

Perceived Differences between Male and Female Managers

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Abstract

In the past few decades, the number of women in leadership positions has been increasing, which is a sign of progressive social change. But there is still a gender imbalance in top leadership positions. There are various reasons why women are not in top leadership positions. Therefore, to see the current level of female and male leadership, 26 female and 29 male leaders were selected from seven zone department offices. 14 are zone department heads and 41 are team leaders. The quantitative data were analysed using a descriptive explanatory design, with mean, and inferential analyses using ANCOVA, while the qualitative data were analysed using content analysis. According to the results of the study, in the quantitative analysis, there is no significant difference between male and female leadership; based on the result of ANCOVA $P = 0.396$ is greater than 0.05; both males and females show transactional leadership as male = 37.5% while the female is 38.1%. Therefore, it is not gender that affects management processes; it is the individual's ability to know the appropriate and effective way of management. So, the only noticeable difference is society's perception and lack of trust in female leadership. Social organization is dominated by men. They think that men represent the "norm" better, but women are inferior and unable to lead independently, thus, a deep awareness of society must be created.

Keywords: Leadership, Characteristics of leaders, gender role, the perceived difference

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Introduction

1.1. Background

Although women's participation in the workplace has grown dramatically over the past few decades, even in Ethiopia, which is slightly better politically, the participation of females in many leadership positions remains low (STATISTICS, 2010). One of the common denominators of management is to involve all office members by increasing the work initiative; A sense of participation, knowledge, and satisfaction that will increase the company's productivity and growth, which is based on the organization's goals and direction, and all individuals and team members should be involved in their daily activities and implement (Harmon & Trends, 2010).

To improve this, it is appropriate for leaders to discuss with their followers deeply and widely and take their important ideas. In this process, the contribution of women as they are smart is not easy. However, most offices don't seem to be paying attention (Jalocha, Krane, Ekambaram, & Prawelska-Skrzypek, 2014).

On the contrary, in many places, leadership is given only to men through informal selection. This approach has prevented women from entering leadership positions as they spend more time with their families and do not meet many people or be exposed to many conversations outside the home (Gordon & Rosen, 1981). In rural and urban Africa, women have found that the majority are poor and illiterate (Anyidoho & Manuh, 2010). While they should participate in all aspects of life in terms of legal rights and common sense, they are discriminated against, especially in developing countries (Rogers, 2005).

In the current situation of Ethiopia, the role of women in all aspects of life is small due to various cultural and political reasons that have existed in the country for many years. Women in Ethiopia have been suffering for many years due to the lack of ownership, management and decision-making opportunities (Gobaw, 2017).

According to Mesfin (2004), when comparing men and women in professional positions in Ethiopia, women occupy only 29% and men occupy 71% of professional positions.

However, the constitution of Ethiopia stipulates that women have equal participation and benefits in all aspects of economic, social and political affairs. The Ethiopian government is a signatory to international agreements, covenants and norms that guarantee gender equality and rights that are very important (Hailegebriel, 2009). One of these is the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (CEDAW), which includes women's access to management positions in higher education (Session, 2005). Ethiopia is one of the countries where women and men have equal access to education. However, there is still a wage gap between women's and men's earnings, and women who choose careers over home life often face negative stereotypes and discrimination. Also, the number of female leaders is surprisingly low (Appleton, Hoddinott, & Krishnan, 1999; Jamali, Sidani, & Kobeissi, 2008).

Therefore, the right of women to work, to receive equal pay and to lead is still a very topical issue. Although the situation is gradually improving, concepts such as the glass ceiling and quotas for women still exist. Thus, the authors decided to conduct a study on the topic of perceived differences between male and female managers in selected zone offices in Debre Berhan city (De Jonge, 2014).

1.2. Statement of the problem

There is a gender gap in management roles in institutions in Ethiopia (Ogato, 2013). Many surveys reveal that women's participation in the workplace is lower than that of men. For example, the CSA (2013) report reveals that out of the total 42,403,879-employed population, only 19,517,232 are women. Considering the total number of managers in the country by occupation (231,211), only 61,308 (26.5%) are women and of the total reported (563,231) only 181,668 (32.3%) are women. Surprisingly, the number of women employees outweighs the number of male employees in lower levels of occupations. Out of the total clerical and support workers in the country (221,028), 143,331 (65%) are women employees. Out of the total service and sales workers (3,670,391), 2,394,614 (65%) of them are women workers (Mekonnen Tadesse, 2017). Therefore, women have not made the same advancements in corporate management roles. There is a conflict between management roles and prescriptive expectations for women's behaviour. This conflict leads to prejudicial judgments and actions. This bias toward female managers averts the promotion of women's leadership positions (DeFrank-Cole, Latimer, Reed, & Wheatly, 2014).

This study, therefore, will provide insights into the reasons for the lower representation of women in higher managerial positions in Ethiopian Public Institutions. By exploring the status of women managers, the study will also reveal the challenges that women face in organizational settings and also uncover the reasons for the disparity in terms of representation at higher managerial levels in public institutions in Ethiopia. Hence, this study primarily aims to answer the following three questions.

1. What are the factors and sources of those factors used to account for the perceived difference between male and female managers on the job?
2. If differences do exist, what are those perceived differences held by male and female managers?
3. If differences do exist, what are the impacts of the perceived differences between male and female managers on effectiveness/performance?

1.3. Research Objective

1.3.1. General objective

The general objective of this study was to investigate the perceived differences between Male and Female Managers in government offices of Debre Berhan City.

1.3.2. Specific objectives

The specific objectives of the study:

1. To explore those perceived differences held by male and female managers?
2. To pinpoint the factors and sources of those factors used to account for the perceived difference between male and female managers
3. If there to examine the impacts of the perceived differences between male and female managers on effectiveness/performance

1.4. The Research Hypothesis

Based on the research questions the following hypotheses were.

Hypothesis 1: Gender will demonstrate a significant effect on the degree of emphasis placed on manager behaviours and styles.

Hypothesis 2: Female managers will be rated to exhibit more transformational than transactional leadership behaviours.

Hypothesis 3: Male managers will be rated to exhibit more transactional than transformational leadership behaviours.

Hypothesis 4: Women managers will be rated more effective than male managers.

Chapter Two

2.1. Gender and management

Gender in organizations refers to the social characteristics of men and women. Research shows that people's attitudes about gender vary from one society to another and that relationships, structures and social roles between opposite sexes or colleagues over time change with people's activities and behaviour; Society develops behaviour and norms (Akinsemolu & Olukoya, 2020). Leadership responsibility is one of these and depends on leadership decisions and leadership capabilities. Leadership involves initiative, direction and good communication with subordinates.

Effective and successful leadership is when the work is carried out efficiently and successfully. The growth of an organization depends on its ability to inspire, motivate, support and lead subordinates. Therefore, both men and women should have the skills and abilities to reach high leadership positions by building and developing the important qualities that are expected of them. Leadership focuses on actions around commitment, insight and integrity. Some argue that gender and leadership are linked and that there are challenges in decision-making, but the reality is that both genders have their strengths and weaknesses (Moss, 2002).

Organizations are responsible for developing effective strategies for wealth management. Mainly, the management bodies of various organizations regularly evaluate the performance of subordinates and make informed decisions on growth and economic development. Therefore, both men and women focus on building qualities that can be considered to move to a higher position of leadership. Research shows that gender balance and equality in leadership revolve around decisiveness, intelligence, and integrity (Mumford, Zaccaro, Harding, Jacobs, & Fleishman, 2000).

2.2. Theoretical Approach to Gender and Management

Some recent studies have shown that management practices differ between men and women based on their biological characteristics. Social stereotypes and cultural projections portray women as weak and inferior. Therefore, women are considered inferior to men in both organizational and political leadership. However, these should be properly analyzed based on factors such as attitudes: gender roles, decision making and time management (Jetu & Riedl, 2013).

2.2.1. Attitudinal drivers

The advantages of women are evident in business and government institutions. The characteristics challenge the competitive approach to control authority and managerial responsibility. However, women's skills are not associated with the traditional view of managerialism. The difference between men and women is caused by the consensual relationships that arise from the importance of women (Strøm, D'Espallier, & Mersland, 2014).

Women are successful in various aspects of management, such as communication, control and negotiation. Various factors that explain differences in management between men and women are shown in the Table1 below (Ogato, 2013).

In essence, contemporary thinking portrays male managers as different from those women. But some experts argue that it gives an advantage over men by taking the special characteristics of women; particularly in conflict resolution, effective communication skills and exceptional interpersonal skills. Additional research shows that women are better able than men to understand people's needs and to be empathetic in creating supportive relationships with others, developing and maintaining effective relationships with subordinates better than men (Fourie, Van der Merwe, & Van der Merwe, 2017; Shin & Zhou, 2003).

2.2.2. gender role

Some previous studies have shown that gender influences leadership effectiveness. Currently, gender can be classified into three variables; Male, female and androgyny. Social stereotypes present men as more successful than women in management (Friedman, Koeske, Silvestre, Korr, & Sites, 2006). The stereotypes are misleading as both men and women exhibit effective managerial behaviours if the appropriate infrastructure and necessary resources are provided (Fourie et al., 2017).

2.2.3. decision-making

Decision-making is one of the factors that determine the effectiveness of a leader. Gender analysis in management has shown that men and women exhibit differences in decision-making (Powell & Ansic, 1997). Some of the differences are like decisions, with research showing that women focus on developing and maintaining strong working relationships with both junior and senior staff to streamline operations. Conversely, men focus less on work relationships when they focus on results. Female leaders discuss an idea with their subordinates. Males are often calmer and reflect on issues on their own before concluding on a concrete course of action (Han, Hsu, & Lee, 2009).

In ethical and moral responsibilities, men's leaders' approach to activities is based on individual rights, justice and fairness; Women handle ethics with sensitivity and compassion (Hora, 2014).

2.2.4. time management

Time management skills are a critical leadership responsibility. Basically, the correct use of time improves quality performance and resource utilization. Additionally, performing assigned tasks quickly facilitates the strategic achievement of personal or organizational goals (Kaya, Kaya, Palloş, & Küçük, 2012). Completing tasks within a set time frame can relieve stress. Both male and female leaders demonstrate quality planning, and organizational and management skills, which are critical factors in driving organizational growth in the desired direction. Management is directly related to time management as all activities are done on a specific schedule. Therefore, the ability to track time ensures no confusion in the workplace and creates job satisfaction and outstanding results (Hora, 2014).

2.3. Differences and barriers to women's governance

2.3.1. from Ethiopia's contextual, cultural and experience of the administrative situation

In the basic structure of Ethiopian society, men dominate⁷ they are assumed better able to lead and leadership positions are suited to men, while women are made to support men despite their experience. The societal perception behind this system cannot be ignored. Gender and patriarchal values are so ingrained in society that they are often invisible (Abdolrasulnia et al., 2010). Therefore, in many social organizations and many bureaucracies, governmental and religious organizations, most of the positions are held by men. This hierarchy has significant consequences in preventing women from becoming leaders (Ayalew, Manian, & Sheth, 2018).

2.3.1.1. glass ceiling theory

The glass ceiling is still prevalent and is an invisible barrier that prevents suits from reaching the highest levels of power in their organization (Glass & Cook, 2016).

Although women's social and economic participation, preparation and professional experience in the sector are improving over time, even if women and men have the same vocational training, they do not have the same chance of becoming senior leaders in an organization. It is widely recognized it has influenced the concept of equality between men and women by placing men in higher leadership positions (Debela, Bouckaert, Ayenew Warota, & Terefe Gemechu, 2020). Although this concept largely reflects discrimination in the workplace, it still applies to women in the workforce. However, according to the literature, the equal participation of women has many important aspects for organizations, so the presence of women in government positions is important to include gender balance in these organizations. A gender board of directors will have cost-effective management. Women's participation in leadership teams is associated with stronger performance improvements (Mekonnen Tadesse, 2017).

2.3.2. gender stereotypes

Gender stereotypes are general views about the specific characteristics that women and men should possess or the roles they should play (Heilman, 2012).

The framework of international human rights law is to protect all human rights and fundamental freedoms from abuse. Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW) approach; State parties should "correct or change" harmful gender stereotypes and "eliminate misconceptions" (Dea, Ababa, & Ababa, 2015).

Because this perception is harmful and distracts women or men from making real choices about their careers, lives and plans in the right way (Heilman, 2012).

This proves that rape is not considered a crime. Another example is the failure of the justice system to prosecute sex offenders (Dea et al., 2015).

2.3.3. gender and empowerment

It is known that women play an important role in the change leadership of a country for the society. According to the United Nations Compact (2011), ensuring women's participation in all areas of public service is critical to good governance, transparency, accountability and improving women's lives. Globally, the presence of women in leadership positions promotes development and social justice through gender equality in leadership and decision-making. However, currently, women's participation in political, social, economic and administrative activities is insignificant. This is a challenge for many developing countries. Especially women in Africa face obstacles to their security and development, including discrimination, marginalization and violence (Melese, 2019).

In Ethiopia, the number of women represent half of the population, but men dominate in management and decision-making (Bayeh, 2016). Empowering women in the face of academic inadequacy can improve the quality of education and enable to bring about the social change required by political, economic, health, and equality development. It creates an opportunity for women to actively participate in the development process and increase women's participation in society. However, educational discrimination against women affects the equality between men and women and this process continues throughout their lives and affects their future success (Bekana, 2020).

2.3.4. lifestyle option

It is a common statement that appointing women to management positions is more expensive than hiring men. But because it's partially true, most people don't want to talk about it. A recent study by an international corporation found that women in managerial positions were 21/2 times more expensive than men (Hall, 1990). That's because half of the women who take maternity leave to return to work late. This is why male-led corporations have a better view of men (Ebuy, Alemayehu, Mitiku, & Goba, 2017). Gender-related business differences fall into two categories: birth-related and sex-related. Motherhood is biological rather than cultural. Therefore; we can significantly reduce the impact on the workplace and in many cases eliminate the negative impact by bridging the gap between men and women (Wood & Eagly, 2012). These differences cause serious business problems and professional failures for individual women. If we want to bridge the gap between male and female workers, it is necessary to correct misconceptions and the perception of society by appointing

counsellors (McDaniel, 2011)

2.3.5. partnership work and women

Partnerships are often created to address specific issues and can be short-term or long-term. The key principles of partnership are openness, trust, honesty, shared goals and values, and regular communication between partners. Central to the agenda is collaborative improvement and cost-effectiveness of local services (Speir, Rich, Crosby, Fonner Jr, & Initiative, 2009). Women are active in partnership services and excel in partnerships (Derkzen, Franklin, & Bock, 2008). Partnerships can achieve economies of scale by combining well-balanced services and practices, efficient service, and sharing resources (Milliman, Gatling, & Kim, 2018).

As a result, women partners have the unique ability to create a shared vision of what they want to achieve and how they want to achieve it by pooling not only resources, but also effort and management time, and focusing on a common goal. Service users can often influence the service (Derkzen et al., 2008). Collaboration coordinates work between organizations and provide additional motivation to share ideas, support innovation, and get things done, attracting partnerships allows more organizations to receive funding and meet government requirements (Derkzen et al., 2008)

2.3.6. women's networks

Women's networks are established to accelerate women's professional development or promote change. These types of networks are one step in bringing about change in board composition by promoting high-achieving women. This linkage leads to initiatives focused on women's professional development and access to leadership positions (Neubert & Taggar, 2004).

Research Methodology

3.1 Research Design

This study has adopted a *descriptive explanatory research design*. This is because it enables to collect of data from members of the North Shewa zone department office to determine the current status of head leaders and team leaders regarding leadership variables.

3.2 Target Population

The target population was all the heads of the seven selected zone departments and team leaders of North Shewa zone city Debre Berhan. The seven zone department offices (22.6%) were selected among 31 offices with purposive sampling, and 55 zone department heads and team leaders sample with *available sampling* were selected.

3.3. Sampling Plan

Among 31 departments of the North Shewa zone, the study was planned to conduct research in seven selected offices found in Debre Berhan governmental offices. Before distributing the survey questionnaire to the purposively selected offices, the researcher tried to check the existence of female leaders in each organization. After checking the existence of the required number of female leaders in each organization:- North Shewa zone land administrative department office, North Shewa zone agricultural departmental office, North Shewa zone cooperative expansion office, North and North shewa zone Office of Livestock Development Promotion Department, Department of Labour and Training office. Department of Environmental Protection, North Shewa zone Women and Children's Social Department office were purposively selected. In general, if some organizations have not willing the researcher has two reserve offices to replace During data collection, The study planned to collect data from *available* female and available male leaders from each zone department office (ZDO)(Shafique, Ahmad, & Kalyar, 2019).

3.4.Instrument

3.4.1. multifactor leadership questionnaire (MLQ)-6s

The first instrument used in this study with issues of leadership was Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), developed by Bass and Avolio (Braathu, Laukvik, Egeland, & Skar, 2021). The MLQ questionnaire measures leadership styles, which may be grouped under three broad categories differentiated by their respective outcome effects and the nature of the influencing process involved. **1. Transformational leadership:** under it Idealized Attributes (IA), Inspirational Motivation (IM), Intellectual Stimulation (IS), and Individualized Consideration (IC) factors. **2. Transactional leadership** consists of two factors: Management by Exception Active (MBEA). Contingent reward and the third is Laissez-faire leadership. The MLQ also measures three outcomes of leaders' leadership profile: the followers' extra effort, individual unit, and organizational effectiveness ratings and satisfaction. MLQ has 21 items and it was used in its intact form. The rating uses a 5-point scale ranging from 0 = not at all to 4 = frequently if not always. The validity of the instrument adopted from (Bagheri & Sohrabi, 2015) was examined by two experts.

3.4.2. the Bem sex role inventory (BSRI)

The Bem sex role inventory (Donnelly & Twenge, 2017) was one of the instruments used in this study to conduct an independent assessment of masculinity and femininity, in terms of the respondents' self-reported and subordinates' evaluation of possession of socially desirable, stereotypically masculine, and feminine personality characteristics. The questionnaire contains 60 items that measure masculinity, femininity androgyny (the undifferentiated, using the masculinity and femininity scales)(20 items for each). The questionnaire has 7 scales ranging from 1= never or rarely true to 7= always or almost always true). The validity and the reliability of the instrument were examined by two experts and changed to Amharic according to the suggestion of their suggestion.

3.4.3. focused group discussion

Focus group discussion was used as a qualitative approach to gain an in-depth understanding of practices, challenges, and perceived differences between male and female leaders. The discussion was focused on issues like which gender is better in administration. In which gender has an effective work environment? Which gender prepares appropriate professional competency training? What type of practices is there in your office Transformational leadership or Transactional leadership management? What were the major organizational (internal) and situation (external) factors affecting the effectiveness of female or male leaders? How do we solve these factors?

3.5. pilot study

Even though the questionnaires were standard they were pre-tested to ensure the elimination of vague questions for ease of understanding by giving a few to some of the nearest office team leaders that are not involved in the sample before the actual study. The responses obtained from these initial questionnaires guided the research in formulating appropriate questions that enabled respondents to provide relevant and precise information needed for the research. Based on this the researcher translated the questionnaires to Amharic to make them easy and understandable with the help of Google Translator and professionals.

3.6. Data Collection Procedures

As shown in the figure 1, first, from the organization selected for the study, contact with public relations. An attempt was made to explain the purpose of the research and the sampling plan to the management of each organization. Then, with the help of public relations officers in each organization, the consent of each male and female leader was sought before distributing the questionnaire. Then there was some discussion with each leader on how to fill the questionnaire and such.

The questionnaires were distributed to all leaders present. Similar procedures were followed in selecting subordinates. The distribution of the questionnaire was done by the researcher. Individuals who were willing to collect the completed questionnaire were assigned to each office. Repeated personal and telephone contacts were made to facilitate timely responses from respondents and maximize response rates. However, the task was not easy. And finally, a focus group discussion was conducted with the selected leaders and group leaders in two sessions to consolidate the results.

3.7. Data Analysis

Based on the responses of male and female leaders, statistical differences between male and female leaders, between-group differences and within-group differences were analyzed using (ANCOVA). ANCOVA adjusts the mean of each group on the dependent variable. Although the exact formula used to make these adjustments is somewhat complicated, the reasoning behind the adjustment process is easy to understand. The degree to which any group's mean score on the dependent variable is adjusted depends on how far that group is below or above the mean on the control variable. By adjusting the mean scores on the dependent variable in this fashion, ANCOVA provides the best estimates by adjusting the dependent variables using linear regression and ANOVA. ANCOVA typically "matches" groups on one or more variables that may differ between groups (Jamieson, 2004).

Cronbach's alpha, an indicator of internal consistency, was used to estimate the reliability of the 21-item MLQ and 60-item BSRI questionnaires, and the estimates were 0.921 and 0.922 (Anselmi, Colledani, & Robusto, 2019). Regardless of the validity and reliability found in this study, some respondents raised some questions about the meaning of the BSRI questionnaire. Definitions of a few parameters were frequently asked by respondents. Such as Productive, athletic, crafty and formal are some of the most requested meanings. Further explanation was given to increase the understanding of the respondents. In this way, an attempt was made to improve the validity of the questionnaire. In addition, the researcher translated the questionnaires into Amharic during the survey to improve their accuracy and reliability.

SCORING

The MLQ – 6s measure leadership on seven factors related to transformational leadership and transactional leadership. The score for each factor is determined by summing three specified items on the questionnaire and using their average. For example, to determine the score for factor 1, Idealized influence, sum the responses rate for items 1, 8, and 15 and divided 3 times the number of respondents example for factor 1, the sum of item 1 = 67

	Sum of Item 8= 56
	Sum of item15 =60
Total	183

Number of female respondent =26, then average = $183 / (26 \times 3) = 2.35$

Completing this procedure for all seven factors and based on these averages comparing them.

TOTAL

Idealized influence (items 1, 8, and 15)	Factor 1
Inspirational motivation (items 2, 9, and 16)	Factor 2
Intellectual stimulation (items 3, 10, and 17)	Factor 3
Individual consideration (items 4, 11, and 18)	Factor 4
Contingent reward (items 5, 12, and 19)	Factor 5
Management-by-exception (items 6, 13, and 20)	Factor 6
Laissez-faire leadership (items 7, 14, and 21)	Factor 7

3.7.1. Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) Form 6S

Scoring Interpretation

Factor 1 – **Idealized Influence** indicates whether you hold subordinates’ trust, maintain their faith and respect, show dedication to them, appeal to their hopes and dreams, and act as their role model.

Factor 2 – **Inspirational Motivation** measures the degree to which you provide a vision, use appropriate symbols and images to help others focus on their work, and try to make others feel their work is significant.

Factor 3 – **Intellectual Stimulation** shows the degree to which you encourage others to be creative in looking at old problems in new ways, create an environment that is tolerant of seemingly extreme positions, and nurture people to question their values and beliefs of those of the organization.

Factor 4 – **Individualized Consideration** indicates the degree to which you show interest in others’ well-being, assign projects individually and pay attention to those who seem less involved in the group.

Factor 5 – **Contingent Reward** shows the degree to which you tell others what to do to be rewarded, emphasize what you expect from them, and recognize their accomplishments.

Factor 6 – **Management-By-Exception** assesses whether you tell others the job requirements, are content with the standard performance and are a believer in “if it isn’t broke, don’t fix it.”

Factor 7 – **Laissez-Faire** measures whether you require little of others, are content to let things ride, and let others do their own thing Laissez-faire. Passive Management-by-Exception occurs when leaders only act when problems get worse. Laissez-faire is associated with the absence of leadership behaviour in the “leader”, i.e., leaders do not get involved in important matters, they are normally absent when it is necessary to make important decisions and even avoid making those decisions (Bass and Avolio 1990).

3.7.2. Bem Sex-role Inventory

The Bem Sex-Role Inventory (BSRI) is a measure of masculinity and femininity and is used to research gender roles. It assesses how people identify themselves psychologically.

While This questionnaire has 3 subscales (each with 20 items) and 20 neutral items:

1. Masculinity (how masculine is the psychological leaders’ profile)
2. Femininity (how the feminine is the psychological leaders' profile)
3. Androgyny (how the Androgyny is the psychological leaders’ profile)(neutral)

The scores are given on the 1-7 scales, thus if you have a score of 4, you are exactly in the middle.

Result and Discussion

4.1. General information about the samples

Table 3 shows the demographic information of the respondents.

4.2. Quantitative analysis

The internal consistency of the MLQ device and the degree of consistency between the measurements are measured by Cronbach alpha (α) reliability analysis. All characteristics related to the leaders' results are more than 0.6, as shown in Table 4. This shows the internal consistency or reliability except for liassez-faire = 0.610 is good. However, according to a descriptive study by Tavakol and Dennick (2011), Cronbach alpha 0.6 and above are acceptable.

In addition, the reliability of the Transformation Leadership Group $\alpha = 0.892$, the transactional leadership

Team $\alpha = 0.76$ and the overall versatile leadership tool $\alpha = 0.921$. Therefore, it allows us to measure leadership qualities.

During the focus group discussion about female leaders, the responses to the questions raised to the leaders, "which gender do you believe there is a better administration" they replied that females are good to understand their team leaders and subordinates, for that the leader who understand teammates, working closely with subordinates, as proposed in many studies. It is a cornerstone of organizational; collaboration built on trust and honesty (Price, 2007). And the creation of such a culture begins with the leaders of the organization. Therefore, as they clarified she can work closely with and encourage her team leaders and subordinates to be loyal, efficient, caring and creative. Studies have also confirmed that this creates confidence in a leader (Girdauskiene & Eyvazzade, 2015).

On the contrary, the response obtained from the questionnaire on the leadership style responded by female leaders in Table 5 shows that transactional leadership created the most favourable management conditions (38.1%). Accordingly, effective management is seen when team leaders and subordinates adopt a corrective approach to achieving goals set by leaders. In this context, deviating from goals is a frequent offence for team leaders and subordinates, which is associated with punishment or even dismissal. This rejects the hypothesis (Ha₄) that "female are leaders more effective than male leaders in transformational leadership?"

The presence of female leaders in an organization is important to motivate employees; inspire them to think in a new way. Therefore, it is important to take this step by step. This is because it provides mental stimulation, and builds employee confidence and self-confidence (33.5%). Thus, many studies have confirmed that these elements of transformational leadership enhance the creativity of employees (Jung, Chow, & Wu, 2003).

This suggests that "gender has a significant impact on the level of attention paid to managerial behaviours and styles." hypothesis H1a was rejected (Wikaningrum & Yuniawan, 2018). On the other hand, Table 6: As shown in the analysis of the results conducted by the male leaders, the highest result was still found to be the transactional leadership group, 37.5%, which shows that women are called to wear men's hats and wear to be equal to men due to the influence they have in society, while men work to maintain it. As the panellists stated during the focus group discussion; All team leaders and subordinates work to maintain this mindset and satisfaction. But whenever the leader finds out that there is a mocker or a snitch, he will be severely punished when the situation is not good enough. However, this leader will always try to find out the reason for poor performance and provide support if he deems it necessary. In the transformational leadership style, however, if team leaders and employees make mistakes, they are given lessons for their mistakes, not punishment.

Motivation leads to the characteristics of the leader and a team spirit that motivates the team and includes common goals. "So these two leadership styles are two things that don't show up in terms of employee satisfaction." Therefore, a leader must meet both characteristics. In addition, this scale states that the leader's behaviour promotes positive expectations. Regarding the dimension of intellectual stimulation, it shows behaviour that encourages followers to do creative work, which is consistent with the leader's attitude toward subordinates who he or she considers creative (2.428).

Moreover, leaders challenge assumptions, take risks, and seek ideas from employees to stimulate and encourage innovation (Hyypiä & Pekkola, 2011). In support of this, the team leader and his staff should encourage honesty, commitment and innovation through the answers given by the team members. In terms of leadership outcomes and styles, transformational leadership creates a nation-centred work environment. This can lead to extra effort.

On the other hand, transactional followers create an effective organizational environment that satisfies senior team leaders and subordinates by making followers perform above expectations and in turn being rewarded and encouraged by the leader. These facts are consistent with the real situation (Alrowwad & Abualoush, 2020). This shows that "female leaders are more effective in transformational leadership behaviours" while rejecting Ha₂. It accepts that male leaders are more effective in motivation than female leaders (Ha₃). This shows the absence of a culture that allows women to be leaders and affects their ability to lead. Women's negative attitudes toward leadership and low morale contribute to inefficiency and inefficiency in some positions (Gemedá & Lee, 2020; Shahtalebi, Yarmohammadian, & Ajami, 2011).

ANCOVA commonly "equates" groups on one or more variables which may differ across groups. Pre-existing differences in treatment groups may include any number of different variables, such as income, or education. Since the number of female respondents is 26 and the number of male respondents which are 29 is not equal in number and gender, the variables are categorical. Therefore, to control the effects of these characteristics other than leadership characteristics the ANCOVA was used. As can be seen from Tables 7 and 8, the perception of female and male leaders on the 21 variables of leadership; with a mean of (transformational = 2.333, SD = 0.2495, transaction = 2.433, SD = 0.2941, and $F(2, 21) = 0.975$ $P = 0.396$ which is greater than 0.05, there is no significant difference between women and men with leadership practice in the seven selected north shewa zone departmental office, which accepts the null hypothesis and rejects the alternative hypothesis Ha₁ = "Gender will demonstrate a significant effect on the degree of emphasis placed on manager behaviours and

styles.” As a result, they do not have a special different ability to lead. It depends on how well the man or woman knows about leadership which is in agreement with the finding of (Moreno, Diez, & Ferreira, 2021).

4.3. Measures of Masculinity and Femininity

As shown in Table 9, the average score of femininity and masculinity of the seven zonal department offices in the responses given by both together is 4.728 for masculinity and 5.069 for femininity. This shows that it is feminism that is mostly reflected by the leaders of the offices that responded. Knowing the relative masculinity and femininity of an organizational environment may help predict the leadership competence, effectiveness, and satisfaction of employees associated with male and female leaders. In this regard; although² it shows that the offices of the North Shawa Zone Department have a more feminine environment than masculinity, the difference is small. However, to facilitate the effectiveness of gender leadership it is not necessary to consider gender. Gender is biological. Gender does not make a leader less effective or more effective than another gender. All that matters is the person's deep understanding of leadership (Marián; Skrla, Scheurich, Garcia, & Nolly, 2004).

Meta-analyses show that men are better at performing organizational tasks, while women are more effective at coordinating and marrying people. This increases the effectiveness of both people together. We still live in a world where most leaders are not honestly assigned and discussed. These kinds of misperceptions and values hinder women's motivation (Kossek & Buzzanell, 2018; Prati et al., 2019).

On the other hand, for men and women, the scores for the masculine and feminine responses to their respective stereotypes respectively on the 60-item Bem Sex-Role Inventory (BSRI) in Table 10 are 5.361, SD=1.698 for male leaders and 4.937, SD=1.455 for female leaders. Hypothesis 3: Male leaders exhibit transactional leadership behaviours more frequently than feminized accepted. Thus, the findings of the study confirm the hypothesis that male leaders are more masculine than their female counterparts in terms of masculinity parameters. However, the femininity assessed by the female leader was lower than the masculinity assessed by the male leader because the female leader did not accept their Shyness 1.731, SD = 2.077, Tender 1.269 = SD = 1.569 and Feminine 2.077 SD = 2.683, which rejected alternative hypothesis 2 "Female leaders show more transformational leadership behaviour"

Moreover the statistical analysis the mean value of Table 11, is (Male = 4.728, SD = 0.311, N=20), (female = 5.069, SD = 0.11, N = 20) and (andragogy = 4.572, SD = 0.311, N =20) respectively described in Table: 12. The p-values are shown in the output of the ANCOVA table. The p-value between the femininity and masculinity role $F[(2,60) = 0.667 P = 0.517]$ is much greater than the p-value of 0.05 at the $\alpha = 0.05$ level, which indicates that there is no significant difference between masculinity and femininity. Thus, although masculinity is prominent in both sexes; Femininity is in the second place, and andragogy is in the third place. The partial Eta Squared value indicates the effect size and should be compared with Cohen's guidelines (the stats $\eta^2 = 0.01$ indicates a small effect; $\eta^2 = 0.06$ indicates a medium effect; $\eta^2 = 0.14$ indicates a large effect). It can be seen that for gender role differences the effect size is small (0.023). This value is also used to describe how much of the variance in the dependent variable is explained by the independent variable (2.3%). Ideally, this number would be very small. This illustrates that there is no significant sex role difference among all men and women leaders who have partial masculinity, femininity, and andragogy behaviours.

5. Conclusion

The main aim of the present research was to investigate current gender differences in leadership styles associated with men and women. At present, the complex relationship between gender and leadership activities has been attended by practitioners with greater analysis due to steady and significant shifts in increased women representations on every level of leadership rank. The percentage of women appointed to normal managerial positions, according to 2020 senses reached 37% (Davidson & Burke, 2016; Titus & Hoole, 2021). Supporting capable women signals to women employees to bring equity to women, and role models for junior women leaders (Davidson & Burke, 2016). According to the multifactor leadership questionnaire filled by women and men separately transactional leadership is more exercised and favourable than transformational leadership, however, their difference is very small. Thus, there is no significant difference in leadership between men and women in the north Shewa zone $P = 0.056$ which is greater than 0.05 at $\alpha=0.05$ level, however, it is transactional leadership that is exercised currently at North Shewa zone departmental office, and because the present working situation is result-oriented, and the Bem sex role inventory:- replied by both female and male femininity characters are more favourable than masculinity and is more exercised by male than femininity exercised by the female. The reason those female leaders did not believe in their shyness, and femininity characteristic, however, a woman's managing ability and thinking capacity are affected by her family responsibilities, external factors such as the society's cultural values and beliefs, politics, and ethnical thinking, internal factors, failure to motivate the worker in different situations, misunderstandings of tasks, misunderstandings of staff situations, arises from the societal assumption that female are inefficient, and long-time separation from work often during childbirth and breastfeeding. Thus, there is no significant difference between genders in their use and capability

with leadership behaviours and gender roles; the effectiveness depends on the strength of an individual and his or her ability to function as a leader, not on gender.

However, the perceived difference is women's submissive nature towards leadership reflects some levels of incompetence that influence the ability to lead and the societal perception and lack of trust in female leadership; they assumed that males are superior and more powerful and that they represent the "norm," whereas women are understood as inferior, lacking supremacy and autonomy, are thus, secondary; the social organization has been woven by males.

6. Ethical Considerations

The researcher obtained an authorization letter from Rada College and from the zone offices giving her permission to conduct research. The researcher carried the letter during data collection and presented it to appropriate authorities to be allowed to conduct research. The respondent in this study was not required to use their names or provide any form of identification.

Full consent of all respondents was sought before the questionnaires were administered. All subjects were assured of total confidentiality and the data obtained was to be used for research purposes only. The study tried to avoid creating any form of risk to the participants. There were no direct benefits to the respondents but the results are expected to be of value to the entire organization.

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Table 1: Factors that explain managerial differences between men and women

Men	Women
Transactional	Transformational
Autocratic	Participative
Business-oriented	People-oriented
Instruction giving	Self-expressive

Table 2: Summary of Sample size and Sampling Techniques

No	Name of zone department office	Male	Female	Total	Sampling
1	North Shewa zone land administrative department office	4	4	8	Available sampling
2	North Shewa zone agricultural departmental office	5	3	8	Available sampling
3	North Shewa zone cooperative expansion office	4	4	8	Available sampling
4	North and North shewa zone Office of Livestock Development Promotion Department	4	4	8	Available sampling
5	Department of Labor and Training office	4	4	8	Available sampling
6	North shewa zone Department of Environmental Protection	4	4	8	Available sampling
7	North Shewa zone Women, and Children's Social Department office	4	3	7	Available sampling
Total		29	26	55	

Table 3: The demographic information of the respondents

No	Type of leader	Sex		Total
		Male	Female	
1	Leader	7	7	14
2	Team L.	22	19	41
Total		29	26	55

Table 4: Multifactor leadership questionnaires reliability analysis

No	Multifactor leadership Value of α	Types of leadership	Characteristics of types of leadership	Questions	Cronbach's alpha
1	$\alpha = 0.911$	Transformational	Individualize influence	1,8,15	0.825
			Inspirational motivation	2,9,16	0.721
			Intellectual stimulation	6,10,17	0.603
			Individual consideration	4,11,18	0.643
2	$\alpha = 0.76$	Transactional	Contingent reward	5,12,19	0.603
			Management-by-exception	6,13,20	0.620
3		Laissez-fair	Laissez-faire leadership	7, 14,21	0.610

Table 5: Multifactor leadership replies responded by female leaders

No	Multifactor leadership Value of α	Types of leadership	Characteristics of types of leadership	Grouped average	Average
1	$\alpha = 0.921$	Transformational 33.5%	Individualize influence	2.350	2.3365
			Inspirational motivation	2.3846	
			Intellectual stimulation	2.3846	
			Individual consideration	2.269	
2		Transactional 38.1%	Contingent reward	2.872	2.660
			Management-by-exception	2.449	
3		Laissez-fair(28.4%)	Laissez-faire leadership	1.987	1.987
Total				16.6539	6.9835

Table 6: Multiple leadership questions replied to by men leaders

No	Multifactor leadership Value of α	Types of leadership	Characteristics of types of leadership	Grouped average	Average
1	$\alpha = 0.921$	Transformational 32%	Individualize influence	2.494	2.428
			Inspirational motivation	2.333	
			Intellectual stimulation	2.414	
			Individual consideration	2.471	
2		Transactional 37.5%	Contingent reward	2.586	2.868
			Management-by-exception	3.149	
3		Laissez-fair(30.5%)	Laissez-faire leadership	2.345	2.345
Total				17.792	7.641

Table 7: Dependent Variable: mean

groups	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
transformational	2.33500	.249490	12
transactional	2.43333	.294120	6
laissez-faire	2.17667	.231157	3
Total	2.34048	.260451	21

Table 8: ANCOVA (21) test of Multifactor Leadership questions Dependent Variable: means

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	.133 ^a	2	.066	.975	.396	.098
Intercept	82.685	1	82.685	1215.8659	.000	.985
group	.133	2	.066	.975	.396	.098
Error	1.224	18	.068			
Total	116.391	21				
Corrected Total	1.357	20				

Table 9: Masculinity and Femininity with the perception of both sex

The item for evaluating Masculinity according to the order of questionnaires		Average	Item for evaluating Feminine according to the order of questionnaires		Average	item for evaluating Andragogy according to the order of questionnaires		Average
1	Self-reliant	5.873	2	Yielding	5.382	3	helpful	5.273
4	Defends own belief	5.836	5	Cheerful	5.491	6	Moody	5.255
7	Independent	4.036	8	Shy	2.582	9	Conscious	5.246
10	Athletic	5.364	11	Affectionate	5.364	12	Theatrical	4.582
13	Assertive	5.564	14	Not susceptible to flattery	5.509	15	Happy	5.509
16	Strong personality	5.818	17	Loyal	5.891	18	Unpredictable	2.745
19	Forceful	3.127	20	Feminine	3.418	21	Reliable	6.000
22	Analytical	5.818	23	Sympathetic	6.491	24	Jealous	1.745
25	Leadership ability	5.036	26	Sensitive to others' needs	5.855	27	Truthful	5.036
28	Willing to take risk	5.764	29	Understanding	5.455	30	Secretive	5.873
31	Makes decision easily	5.727	32	Compassionate	5.309	33	Sincere	5.527
34	Self-sufficient	5.582	35	Eager to soothe hurt feeling	4.891	36	Conceited	1.891
37	Dominant	1.436	38	Soft-spoken	5.000	39	Likeable	5.182
40	Masculine	4.400	41	Warm	5.745	42	Solemn	5.727
43	Willing to take a stand	6.109	44	Tender	1.855	45	friendly	5.509
46	Aggressive	1.673	47	Gullible	5.582	48	Inefficient	1.655
49	Acts as a leader	5.455	50	Childlike	6.073	51	Adaptable	5.945

The item for evaluating Masculinity according to the order of questionnaires		Average	Item for evaluating Feminine according to the order of questionnaires		Average	item for evaluating Andragogy according to the order of questionnaires		Average
52	Individualistic	3.018	53	Does not use harsh language	4.600	54	Unsystematic	1.691
55	Competitive	5.927	56	Loves children	5.400	57	Tactful	5.618
58	Ambitious	3.000	59	Gentle	5.491	60	Conventional	4.909
		4.728			5.069			4.546

Table 10: Masculine and feminine with the perception of men and females respectively

The item for evaluating Masculinity according to the order of questionnaires		Average	Std	Item for evaluating Feminine according to the order of questionnaires		Average	Std
1	Self-reliant	5.862	1.026	2	Yielding	5.731	1.041
4	Defends own belief	5.862	1.432	5	Cheerful	5.423	1.629
7	Independent	3.379	1.970	8	Shy	1.731	2.077
10	Athletic	5.414	1.268	11	Affectionate	5.308	1.350
13	Assertive	5.586	1.296	14	Not susceptible to flattery	5.423	1.474
16	Strong personality	5.966	1.295	17	Loyal	5.654	1.853
19	Forceful	5.897	1.877	20	Feminine	2.077	2.683
22	Analytical	5.724	2.699	23	Sympathetic	5.269	1.710
25	Leadership ability	6.72	2.089	26	Sensitive to others' needs	5.231	1.451
28	Willing to take risk	5.724	1.688	29	Understanding	6.000	1.265
31	Makes decision easily	5.862	1.026	32	Compassionate	5.885	1.177
34	Self-sufficient	5.862	1.432	35	Eager to soothe hurt feeling	6.000	1.327
37	Dominant	4.897	1.970	38	Soft-spoken	4.000	1.354
40	Masculine	5.414	1.268	41	Warm	5.885	1.211
43	Willing to take a stand	5.586	1.296	44	Tender	1.269	1.569
46	Aggressive	4.36	1.295	47	Gullible	5.654	1.325
49	Acts as a leader	5.897	1.877	50	Childlike	5.692	1.320
52	Individualistic	4.897	2.705	53	Does not use harsh language	5.115	1.177
55	Competitive	5.310	2.089	56	Loves children	6.077	1.373
58	Ambitious	3.000	1.688	59	Gentle	5.308	0.724
Average		5.361	1.698			4.937	1.455

Table 11: The mean of Gender role inventory

Gender character	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
male	4.728	.311	4.105	5.352
female	5.069	.311	4.445	5.693
andragogy	4.572	.311	3.948	5.195

TABLE 11: ANCOVA TEST FOR SEX ROLE INVENTORY (N=60) DEPENDENT VARIABLE MEAN

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	2.586 ^a	2	1.293	.667	.517	.023
Intercept	1376.472	1	1376.472	709.512	.000	.926
gender	2.586	2	1.293	.667	.517	.023
Error	110.582	57	1.940			
Total	1489.640	60				
Corrected Total	113.168	59				

a. R Squared = .023 (Adjusted R Squared = -.011)

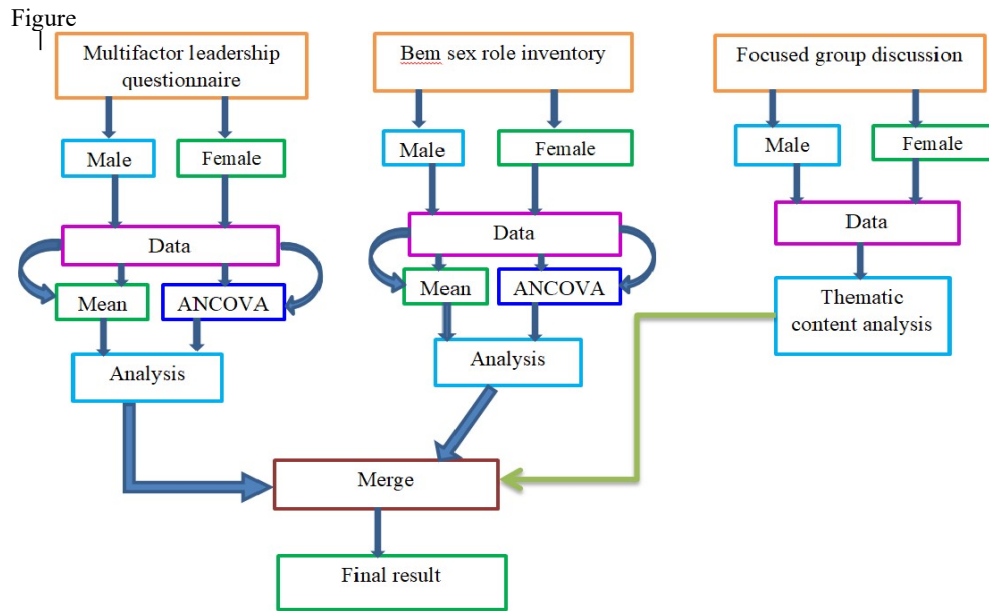


Figure 1: Conceptual framework