that gender differences are not usually described in terms of cultures, because genders are not integrated social systems or groups but rather parts of social systems or categories within groups and he is of the opinion that it can be revealing to look at gender as a subculture within a broader culture. He maintains that the recognition that within each society there is a men's culture which differs from a women's culture, would assist in understanding the complexity associated with changing traditional gender roles.

Booysen's article reflects on Hofstede's (1991) claims, that in spite of the differences and variety in male/female behaviour, there is a common trend among most societies, both traditional and modern, as to the distribution of social sex or gender roles.

Men are generally associated mainly with achievements outside the home, in traditional societies physical hunting and fighting, in modern society the same, but translated into economic terms. Women are meant to take care of the home, the

children, and the weak people in general. Women are supposed to be nurturing and supportive and to show greater sympathy. Males are meant to be assertive, competitive and tough. The role expectations manifest in gendered role behaviour.

Masculine society re-inforces assertiveness and competition, with a preference for achievement, heroism and material success. Feminine society's re-inforce nurturance and have a concern for the living environment, with a preference for relationships, modesty, caring for the weak and quality of life.

Cultures dissimilar to our own can be experienced as wrong, ridiculous, threatening or frightening. From Booysen's research of 1999, Hofstede (1991) is cited to have shown that males in virtually all societies dominate in politics, in the community and at the workplace, with the result that the subcultures of politics, community affairs and work are relatively masculine.

It therefore seems that although there are differences between cultures in terms of which behaviours are classified as masculine and which as feminine and their levels of masculinity and femininity, there are universal sex role or gender role behaviours that can be classified generically as either masculine or feminine.

Owing to the differences in socialization, men and women receive different messages regarding what is expected of them. These different role expectations manifest in the use of language and the communication patterns of the genders. An example of this would be that women are socialized to be submissive and polite, whilst men are socialized to be heard and seen – however, when women behave in a loud and visible manner (as to dominate), it is seen to be unacceptable behaviour, whereas if it was a man, this behaviour would be classed as the norm.

To date, gender differences in leadership have largely been accounted for through biological/socialization or role expectation models (Yukl, 1998). With respect to gender differences in leadership, social role theory argues that any differences can be accounted for by socialisation of the individual leader and his/her subordinates, which results in each one bringing their own set of expectations to the table, for themselves and each other, depending upon gender.

Studies of gender differences, Carless (1998) found that superiors may rely more on gender stereotypes and assumptions in describing and rating male and female leadership effectiveness and performance. Interestingly, the converse associations were found for subordinate rankings of their male and female leaders. In addition, Carless (1998) found that men may be more sensitive to behaviours that fall outside of the range of their expectations, perhaps negatively influencing their evaluations.

Similar to socialization processes, gender role perceptions are created through an interaction between culture and social expectations. Gender roles can be generalised to organisational roles, including those in leadership positions. Lorenzen (1996) reasons that one's organisational role is representative of a set of tasks, structures, expectations and cultures and that one's professional competence and personal history is integrated with that of other roles and personnel within an organisation.

Perceptions of leadership effectiveness along gender lines would thus be defined by these personal, social and cultural characteristics. These characteristics include expectations (stereotypes) about gender roles and leadership roles, both separately and combined. Lorenzen (1996: 30) goes on to say that "when a woman undertakes a leadership role, she brings into the role her gender, the culturally defined female aspects, as an integrated part of her personal history and her profession".

This difference in social status may also account for any hiring, promotion, or salary differences where perception of woman leaders is influenced by a social or cultural status, beliefs, and attitudes that view women as "less than" their male counterparts (Luthar, 1996). Luthar argues that it is these differences in social status that often rob women leaders of any credit for organisational or group success, chalking it up merely to luck or that a task or project was somehow "easier" for the woman leader. Luthar found that a similar task or project successfully led by a male leader was more readily attributed to the leaders' skills and abilities.

Fagenson, in her paper entitled, "At the Heart of Women in Management: Theoretical and Methodological Approaches and Their Biases", explores the central theoretical perspectives in the field on women in management related to limitations women face in an organizational context, whilst attempting to reach positions of power.

Three theoretical perspectives have been identified, which are the gender-centered perspective, the organization structure perspective and the gender-organization-system (GOS) perspective.

The gender-centered perspective encourages comparisons between male and female behaviours, attitudes, traits and experiences, and attributes differences to biological or socialization factors.

The organization structure perspective, emphasizes organizational structure as either advantageous or disadvantageous, with advantageous being the offering of positions which provide the incumbents with opportunity, power and are offered to those individuals whose social category (i.e.: sex) are in majority (i.e.: male) (Kanter, 1977).

The gender-organization-system approach agrees with the propositions and arguments related to both the gender-centered and the organization structure views, and postulates that both organization structure and an individual's gender attributes both shape and define a women's behaviour on the job (Fagenson, 1990). A third factor that is suggested by the GOS framework in the work of Fagenson (1990) which is well articulated by Martin, Harrison and Dinitto (1983) is that the extra-organizational structures and processes affect and are affected by intra-organizational structures and that since organizations are located in societies with particular cultural values, histories, societal and institutional practices, ideologies, expectations and stereotypes related to specific roles and behaviours for men and women, they affect the internal structures and processes of organizations.

These perspectives have been criticized for not taking situational and organizational factors into consideration.

In a study by Kanter, recorded in the 1993 edition of her book called, "Men and Women of the Corporation" three variables are identified, namely, opportunity, power and numbers (that is minority and majority) as often being ignored in research work in leadership. Kanter asserts that opportunity and power are necessary variables for the successful completion of the respective tasks. Female jobs such as clerical work are low in both opportunity and power, hence the passive, risk-averse behaviour

displayed by women is not resultant of their personal characteristics but rather a reaction to their organizational situation.

Numbers, in Kanter's book, refers to the organizational situation where there is either male or female dominance among the workforce. These organizations, similar to the one under study by Kanter, view minorities e.g. women, who break into majority territories as "token" representatives of such minority groups.

The societal aspects related to the expected male and female behaviour explained above, has a vast impact on the leadership styles of both genders, which is explored in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 5

Leadership Styles - Agentic and Communal

Women and men generally lead differently, which is mainly ascribed to different socialization patterns. This chapter highlights these different leadership patterns in more detail thereby allowing for better appreciation of these distinct leadership styles.

The traditional model, often referred to as the masculine leadership model, is described as authoritarian or "command and control" and transactional. The non-traditional model, or feminine leadership model, is characterized as interactive or participative and transformational. Transformational indicates that employees are encouraged to transform their own self-interest of the group through concern for the ultimate goal (Rosener, 1990: 120). Table I further clarifies the differing male and female leadership styles.

Table I: Comparison of Masculine and Feminine Leadership Models

	Masculine	Feminine
Operative style	Competitive, command	Co-operative, participative
Organizational structure	Vertical, hierarchical	Horizontal, egalitarian
Objective	Winning	Quality product
Problem-solving approach	Rational, objective	Intuitive, subjective
Key characteristics	High control Strategic Unemotional Agentic (confident, aggressive) Transactional Rigid Authoritarian	Low control Empathetic Collaborative Communal (kind, concern, warmth, gentleness, considerate) Transformational Flexible Mentorship,

		empowerment
	Analytical	High performance
Perceived power base	Organizational position and formal authority concentrated at the top	Personal characteristics shared within a group

Source: Adapted from Booysen (1999)

As demonstrated in Table I above, the concept of management is portrayed as masculine and characterized by high-control, competition, strategy, lack of emotion, an analytical approach, rational problem solving, emphasis on winning and managerial effectiveness in terms of financial gains instead of employee satisfaction (Sharma, 1990). In contrast, women have been characterized as being relatively submissive, passive and non-rational in their social encounters and are thought to possess "feminine traits", e.g. they are warm, kind, selfless, etc. Therefore, in terms of their traits and behaviours, women are believed to be disadvantaged. They possess personalities that are in conflict with those necessary for functioning as successful leaders in the organizational world (Fagenson, 1990).

It has been noted that in order to penetrate the "glass ceiling" to get to the top, the first wave of women were required to conform and adapt to masculine mannerisms and behaviours, whereas, the second wave of female leaders are following a different path to the top. They are equipped with a leadership style that is more "consensus-building, open and inclusive, more likely to encourage participation by others, and more caring than that of many males" (Nelton, 1991: 16; Sharma, 1990: 13). Additionally, feminine leaders would rather be evaluated on the basis of employee satisfaction than on that of financial gains, as contrasted with their male counterparts.

Financial data, however, is a good measure of leadership effectiveness. A study conducted by Catalyst (2004) analyzed data from the Fortune 500 companies (which are the largest corporations in the United States as defined by their revenue) measuring their financial performance for the period 1996 to 2000 and found that companies with the top quartile of women representation amongst their executives,

reflected substantially better financial performance than those in the bottom quartile. A more sophisticated study related the percentage of women in the top management teams of companies in the Fortune 1000, to their financial performance from 1998 to 2000. This study also supported the findings that companies with a higher percentage of female representation in their top management teams reflected better financial performance. These studies, along with other similar studies on large U.S. companies, reflect a positive correlation between the percentage of women in senior roles and financial performance in the 1990's (Eagly, 2007).

The findings of the study by Vinnicombe and Singh (2002) indicate that women managers are, however, in a double bind. Their very strengths in terms of expressiveness are seen as weaknesses by both male and female managers. They are most likely to feel less confident about their future progression, because they have rated themselves lower on instrumental traits (associated with masculine traits) said to be representative of the "successful manager". If they move to adopt a more masculine style contrary to their preferences, they may be evaluated by male managers as aggressive, and by subordinates as deviant from the feminine norm.

If Yammarino, Dubinsky, Corner and Jolson's (1997) findings hold, then subordinates of such women would also be likely to have less satisfaction and lower commitment. In addition, women's preference for a male leader is indicative of support for the continuity of the "think manager, think male" syndrome described by Schein (1994). This gender in management approach argues that, because men and women are socialized differently, they manage differently.

The second wave of female leaders, however, are drawing on what is unique to their socialization as women and creating a different path to the top (Rosener, 1990). They have learned that they can be successful and effective by drawing on what is unique in their own socialization as women. This approach to management is referred to as a feminine style and it appears to be interactional, transformational and relationship-oriented and is characterized by four factors, which possess both advantages and disadvantages, namely:

a) Encouraging participation allows employees to feel that their contributions are valued and they appreciate the opportunity to be part of the overall scheme

(Rosener, 1990). This approach also ensures that that all the pertinent information is taken into account, thus enriching the final decision. Contrarily, it is a time-consuming exercise which can be perceived as the leader not being in possession of the answers, thereby soliciting the answers from the subordinates. The action of seeking approval/consensus can also give the impression of a lack of confidence.

b) Sharing power and information is a process that women are comfortable with. This act creates loyalty by emphasizing trust and value in employees. It also encourages the surfacing of problems at an early stage and makes employees feel that they form part of the problem-solving and decision-making process. However, this action also opens the door for possible rejection, criticism and challenge of leader authority. In addition, causes a strain when the leader does not agree with the subordinates idea or suggestion (Rosener, 1990).

c) Enhancing self-worth. Women recognize, praise and give credit to sub-ordinates, with the effect being a boost in morale and ultimately an improvement in performance. It's a win-win situation.

d) Energizing and exciting others. Women want to excite their subordinates and make them realize that even monotonous jobs can be energized. Cheerful leadership style may lead, however, to a reduction of credibility. With the increasing number of women and political leaders comes a set of experiences and perspectives that differ from those of the twentieth century's primarily male leaders. Adler (1997) quotes from Iqtidar and Webster (1996:10), that Dr Frene Ginwala, the then Speaker of the South African National Assembly states, "... the institutions that discriminate are man-shaped and must be made people-shaped. Only then will women be able to function as equals within those institutions..." Ginwala's fundamental belief is that "women's struggle is not a struggle to transform the position of women in society but a struggle to transform society itself".

Recognizing the growing number of women leaders and followers is the first step in creating an understanding of the type of global leadership that will lead to success in the twenty-first century.

The political transformation in South Africa in the early 1990's has rescinded borders to the rest of the world and opened up South Africa to the global marketplace, bringing with it a host of challenges associated with a competitive world economy. South African organizations thus need to adapt in order to survive. It is with this in mind that change, transformation, adaptation and agility has become imperative to organizations of the 21st century.

As a result of the above, changes in organizational strategy, culture and systems have occurred, which means that workforce priorities, methods and processes have also changed. This similarly necessitates a change in leadership, to more effectively drive the "new" organisation forward.

Booysen (1999) fittingly asserts that the current leadership paradigm is simply not sufficient to lead organisations into the next millennium, and a new breed of leaders is necessary to bring about transformation successfully and to effectively mobilize people.

It has been argued that going forward, organization's are set to become more decentralized with the result being a shift towards more collaborative styles of working across organizational departments, fostering teamwork, innovation and creative problem-solving as is denoted in Table II below. Increased emphasis is placed on employee participation, empowerment and teamwork. Notably, leadership styles need to be capable of harnessing these aspects within the workforce. Table II highlights the structure, culture and systems of the 21st century organization and the leadership model most suitable for such organizations to attain success (Booysen, 1999).

Table II: The Twentieth and Twenty-First Century Organization - Compared:

TWENTIETH CENTURY	TWENTY-FIRST CENTURY
STRUCTURE • Bureaucratic • Multileveled • Organized with the expectation that senior management will manage • Characterized by policies and	STRUCTURE • Non-bureaucratic, with fewer rules and employees • Limited to fewer levels • Organized with the expectation that management will lead, lower-level

procedures that create many complicated internal interdependencies • Office-bound	employees will manage • Characterized by policies and procedures that produce the minimal internal interdependence needed to serve customers • Remote access
SYSTEMS • Depend on few performance information systems • Distribute performance data to executives only • Offer management training and support systems to senior people only	SYSTEMS • Depend on many performance information systems, providing data on customers especially • Distribute performance data widely • Offer management training and support systems to many people
CULTURE • Inwardly focused • Centralized • Slow to make decisions • Political • Risk-averse	CULTURE • Externally oriented • Empowering • Quick to make decisions • Open and candid • More risk-tolerant
LEADERSHIP • Autocratic • Command and control through formal power • High power stratification • Exclusive, closed, non-transparent • Transactional • Present-orientated • Contingent reward orientation • Rigid	LEADERSHIP • Democratic, collaborative • Influencing through personal power • Low power stratification: empowerment • Inclusive, open, team leadership • Transformational, relationship building • Future-orientated • Sub-ordinate development orientation • Role-model • Flexible

Source: Adapted from Booysen (1999)

Recent theory supports the assertion that team leadership, coaching, collaboration, empowerment and relationship-building leadership are what will create and maintain winning organizations and employees (Booysen, 1999).

The historical notion of men holding senior roles simply due to the fact that they are male is no longer valid. Many women seem to do these things better, more naturally and more effectively than men, because of socialized and internalized gendered behaviour that was once the very reason for their failure to achieve success into management.

Booysen (1999) summarizes the challenges facing South Africa and states that in addition to the external environmental challenges, South Africa also faces cultural diversity challenges which impact on the workplace such as:

- Understanding and managing workplace and corporate diversity
- Changing the present management paradigm
- Bringing about critical mass for changes in leadership values
- Moving towards a synergistic leadership model for South Africa

This is still applicable today as although South Africa, and indeed the world at large, has made great strides to promote the above challenges, there remains a long way to go to bridge the gap.

As women gain the work experience and education necessary to qualify for leadership positions, the supply of capable women leaders grow. Organisations are subsequently called on to re-establish and expand their notions of what constitutes effective leadership as it relates to gender, stereotyping and role expectations. It is estimated that by 2030, women will outnumber men in management roles as more women are obtaining Bachelor level degrees and entering management programs (Stelter, 2002).

Nonetheless, after fifty-years and thousands of studies a greater insight into effective leadership should have been attained. Organizations today are dramatically different from organizations fifty-years ago. Leaders in contemporary organizations have to react to a variety of new challenges, including decentralized organizational forms,

globalization, rapidly changing environments, diverse workforce, greatly accelerated technological growth, intense competitive pressures on corporations and other organisations, a weakening of geopolitical boundaries and new work arrangements.

Organizations need fewer chiefs, who provide all the answers, and more of those capable of asking the right questions and listening. Organizations of the future will be less structured, flatter, service-oriented, more reliant on interpersonal skills and new ways of exchanging power and information. Therefore, it is imperative for business executives to re-examine their tendency to value only the male-dominated, authoritarian leadership style. It is vital to understand that allowing a diversity of leadership styles to develop is good business sense, thereby providing organizations with the strength and agility to survive and prosper in an ever-changing competitive and diverse economic environment (Rosener, 1990 & 1991).

Bennis states candidly that "competitive advantage will be the leadership of women." His statement is evidenced today by the company's that are reaping financial rewards via their inclusion of women on their Boards and within their top management structures (i.e.: women's participation as business leaders can co-incide with economic gains for corporations). We can, therefore, deduce that gender equality does make "business sense".

A review of the research process and results follow, which identifies whether any changes to the status quo, mentioned throughout this research, have been noted.

CHAPTER 6

Research Methodology

This section covers the research design that has been used in this particular study and covers the research method, the sampling technique, the sample, the measurement instrument, the research process and some aspects of the data analysis.

Method

There are various types of quantitative studies that fall under the broad heading of descriptive quantitative research. For this particular study, survey research has been selected which takes the form of a written questionnaire. The reason for this choice is that survey research involves the acquiring of information relating to the characteristics, opinions, attitudes or previous experiences of an individual or a group of people. The aim of the research is to collect primary data relating to opinions of individuals, via the use of a questionnaire (known as the measurement instrument), which poses a series of questions to each participant; the responses are then be summarized with the use of various statistical indexes and inferences.

The advantages of using quantitative research methods are:

- The results are statistically reliable.
- The results can be generalized to the population.
- Quantitative analysis methods are suitable to addressing the who, what, when and where of the study.

The disadvantages of using quantitative research methods are:

- Quantitative research is not cost effective.
- The sample must be relatively large to provide reliable statistical results.
- The issues are only measured if they are known prior to the beginning of the survey.
- The questions on the survey/questionnaire must be direct and easily quantifiable.

The measurement instrument and research design selected for this study is a replication of the original empirical studies undertaken by Virginia Schein in 1973,

1979 and 1989. This instrument and study has been selected as it adequately investigates the phenomenon of interest in this particular study. Additionally, Virginia Schein's study has been successfully simulated by various researchers over the last few decades, investigating similar phenomenon thereby proving that both the measurement instrument and Schein's methodology to be reliable and valid. In conjunction with several of Virginia Schein's colleagues, this study has been simulated over various countries globally, including Germany, United Kingdom, The People's Republic of China and Japan, and also very recently in South Africa.

These studies have consistently revealed that managers are viewed as possessing characteristics more commonly ascribed to men than to women and the aim of this research is to ascertain if this remains the status quo in South Africa or, if indeed, the South Africa is in a state of change.

Sampling Technique

The simple random sampling method has been used. The sample consisted of a group of second-year Masters of Business Leadership students enrolled at a prominent South African business school. Probability sampling procedure was used, whereby each element of the population has a known, non-zero probability of being included in the sample. A probability sample usually produces a more representative sample of the population.

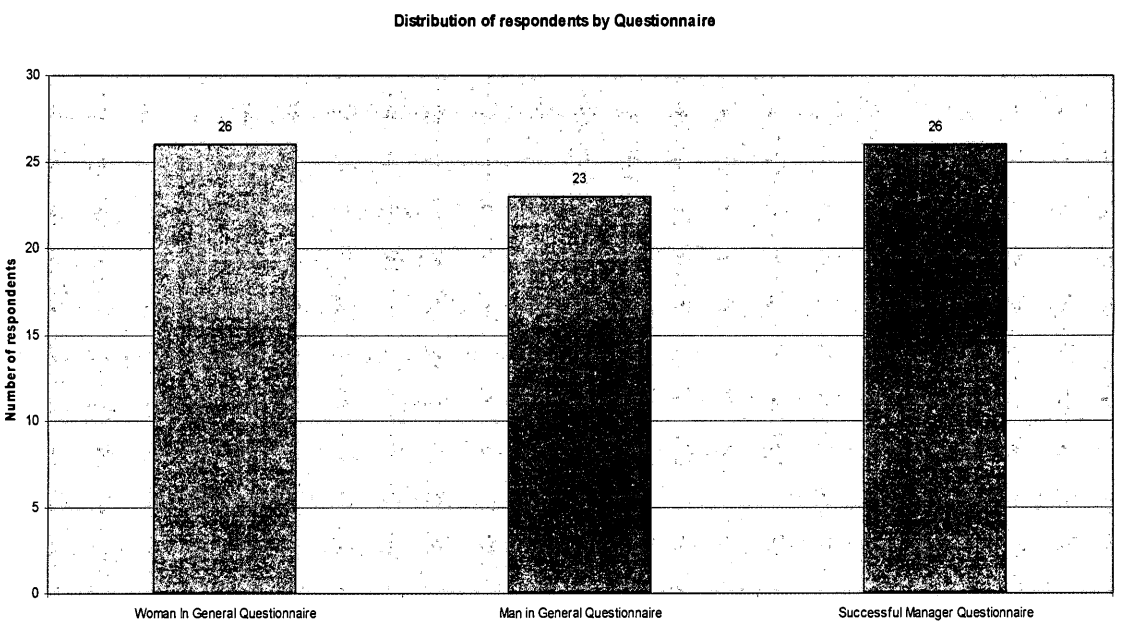
Sample

The sample consisted of 134 individuals of varying ages, races and cultural backgrounds. Of the 134 questionnaires, only 75 respondents completed the questionnaire fully and therefore only 75 were admitted into the study for statistical analysis, in order to ensure the credible and consistent production of results.

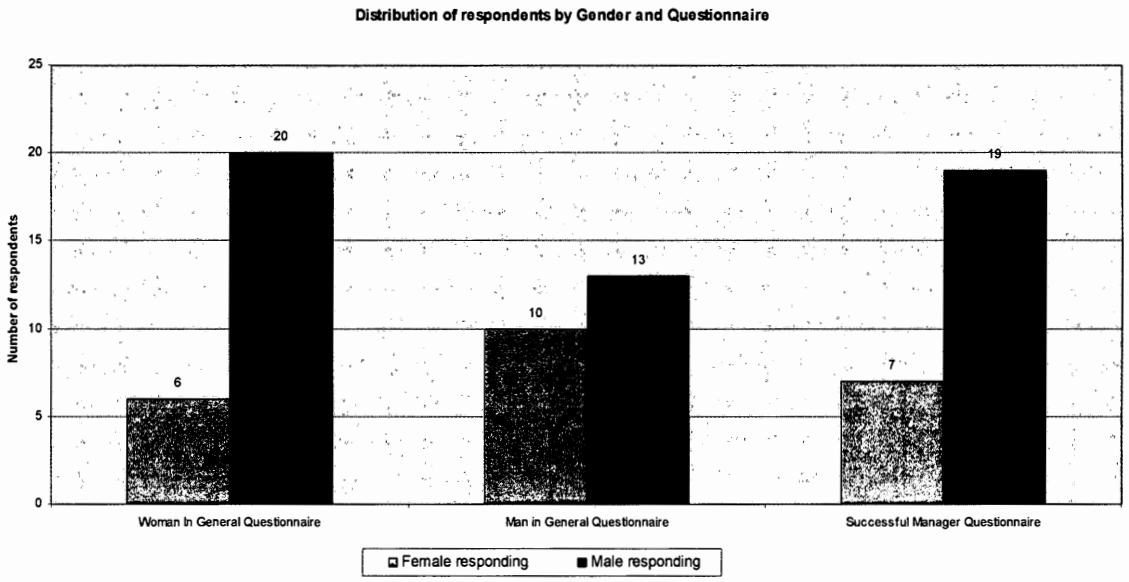
Table III: Representation of theoretical number of respondents by gender and questionnaire

-	-	**Original Sample** Gender		Total	**Final Sample** Gender		Total
		Female	Male	-	Female	Male	-
Questionnaire	Woman In General	20	29	49	6	20	49
	Man in General	15	23	38	10	13	38
	Successful Manager	14	33	47	7	19	47
Total		49	85	134	23	52	75

Graph I: Graphic distribution of respondents by questionnaire (final sample of 75)



Graph II: Graphic distribution of respondents by gender and questionnaire (final sample of 75)



Measurement instrument

Three forms of the 92-item Schein Descriptive Index have been utilized, which has been developed to define gender stereotypes and the characteristics of successful manager's. Each of the forms contain exactly the same 92 adjectives and descriptive terms, with the exception being that one form asks for a description of women in general, one for a description of men in general and one for the description of a successful manager.

The instructions on each of the three forms of the descriptive index read as follows:

"On the following pages you will find a series of descriptive terms commonly used to describe people in general. Some of the terms are positive in connotation, others are negative, and some are neither very positive nor very negative.

We would like you to use this list to tell us what you think (women in general, men in general or successful managers) are like. In making your judgments, it might be helpful to imagine that you are about to meet a person for the first time and the only thing that you know in advance is that the person is (an adult female, adult male or a successful manager). Please rate each word or phrase in terms of how

characteristic it is of (women in general, men in general or successful managers)."

The ratings of each of the 92 descriptive terms have been made using a five-point Likert scale, ranging from 1, "not characteristic", through to 5, "characteristic", with a neutral rating of 3 being "neither characteristic nor uncharacteristic".

Internal validity and reliability of the instrument has already been established through the instruments use in various studies from 1973, at the time of the instruments' development, and its return of consistent data over the years.

Research process

The survey was distributed by hand to the respondents at their September 2007 study school held at the business school. Each respondent received one form of the Schein Descriptive Index for completion. The respondents were advised of the purpose of the study, additionally, the participant's rights, their anonymity and confidentiality was re-confirmed. The respondents were provided time to complete each questionnaire, which were then collected promptly upon completion.

This process of primary data collection, allowed for the participants to ask any questions or request any explanations whilst the researcher administering the survey was present, so that the relevant clarifications could be provided instantaneously, allowing for a more streamlined process.

Data Analysis

The minimum and maximum age and period in managerial positions of respondents have been calculated, per questionnaire. Additionally, the means and standard deviations have been calculated.

The frequency (and percentage) of responses according to the scale, the mean and the standard deviation have also been ascertained, per item, questionnaire and gender.

By computing the intra class correlation coefficients (r') from two randomized – group analyses of variance (ANOVA), the degree of correspondence between the descriptions of successful managers and men in general, and between successful managers and women in general have been determined. The classes or groups are the 92 descriptive items from the SDI. The larger the value of the intra class correlation coefficients (r'), the more similar do the observations in the class tend to be.

Now that we have a better understanding of the research methodology used for this study, we investigate the research results, their significance and shortcomings. The following chapter explains the statistical analyses that have been computed and provides an interpretation of the relevant results.

CHAPTER 7

Research Results

This chapter deals with relationships that have been identified based on the statistical analyses undertaken.

A relationship occurs when a change in one variable is accompanied by a consistent change in another variable. There can be some degree of consistency, which is that the change in scores of one variable elicits a consistent change in the scores of another variable.

"The strength of the relationship resides within the extent to which one value of the Y-variable is consistently associated with one and only one value of the X-variable. This is the degree of association between the variables. Mathematically, the scores from two variables can produce varying strength's of relationship, from a perfectly a consistent association to no association" (Heiman, 1996: 20).

Within this study, the respondent's ages range from 22 to 50, with the mean age being 34. Their managerial experience ranges from 1-year to 20-years, with the mean being 5. Most of the respondents work in the following areas of specialization:

- Engineering
- Finance
- Marketing
- Operations

The top five characteristics that were found to be "characteristic of successful managers", from an overall perspective, are curiosity, leadership ability, values pleasant surroundings, competence and being in possession of skills in business matters. The top five characteristics that were found to be "not characteristic of successful managers" are vulgarism, dawdling and procrastination, deceitfulness, bitterness and selfishness.

Quantitative Results:

For this study the analysis of variance (ANOVA) has been used. This statistic is also known as the intra class correlation. The ANOVA enjoys great popularity and is known to be probably the most utilized statistical technique in

psychological research, and deals with differences between sample means. The attractiveness of the ANOVA resides in the following two factors:

- ✓ This technique places no ceiling on the number of means i.e. instead of being able to ascertain if merely two means differ, the analysis of variance statistic is able to determine whether multiple means differ.
- ✓ The analysis of variance permits one to deal with two or more independent variables concurrently, thereby taking their interacting effects into consideration as opposed to their individual effects independently.

The ANOVA is a parametric statistical procedure for determining whether significant differences exist in an analysis containing two or more sample means and includes the separation of the variance in terms of its source. The effect is that the total variability of the scores in the analysis is distributed in terms of their source. The two potential sources of variance are:

- ✓ Scores may differ from each other when the subjects are in the same condition, which is known as the within groups variance.
- ✓ Scores may differ from each other because they are from differing conditions, with this variability being called the between groups variance.

Estimates of the value that each of these variances would have in the population are calculated using the sample data. Each estimated variance is called a mean square, which is the abridged name for mean squared deviation (or the variance). We therefore compute two mean squares, one mean square for within items and one for between items.

The statistical process, by which the nature of the relationships among variables is discovered, is called "correlation" (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:265). The resultant statistic, which is called a correlation coefficient, is a number that falls between -1 and +1, with most correlation coefficients being decimals between the two boundaries that are either positive or negative. The coefficients found for the two variables, simultaneously describes two different things about the relationship between such variables:

- ✓ Directionality is indicated by whether the result is positive and negative. A positive result indicates a positive correlation, whilst a negative result indicates an inverse relationship, or a negative correlation.
- ✓ The strength of the relationship is demonstrated by the size of the correlation coefficient. A correlation of +1 or -1 indicates a perfect correlation, a correlation close to +1 or -1 indicates a strong correlation whilst, a coefficient close to zero reflects a weak correlation.

What follows is the demonstration of the significance of the relationship. A standard score generally refers to a raw score that has been converted from one scale to another. Typically, the scale that it is converted into is more widely used and easier to interpret, and allows one to draw conclusions where performance measures are concerned. The simplest standard score is the z-score. Any scores that have been transformed into z-scores can be compared with any other scores that have also been transformed into z-scores because they are all measured in terms of distance from the mean in standard deviation units.

The z-score (prime) transformation test was used to test the significance of the difference between two correlation coefficients. If the two inter class correlations are significantly different, then the hypothesis is confirmed (Booysen & Nkomo, 2006:13).

The degree of freedom, denoted as *df* on Table IV, has also been calculated. The number of degrees of freedom is a measure of how certain we are that our sample population is representative of the entire population - the higher the degrees of freedom, usually the more certain we can be that we have accurately sampled the entire population.

Table IV: Analysis of variance of mean item ratings and intra class coefficients

		Source	*df*	Mean Square	F Value	r'
Males	Men and Managers	Between items	91	0.56	1.18	0.17
		Within items	92	0.47		
	Women and Managers	Between items	91	0.68	1.23	0.22
		Within items	92	0.56		
Females	Men and Managers	Between items	91	0.80	1.09	0.08
		Within items	92	0.73		
	Women and Managers	Between items	91	1.33	3.13	0.68*
		Within items	92	0.43		

- $p < 0.01$
- Males – z-score = -0.41
- Females – z-score = -5.49*

Based on the scores reflected in Table IV, the intra class correlation coefficient's (r') all reflect a positive direction. The first three scores, which are the two sets of male responses (to the men-manager questionnaire and women-manager questionnaire) and the female responses related to the men-manager questionnaire, reflect a weak correlation. The fourth intra class correlation coefficient, which relates to the female responses to the women-managers questionnaire, is the only score that indicates a strong correlation.

These weak results suggest that there is a likelihood that these results were caused by interference (noise) or chance, whilst the last intra class correlation coefficient reflected on the table (being 0.68*) is a significant score. Being a

significant score suggests that there is a genuine difference, therefore, the difference is not attributed to factors such as chance or noise.

With the above noted, for the male respondents there is a larger, although insignificant, resemblance between the ratings of women and managers (r' = 0.22) as opposed to the ratings between men and managers (r' = 0.17). For females, there is a large and significant resemblance between the ratings of women and managers (r' = 0.68), whilst there is small and rather insignificant resemblance between the ratings of men and managers (r' = 0.08).

The z (prime) transformation test was used to determine significance and thereby either accept or reject the hypothesis. If the two correlation coefficients have a significant difference, then the hypothesis is confirmed. Here it was found that for males, there is no significant difference between the men-manager and women-manager intra class correlations as z = -0.41. On the other hand, for females, a significant difference between the intra class correlations was found, with z = -5.49, thereby confirming the hypothesis.

The substance of the research results resides within the recognition that women perceive females to be more characteristic of successful managers than men. This is an important finding because over the many decades, women themselves have had the inclination to rate men as successful managers. Indeed, it seems that this mind-set is the midst of change. This result supports the finding of the 2006 article by Booysen and Nkomo called "Think manager – think fe(male): A South African Perspective" which provided an intra class correlation coefficient of 0.65*, when females rated women and managers, against a score of 0.68* received by this research.

Sample Representation:

A sample is a relatively small subset of a population that it is intended to represent, or stand in for. It is the sample or samples that we measure in a study and their scores constitute the data. The individuals measured in the sample are known as subjects.

As we are usually unable measure the entire population due to various constraints e.g. cost and time, we use scores in the sample to infer or estimate the scores we would expect to find if we could measure the whole population. However, the inferences we draw about a population will be accurate only if the sample is representative of the population.

The determination of sample size is a rather complex issue that involves both statistical and practical consideration. Four statistical factors to be considered are:

1. The degree of variability in the population – the more heterogeneous the population, the larger the sample size required to capture the diversity in the population.
2. The desired degree of precision associated with population estimates based on the sample – the greater the precision required, the larger the sample size needed.
3. The desired degree of confidence associated with any estimates made – the greater confidence level that this sample estimate will contain the true population value, the larger the sample size required.
4. A final statistical consideration concerns the extent to which the intended analysis will involve the use of sub-samples for cross-classification purposes and/or the use of statistical techniques which assume a minimum sample size to produce meaningful results.

In our sample of 26, only 6 (23%) female respondents answered the "woman in general" questionnaire and from a sample of 26 respondents answering the "successful manager" questionnaire, only 7 (27%) were female. This low representation of female respondents on both these questionnaires could have a negative impact on the validity and reliability of the results.

The suggestions provided for increasing the power of the statistical tests and results are as follows:

- ✓ Use as large a sample as possible.
- ✓ Maximize the validity and reliability of the measures – research using measures with high validity and reliability which are more likely to yield statistically significant results.

- ✓ Use parametric rather than non – parametric statistics whenever possible – generally non-parametric statistical procedures are less powerful than parametric techniques. By "less powerful" we mean that they require larger samples to yield valid results.

In this study, the researcher has used both a measure that has been proven to be valid and reliable via its successful use over various decades; and via the use of parametric statistical techniques, which does not require a larger sample to be valid.

These two actions have increased the power of the analysis and results, however, the validity and reliability of the results still remain questionable owing to the small percentage of female responses in both questionnaires.

In selecting a probability sample design, the goal was to minimize sampling error. Two of the sources of sampling error are:

- ✓ Inadequate sample size
- ✓ The smaller the sample, the more difficult it is to capture the characteristics of a population i.e. leading to imprecise sample/results

This study used the probability sampling method called simple random sampling, which is a procedure that ensures that each element in the population will have an equal chance of being included in the sample. Although random sampling should produce representative samples, this is not always the case.

A known disadvantage of this sampling procedure is that sub-groups within the population may either not be represented, be under-represented or over-represented, and therefore generalizability to the population is uncertain. As noted earlier, the small representation of females answering the "woman in general" (only 23%) and "successful manager" (only 27%) questionnaires, is indicative of such a situation, based on the fact that women constitute 51% of the South African adult population, as reflected by the 2007 Businesswomen's Association Census.

What follows is a discussion of the research results against previous literature. The discussion goes further to explore the implications of these results and provides recommendations to organizations and managers, to aid in their attainment of success.

CHAPTER 8

Discussion and implications of the study

This chapter provides an overview of the results and implications associated with this study and is a culmination of the study with a linkage into existing literature.

For both males and females the hypothesis, being that there are leadership trait preferences among the South African workforce, is confirmed. The male sample has noted a greater resemblance between the characteristics of women and managers, albeit that both results are insignificant. In terms of the female sample, however, a significant resemblance between the characteristics of women and managers has been recorded.

Additionally, all three sub-hypothesis have been confirmed, as noted below:

1. Females have rated feminine traits higher than males (a score of 0.68* by female sample, against a 0.22 rating obtained from the male sample).
2. Females have reflected that they favour feminine leadership traits (a significant 0.68* correspondence between women and manager characteristics recorded against a 0.08 correspondence between men and manager characteristics, by the female sample).
3. Females have rated masculine traits lower than males (the rating on the female sample of man and managers provided a score of 0.08, which is lower than that of the male samples rating of men and managers, at 0.17).

As per Armandi, Oppedisano and Sherman (2003) the basic premise of leadership has been identified as the ability to influence people toward the achievement of a common goal. One of the purposes of this research was to identify which leadership style, i.e. male or female, was preferred by the workforce, and hence would better be able to influence people toward the achievement of a common goal and superior performance. Evidently, the South African workforce has demonstrated a preference toward feminine leadership, based on the similarity that both male and female samples have attributed between the characteristics of women and managers.

Schein's research of the 1970's was aimed at establishing whether a relationship between gender stereotyping and management characteristics exists. The results confirmed a strong resemblance between the ratings of men and managers and a

near zero resemblance between the ratings of women and managers (Schein, 2006). Various replications of Schein's study was undertaken over the 1980's and 1990's in the USA, yielding the same "think manager – think male" outcome among the male respondents, however, there was a change in the view of women. Their responses reflected a mind-set change to a view that both men and women were equally likely to possess characteristics necessary for managerial success.

The studies conducted have produced evolutionary results over the years, from the 1970's seeing a clear "think manager, think male" mind-set, to the 1980's and 1990's where women started to view men and women on an equal standing as both being in possession of leadership characteristics. This specific study's results, reflect women as possessing characteristics resembling successful managers, whilst men are viewed as being in possession of leadership characteristics to a lesser degree than women. It seems that males are also aligning women with management characteristics, denoting a preference toward feminine leadership, however, further research is required to confirm this view.

The recent study undertaken by Booysen and Nkomo (2006) has also resulted in the view that females perceived women to possess characteristics resembling those of managers. The male sample, though, significantly perceived men to possess characteristics attributed to leaders, although, a smaller, but still significant resemblance between women and managers was also found.

Therefore, one can deduce that the results from the 1980's and 1990's had already started to reflect a change to traditional trait theory and with the influence of women within the workforce, the "think manager – think male" phenomenon has been fading and/or being replaced with the "think manager – think female" perception, especially within the South African context.

This difference between the South African results and that of Schein's study's in the 1970's and the replications of her studies over the 1980's and 1990's, may be attributed to the following factors:

- ✓ time horizon
- ✓ the fact that women constitute a much larger proportion of the workforce today than ever before (women currently constitute 42% of the working South African population)
- ✓ there is a much larger proportion of women managers within the workforce thereby reducing the gender bias to a certain degree
- ✓ a socialization change associated with women forming a large portion of the workforce
- ✓ the requisite necessity for leadership changes brought about by globalization, democratization and privatization.

The enactment of various legislative acts in South Africa toward employment equity and the consistent monitoring thereof, can be accredited with the heightened amount of women that constitute the workforce today.

The results that we have received might also be reflective that organizational culture is on the brink of a change, seeing that males as well as females seem to liken females with management characteristics, albeit, from the male perspective by a miniscule margin. This might indicate that corporate cultures will in the future be seeing a change from male-centered to include women. Clearly, the research by Appelbaum and Shapiro in 1993, which concluded that men viewed women as not indicative of management for a number of reasons, has since changed, at least within the South African context.

Previously, in order for women to penetrate the "glass ceiling" the first wave of women chose to conform and adapt to masculine behaviours and mannerisms. It seems, however, that the leadership style that women are naturally equipped with, which is more "consensus-building, open and inclusive, more likely to encourage participation by others, and more caring than that of many males" (Nelton, 1991; Sharma, 1990:13) is the correctly chosen path for the second wave of women to follow. The result that has been obtained in this study has come out favouring females as managers, and does so based on the non-traditional (or feminine) leadership model. This means that women are "drawing on what is unique to their socialization as women and creating a different path to the top" (Rosener, 1990), and

with much success, as the results of this and other studies over the 1980's and 1990's have demonstrated.

The findings of Vinnicombe and Singh's 2002 study, seems to have been contradicted by the findings of this research. Their findings indicate that women had found themselves in a double bind, in that their very strengths were viewed as weaknesses by both male and female managers – in effect, women had rated themselves as not representative of the "successful manager". The findings of this study, Booysen and Nkomo's (2006) study and various replications of Schein's study's (Schein, 2007) indicate that there has been a change in the way that women view themselves, and that they now associate themselves, even to the point of preference, with successful managers.

Recommendations:

For Organizations:

- ✓ As a matter of necessity organizations need to revise recruitment procedures and policies to eliminate any source of gender bias. This would in itself, reduce the instances of passing over female candidates with the correct pre-requisites to be successful in leadership roles. The results of the study clearly articulate that organizations that are striving to gain competitive advantage, need to adapt to the changing workforce requirements.

- ✓ Adler (1999) noted that female leaders have come to symbolize new types of leadership that connote greater effectiveness and synergy than the leadership of the past. The research results support this statement from a workforce perspective, hence indicating that even greater success can be achieved via the recruitment and promotion of women into positions of leadership.

  In order to cement organizational success, organizations need to affirm that the days of the "old boy networks" have indeed come and gone and that talent is rewarded over gender. Organizations and management alike must embrace and welcome the admittance of women into the upper reaches of management and in order to do this, the message needs to be filtered from the top downward, organization-wide.

This can also be achieved by compensating both men and women alike as this action would send the message that both genders are treated equally and rewarded accordingly.

- ✓ The message is clear - in order to minimize financial missed opportunities, ensure that women form part of your management and senior management teams. This point has been clearly illustrated via studies conducted by Catalyst (2004) in the United States which reflected that from the largest Fortune 500 companies, those with substantially better performance included more women within their management teams.

  Inadvertently, there is a positive correlation between the percentage of women in senior roles and financial performance in the 1990's (Eagly, 2007). This South African study is essentially telling the same story from a different perspective. Hence, to gain competitive advantage in this turbulent era, promote women into the upper echelons of management.

- ✓ Effective work management requires gender-diversity training, in order to understand the different leadership styles and educate those that have not been led by women previously. Additionally, this training can prepare women for their role as leaders to both men and women. Executive training programs must be rejuvenated to include and cater for both genders.

<u>For Managers:</u>

- ✓ Reward and promote sub-ordinates into managerial positions and beyond according to talent and not gender. It is clearly demonstrated that feminine leadership to an extent is preferred, therefore promotion on merit rather than gender is the smarter choice.

<u>For Researchers:</u>

- ✓ There is a lot of change occurring in this sphere of study, however, as noted earlier, this study has obtained both significant and insignificant results. In order to capture the realities of this changing "think manager, think male/female" phenomenon, more research on this subject is needed.

Over the decades, as the Schein Descriptive Index has been used the world-over, the findings have indicated subtle changes to the traditional trait theory. The findings of this study support said changes. However, as this topic evolves, there is certainly a lot more that needs confirmation and understanding, which can only be achieved through further study.

Conclusion:

Certainly over the past decades, the Schein Descriptive Index has yielded a variety of results, but all have supported the fact that traditional trait theory is undergoing vast changes and that women are on the rise.

As more and more women are entering the workforce, and achieving management levels, the "glass ceiling" phenomenon and the "think manager, think male" phenomenon are dissipating. This has been noted via the vast changes that we have already seen in research results over the decades.

In addition, organizations of the 21st century are set to be more decentralized, with a focus on employee participation, empowerment and teamwork. Booysen, 1999, asserts team leadership, coaching, collaboration, empowerment and relationship-building to be the cornerstone to winning organizations and employees. The leadership model necessary is more assimilated to that of women than men, which has a vast impact on the future rise of women into leadership roles.

Therefore, the future, in terms of women's progression up the hierarchy no longer looks bleak, but rather holds much promise for a future where they are valued for their unique socialization and not for how well they are able to fit into the "masculine mask".

The then speaker of the South African National Assembly, Dr Frene Ginwala, highlighted that the requisite for the transformation of woman's position in society, was the transformation of society itself (Adler, 1997). Indications are that the South African society is on the road to transformation.

SECTION 3

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Appendix 1:

Measurement Instrument

Schein Descriptive Index

Instructions - Schein Descriptive Index

On the following pages you will find a series of descriptive terms commonly used to characterize people in general. Some of these terms are positive in connotation, others are negative, and some are neither very positive nor very negative.

We would like you to use this list to tell us what you think a successful middle manager is like. In making your judgements, it may be helpful to imagine that you are about to meet a person for the first time and the only thing you know in advance is that the person is a successful middle manager. Please rate each word or phrase in terms of how characteristic it is of a successful middle manager.

The ratings are to be made according to the following scale:

5 - Characteristic of a successful middle manager

4 - Somewhat characteristic of a successful middle manager

3 - Neither characteristic nor uncharacteristic of a successful middle manager

2 - Somewhat uncharacteristic of a successful middle manager

1 - Not characteristic of a successful middle manager

Place the number (1, 2, 3, 4, or 5) which most closely represents your opinion of the line next to the adjective

---

Your area of specialization(i.e.Marketing, Finance)_____

Industry Type (i.e. Manufacturing, Financial Services)_____

Number of years in a managerial position_____

Age_____

Sex_____

Your nationality_____

Country of corporate headquarters_____

Country of your present assignment_____How many years?_____

In the last ten years, list any countries, other than your home country, in which you have lived for five or more years. _____

---

1. Curious_____
2. Consistent_____
3. High need for power_____
4. Sympathetic_____
5. Fearful_____
6. Adventurous_____
7. Leadership ability_____
8. Values pleasant surroundings____
9. Neat_____
10. Uncertain_____
11. Creative_____
12. Desire to avoid controversy_____
13. Submissive_____
14. Frank_____
15. Courteous_____
16. Emotionally stable_____
17. Devious_____
18. Interested in own appearance___
19. Independent_____
20. Desire for friendship_____
21. Frivolous_____
22. Intelligent_____
23. Persistent_____
24. Vigorous_____
25. Timid_____
26. Sophisticated_____
27. Talkative_____
28. Strong need for security_____
29. Forceful_____
30. Analytical ability_____
31. Competitive_____
32. Wavering in decision_____
33. Cheerful_____
34. High need for autonomy_____
35. Able to separate feelings from ideas_____
36. Competent_____
37. Understanding_____
38. Vulgar_____
39. Sociable_____
40. Aggressive_____
41. High self-regard_____
42. Grateful_____
43. Easily Influenced_____
44. Exhibitionist_____
45. Aware of feelings of others____
46. Passive_____

(continued on page 4)

47. Objective_____

48. Speedy recovery from emotional trauma_____

49. Shy_____

50. Firm_____

51. Prompt_____

52. Intuitive_____

53. Humanitarian values_____

54. Knows the way of the world____

55. Dawdler and procrastinator_____

56. Quarrelsome_____

57. Industrious_____

58. Well informed_____

59. Not uncomfortable about being aggressive_____

60. Reserved_____

61. Ambitious_____

62. Not conceited about appearance

_____

63. Strong need for social acceptance_____

64. Hasty_____

65. Obedient_____

66. Desires responsibility_____

67. Self-controlled_____

68. Modest_____

69. Decisive_____

70. Nervous_____

71. Direct_____

72. Hides Emotion_____

73. Authoritative_____

74. Self-confident_____

75. Sentimental_____

76. Steady_____

77. Assertive_____

78. Feelings not easily hurt_____

79. Dominant_____

80. Tactful_____

81. Helpful_____

82. Strong need for achievement____

83. Deceitful_____

84. Generous_____

85. Bitter_____

86. Logical_____

87. Skilled in business matters_____

88. Selfish_____

89. Demure_____

90. Kind_____

91. Strong need for monetary rewards_____

92. Self Reliant_____

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