EMPLOYEE'S PERCEPTION TOWARDS FEMALE MANAGERS LEADERSHIP CHARACTERISTICS.

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EMPLOYEE’S PERCEPTION TOWARDS FEMALE MANAGERS LEADERSHIP CHARACTERISTICS.

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This project is submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for a Bachelor of Science (Honours) in Human Resource Development
Faculty of Cognitive Sciences and Human Development,
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The project entitled 'Employee's Perception Towards Female Managers Leadership Characteristics' was prepared by Deebha Muninathan and submitted to the Faculty of Cognitive Sciences and Human Development in partial fulfillment of the requirements for a Bachelor of Science (Honours) in Human resource Development.

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The purpose of this study is to determine the perception of administrative staff in hotel towards female manager leadership characteristics and the factors that influence it. Specifically, the objectives of the study are to determine if there is any difference among employees with varied socio-demographic characteristics, such as gender, academic qualification, years of service and position in terms of their perception towards female managers leadership characteristics. Another objective is to determine whether there is any significant relationship between female manager leadership characteristics and factors such as communication, coaching and problem solving. This study utilized the survey research methodology. The respondents were 40 administrative employees from six of four and five star hotels in Penang Island. Stratified sampling is used to determine the minimum sample size required for the sample. The research instrument used was a questionnaire. Statistical tests carried out were the one-way ANOVA, independent sample t-test, and Pearson's Bivariate Correlation. The study found that the majority (92.5%) of administrative employees in six hotels have a positive perception towards female manager leadership characteristics. The study also shows that there is a significant difference among administrative employees in terms of their perception towards female manager leadership characteristics based on their academic qualification (F=6.736, p=0.000) and position (t=2.547, p=0.015). This study also indicates that there is no significant difference between administrative employees in terms of their perception towards female manager leadership characteristics based on gender (t=1.423, p=0.163) and years of service (F=0.509, p=0.679). The Pearson Correlation Coefficient Analysis also revealed that there is a significant relationship between female manager leadership characteristics and factors such as coaching (r=0.769, p=0.01), communication (r=0.715, p=0.01) and problem solving (r=0.888, p=0.01). The findings of the study indicates that the female manager leadership characteristic is influence by coaching, communication and problem solving.
ABSTRAK

Tujuan kajian ini ialah untuk menentukan persepsi pekerja-pekerja pentadbiran di hotel terhadap ciri-ciri kepimpinan pengurus wanita dan faktor-faktor yang mempengaruhinya. Secara khusus, objektif kajian ini adalah untuk menentukan sama ada tedapat perbezaan di antara pekerja-pekerja pentadbiran yang mempunyai ciri-ciri sosio-demografi yang berbeza (seperti jantina, pencapaian akademik, tempoh berkhidmat dan jawatan) dari segi persepsi terhadap ciri-ciri kepimpinan pengurus wanita. Satu lagi objektif ialah untuk menentukan sama ada terdapat perhubungan yang signifikan dengan faktor-faktor seperti komunikasi, pembimbing dan penyelesaian masalah. Kajian ini menggunakan kaedah kajian survei. Responden kajian ini terdiri daripada 40 orang pekerja pentadbiran dari enam buah hotel bertaraf empat dan lima bintang yang berlokasi di Pulau Pinang. Kaedah persampelan rawak berlapis digunakan untuk menentukan saiz sampel minima yang diperlukan. Alat kajian yang digunakan ialah borang soal selidik. Ujian statistik yang digunakan ialah ujian ANOVA, ujian t-sehala, dan ujian korelasi Pekali Pearson. Kajian ini mendapati bahawa majoriti (92.5%) pekerja-pekerja pentadbiran dari enam buah hotel mempunyai persepsi yang positif terhadap ciri-ciri kepimpinan pengurus wanita. Kajian ini juga menunjukkan bahawa tedapat perbezaan yang signifikan antara pekerja pentadbiran terhadap ciri-ciri kepimpinan pengurus wanita berdasarkan kelayakan akademik (F=6.736, p=0.000) dan jawatan (t=2.547, p=0.015). Kajian juga mendapati bahawa tidak terdapat perbezaan yang signifikan di antara pekerja pentadbiran dari segi persepsi mereka terhadap ciri-ciri kepimpinan pengurus wanita berdasarkan jantina (t=1.423, p=0.163) dan tempoh berkhidmat (F=0.509, p=0.679). Ujian korelasi Pekali Pearson juga menunjukkan bahawa terdapat perhubungan yang signifikan di antara ciri-ciri kepimpinan pengurus wanita dan faktor-faktor seperti “coaching” (r=0.769, p<0.01), komunikasi (r=0.715, p<0.01) and penyelesaian masalah (r=0.888, p<0.01).
CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

Recent years have seen rapid increases in global activity and global competition in all industrialized countries, which has resulted in more women entering lower-level managerial positions (Adler and Israeli, 1994). Despite women's increased investment in higher education, their greater commitment to management as a career, the shortages of international managers, and equal opportunity legislation, female managers remain "only a tiny fraction of those in senior positions" (Adler and Israeli, 1994). Higher education does not seem to be the only key for higher achievements.

Over the last two decades, a considerable amount of research has focused on the career progress of women in organizations. Adler and Israeli (1994) have claimed that attitudinal, behavioral and structural barriers that hinder career advancement for many women existed. It was also admitted by Still, (1997) that it is very much persist today. Ferguson and Jackson (1994) stated that, women are now graduating in higher numbers than men from educational institutions this statement was also agreed by (Hind and Baruch, 1997) where by refers that more women are entering the paid workforce and taking up managerial roles. According to Cooper, (1997) founds that the dramatic increase of working women over the last two decades, shows that women's leadership behaviors have drawn much attention from organization. Bass (1990), claims "the tasks faced by the group, by the organization, and by its individual members affect and are affected by the leadership".

One explanation is that men and women have different beliefs, attitudes and values, and that these affect their promotion-seeking behavior. Researches have found focused in different elements and have their own point of view towards females. Feingold, (1994) found that sex differences have been reported in personality traits and for females aggressive behavior, Eagly and Karau, (1991), and for cognitive abilities Feingold, (1993). Even though gender was not seen as a major reason for better leadership but researches shows the different. Reynolds and Associates (1990) claims that, sex differences have also been reported in perceptions of organizational opportunities. Besides that Cooper (1997), stated that, intra-organizational communication, organizational support and evaluations of performance appraisal shows the differences when it comes to how both gender react and think when it comes to the matter of gender. Despite the fact that most of the recent literature suggests that female managers differ little from males in their leadership style or overall effectiveness. Powell, (1998) stated that does not necessarily mean that males and females are equally effective at all aspects of supervision. Basically whether female managers leadership characteristics differ from the male managers is still a question that need to be answered. Daley and Narf (1998) mentioned that women's employ unique leadership characteristics and methods on the job compared to their male counterparts.
1.1 Background of study

Lan Li (2001) founds that the number of female managers in the hotel industry is increasing worldwide. Based on the research done by, Lan Li, the general profile of female hotel manager are done in Singapore to identify the barriers and the challenges faced by them. The result shows that gender biases had been a great deal for their achievement. Meanwhile the research also indicates that, female managers in Singapore have strong credentials and skills to achieve advancement into higher level management. In spite that, Marshall (1995) notes that in the organizational world, women are placed differently to men and that generally research data show women as adapting to prevailing cultural norms and stereotypes by one strategy or another.

The tradition need to be changed and now female are much more tangible in facing this kind of facet. Female in this decade have the capability to manage and to lead with effective leadership style. Because of the absence of gender-related references in female discussions, the previous researchers believed that it would be possible to obtain an unbiased description of their personal leadership traits. More female’s success is prompted by their keen ability to problem solve and to think analytically, by their ability to effectively communicate, and by their tendency to value professional relationships, Andorka (1998).

The leadership style of female leaders should be analyzed so that it will indicate the fact that gender differences doesn’t contribute to the achievement. The key factor to determine teamwork is the quality of leadership. Research evidence has shown that differences prevail in leadership behavior across cultures (Bass 1990). How managers are perceived by other cultures has become increasingly important because managers work in multinational companies across borders. Gibson (1995), claims that much of the past research on leadership focused on identifying personality traits associated with effective leadership, and understanding the impact of situational factors on the leadership process. As women have become a more prominent presence as managers and executives in organizations, more attention has been devoted to the possible differences between the leadership styles that female managers execute.

1.2 Statement of Problem

The hospitality industry has experienced tremendous growth within the past decade in worldwide. This growth is expected to continue beyond the year 2000. In spite of the substantial numbers of female managers in the industry, there are still many barriers that prevent them from reaching senior positions in management. Margaret (2001) founds that there are many jobs that are seen as “men’s” or “females” jobs and this influences the initial intake of a particular gender to organization. It was identified by, Barrett (1992) that, a profile characterized by determination, ambition, positive attitude, interpersonal skill, coaching and hard work contributed to the career advancement of female managers. Brownell (1998) claims that female managers often cited barriers involvement in limited access to organizational and professional networks and to mentors. Ching (1992) stated that female managers are lack of commitment endorses them to have difficulty in managing their employee’s problem and besides that, female managers lose out due to the lack of opportunities to socialize with and to develop mentoring relationship with their employees.

Therefore this study is to indicate the true fact of the females cognitive and their leadership style in dealing with employees.

i) What is the perception of the employees towards female managers characteristics?

ii) Does employees with different background of social demographic perceive differently the leadership characteristics of female managers?
iii) Do factors such as coaching, communicating and problem solving does influence the female managers leadership characteristics?

1.3 Objectives

1.3.1 General Objectives:

The primary objective of this study is to determine the perception of employees towards female managers leadership characteristics and the factor that influence it.

1.3.2. Specific Objectives:

a). To describe the demographic factors such as gender, education background, years of service and position towards female managers leadership characteristics.

b). To determine any significant relationship between female managers leadership characteristics and factors such as coaching, communication and problem solving.

c). To determine the perception of employees towards female managers leadership characteristics such as intelligence ability, personality and task related.

1.4 Hypotheses.

The following are the formulated hypotheses based on the objectives of the study.

Ho1: There is no significant difference between the gender of employees in terms of their perception towards female managers leadership characteristics.

Ho2: There is no significant difference between employee with varied academic qualification in terms of their perception toward female managers leadership characteristics.

Ho3: There is no significant difference among employee with varied years of service in terms of their perception towards female managers leadership characteristics.

Ho 4: There is no significant difference among employees with varied position in terms of their perception towards female managers leadership characteristics.

Ho5: There is no significant relationship between coaching and female managers leadership characteristics

Ho6: There is no significant relationship between communication and female managers leadership characteristics.

Ho7: There is no significant relationship between problem solving and female managers leadership characteristics.
1.5 Conceptual Framework

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The conceptual framework shows the analyzed independent variables and the dependent variables in this study. The independent variable includes the demographic factors, which is the gender, academic achievements, years of service and position of the employees. Meanwhile the related factors are, coaching, communication and problem solving shows the relationship towards the leadership characteristics. As the dependent variables, the leadership characteristics include factors of intelligence ability, personality and task related.

1.6 Significance of study

The finding of the study will help to provide information on how female managers differ in their way of leading. This will ensure other counterparts to notice the existence of female managers. It is also to indicate that female managers have their own capability in dealing with problem, communicate and coach their employee. Organization, in this study’s context will be able to understand precisely what the female managers needs to obtain their way of leading. This study also indicates to give a view on female managers leadership characteristic to the society to agree the capability of females at any course. This will also give an impression to the society to admit the female leaders. Female middle managers will have a chance to know what are their weaknesses and what they have lack in their leading profiles. Moving toward to the new archetype of management female middle managers will have a guideline to improve their capability, credibility and adjustment in their leadership characteristics.

1.7 Definitions of Terms

1.7.1 Perception

**Conceptual:**
It’s the unique way in each persons view or interpretation often held by many people and it would be based on appearances. (Eagly, 1995)
Regarding this study, the opinions of employees are count. Their view on their female managers appearance will be studied in this research.

1.7.2 Employees

Conceptual:
Someone who is paid for working for someone. This indicates the person whom been under the supervision of those with hire position (Martin, 1995)

Operational:
Referring to this study, it indicates the staffs that are working as subordinates to the managers. In this case, all the employees under the supervision of female managers are preferred.

1.7.3 Middle Managers

Conceptual:
This category includes those whom in the position of manager and assistant manager. In which the position is referred as the level of management that the particulars are involved and have the authority to make the decision (Comer, 1995)

Operational:
This study refers to those female managers and assistant managers that are supervising the employees of the involved hotels.

1.7.4 Characteristics

Conceptual:
Something, which is characteristics, is typical of a person or thing. It is a typical or noticeable quality of a person or something (Eagly 1995)

Operational:
Refers to the criteria that listed and it shows the elements that needed to be fulfill to have the particular title. In this study it refers to the criteria of a female managers leadership. It allows the study to identify the perception of employees in evaluating their managers.

1.7.5. Leadership

Conceptual:
Refers to the set of characteristics that make good leader: strong and effective leadership. It is also referred as the position of being a leader (Brownell, 1989)

Operational:
It is a term that refers to the talent of the female managers ways of leading, order and to manage people. Here it refers to the credibility of the female managers in becoming a leader accordingly to the views of the employees that participate in this study.
1.7.6 Coaching

Conceptual:
Based on teaching a proper manner or sequence of particular task to someone who needs this extra help for understanding and to improve his or her knowledge on particular task. (Kram, 1983)

Operational:
It is a direct process done by the female managers or any other qualified person to help an employee use his existing knowledge and skill more effectively. This leads to improvement in an individual's job performance.

1.7.7 Communication

Conceptual:
Communication is described as a performance measurement system linkages and was suggests that these linkages are vital to ensure that performance measurement throughout an organization is aligned. (Lockamy, 2000).

Operational:
The concept in this study refers to the pattern of directions in which information flows between top management, managers, supervisors and other employees. It also indicates the relationship between employee and female manager to know the matter happening around. This induces the relationship of the female manager and the employee.

1.7.8 Problem Solving

Conceptual:
Refers to situation that need attention and needs to be dealt with or solved in proper manner. It is also seems to the capability of each person the way it was overcome (Michael, 1999)

Operational:
Situation whereby the female manager dealt with careful any situation that might cause other implication to the management or the staff.

1.7.9 Intelligence Ability.

Conceptual:
Indicates the ability to understand and learn and make judgments or have opinions that are based on reason. It is the features that ensure someone's capability to think and thinking about it and finding explanations for to especially in a way that is not necessary or does not consider the emotions. (Feingold, 1994)

Operational:
The criteria that indicate the females' manager's ability to think fast and settle the problem that occurs in the management and also to find out the solution fast at the right time and with the right solution. This is viewed from the eyes of the employees in this study.

1.7.10 Personality

Conceptual:
It is the type of personality is a way of particular people.

Operational:
Refers to a personal trait of their employees.

1.7.11 Task – Relationship

Conceptual:
The piece of work task. Task that should be cooperative or team work. (Helgesen, 1990).

Operational:
Activities that are completed for each person. Even the tasks are equal.

1.8 Limitations

This study is limited to the first-hand experiences of female managers. It seems that the study might not be strong or valid location for the study and the data should be cooperative or team work. Besides that the personality, intelligence, an accurate finding is interpersonal skill, and leadership. Three elements show the relationship to the managers leadership requirements.

There is a comparative analysis and satisfies the need of the study carried on female managers and comparative and to support the findings in this study.
1.7.10 Personality

*Conceptual*: It is the type of person that will show the image of a particular character. It brings up the real way of particular persons behave, feel and think. (Bass, 1994)

*Operational*: Refers to a personality of the female managers that will indicate the way they behave towards their employees.

1.7.11 Task – Related

*Conceptual*: The piece of work that has to be done and it is should relate together with the importance of the task. Task that should be similarity with the situation and knows when and how to deal with it. (Helgesen, 1990).

*Operational*: Activities that are carried out which have the similarity with the job description that was given for each person. Everything should be continuously task regarding the job so that it will be equal.

1.8 Limitations of study

This study is carried out in hospitality sector only so it does not show the overall status of female managers and it doesn’t contain the perception of every employee from other sector. Seems that the study carried out in the particular hotels in Penang, the accuracy of the finding might not be strong. It would be more effective if there were extension of the larger target location for the study to be carried out. On the other hand, the involvement of respondents should be cooperative and the sample does not encounters a large changes in the study carried out. Besides that the characteristics of leadership only refers to three factors, which is personality, intelligence ability and task related. This is because there are factors that might give an accurate finding if more factors are included such as; commitment, mentoring, determination, interpersonal skill, and more factors need to analyze to get the accurate criteria of the leadership. Three elements are chose as a basis of a leader’s character. The related factors, shows the relationship between the character’s and the relevant factor that might give an impact to the managers leading skill.

There is complication in this study whereby the involved hotels does not allow any verbal session regarding this study. Besides that the participation of the hotels, even though satisfy the need of the study but it would be efficient if well cooperation were given. The lack of study carried on female managers leadership in Malaysia, make the study to unable to do comparative and to support this study.
CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter will consist of the different definitions of leadership, related theories of leadership, female leadership and issues about female managers. This chapter also focuses on the previous studies on female leadership characteristics.

2.1 Leadership Characteristics

The problems that has been listed from previous studies gave the path to this study is to find out the capability of female managers in dealing with male employees. Cooper, (1997) and Eagly, (1995) founds that the dramatic increase of working women over the last two decades, shows that women's leadership behaviors have drawn much attention from organization. Bass (1990) claims "the tasks faced by the group, by the organization, and by its individual members affect and are affected by the leadership".

Besides that, to explain on female leadership style, Daley and Narf (1998) claims that women's employ unique leadership characteristics and methods on the job compared to their male counterparts. Women are also found to be less competitive in conflict management situations than men found by (Gayle, 1991), and they communicate with co-workers to satisfy needs for affection while men communicate to satisfy needs for control (Anderson and Martin, 1995). These qualities have enabled women to become effective mentors because they tend to support their protégées both professionally and psychologically (Burke, 1984). The arguments continue with different perception among different kind of group. Meanwhile looking at the positive sight of female leadership, findings show that, female leadership values are also considered valuable components of a strong corporate culture (Marongiu and Ekehammar, 1999). Another supportive statement that supports the existence of female leaders is by, Feingold (1994) stated that preventing emotionally decision might increase the likelihood that women will emerge as strong leaders. Another study that were carried in USA and India female managers, Ottaway and Bhatnagar (1998) examined the similarities between female and male managers and founds that, female mangers were tense, hardworking, self-blaming and highly motivated to succeed.

Some of the negative preconceptions about working women unfortunately affect how they are accepted and appraised at work was explained by Deaux, (1984) which claims that female mangers are very sensitive and their approach more to care and warm which does not suit the working environment. Besides that, Chang (1997) stated that Female managers are overly emotional, sensitive, and indecisive when they are confronted with difficult work.
2.2 Theories of Leadership Characteristics

In line with bias-centered theory, leadership is another domain in which stereotypes and perceptual biases put females at a disadvantage. The stereotypic woman is thought to be kind, nurturing, sensitive, warm, and expressive; the stereotypic man is thought to be dynamic, assertive, competitive, task-oriented, and competent. Although stereotypic female qualities are actually associated with positive aspects of considerate leadership, they may not be especially effective in the realm of applying discipline and may influence the ways males and females are evaluated "far beyond what the actual facts may dictate" (Powell, 1988).

Feingold (1994) explains that empirical studies examining the relationship between an individual's gender role orientation (masculine or feminine) and leadership have generally demonstrated evidence of a strong association between leadership and a masculine gender identity. Meanwhile Fagenson (1990) claims that stereotypical masculine characteristics also are beneficial to leader emergence. When Heilman, Block, Martell and Simon (1989) asked managers to describe successful managers, descriptions of women in general were far less congruent with descriptions of successful managers than were descriptions of men in general. Other studies have supported the notion that sex-role stereotypes currently exist and are barriers to women who desire leadership positions (Dobbins, G.H., Platz., S.J., 1986). For example, bias against female executives by males abated consistently between 1965 and 1985 but by 1985 it had not disappeared (Gayle, 1991). Gallup Poll results as late as 1995 concluded that the preference for male bosses over female bosses was still present for both sexes.

2.2.1 Person-Centered Theory

In line with person-centered theory, research has accumulated showing that girls receive strong and consistent indications of their powerlessness in two areas: influence over people and mastery over tasks. Differences in power and influence among males and females begin as early as the age of three. Jones (1983) reports that between the ages of three and five, boys become increasingly likely to use direct influence attempts such as "give me that." Girls learn that they are less effective influencers than boys and retreat to indirect, polite styles. Girls who do not retreat to the accepted styles by age seven and continue to demonstrate dominance tend to be disliked and rejected (Jones, 1983).

Through socialization, males learn to be task-oriented, confident, and independent while females learn to be supportive, submissive, and dependent. Socialization may also cause women to be less self-confident about their abilities than men. This stems in part from the type of feedback girls receive in school. Feedback given to boys in school is often directed toward nonintellectual qualities such as misconduct, while feedback for girls is more often specifically relevant to ability. As such, girls have a more difficult time attributing negative feedback to external causes and more often view criticism as an indication of their lack of ability (Eagly, A.H, 1987).

Person-centered theory (Morrison & Von Glinow, 1990) suggests that female personality traits and behavior patterns may make females less suited for leadership roles, particularly those involving dominance and assertiveness. This theory proposes that socialization differences promote nurturing rather than assertive behavior patterns, thus suggesting that males and females may behave differently. Alternatively, bias-centered theory (Morrison & Von Glinow, 1990) asserts that individuals have beliefs about what behaviors women should exhibit, and behaviors that violate those beliefs are negatively regarded. Females are expected to be warm, sensitive, passive, and supportive. Behavior contrary to that stereotype is viewed negatively.

Both person-centered theory and bias centered theory would suggest that females may suffer when it comes to delivering discipline as compared to their male counterparts. The
which stereotypes and thought to be kind, female qualities are not especially particularly those socialization differences indicated that males and females are seen as different in their abilities. Simon (1989) asked general were far less of men in general. For example, bias exists and are barriers in 1985 but by 1985 it concluded that the lack of ability (Eagly, 1987).

2.2.3 Social-Role Theory

Social-role theory (Eagly, 1987) proposes that women and men fill certain gender and social roles, and that their beliefs and behavior will be dictated by the stereotypes that are attached to these roles (Franke, 1997). These gender roles are formed in part through shared societal expectations about how individuals of each sex should behave, and the qualities they should possess (Eagly, 1987). Women are believed to manifest communal type beliefs and behaviors such as caring and nurturing, interpersonal sensitivity, and emotional expressiveness (Eagly and Wood, 1991). This may be manifested as concern with others' well being, a selfless attitude, and enjoyment at working closely with others (Eagly, 1987). Such communal behaviors exemplify interdependence, co-operation, an emphasis on relationships, and an acceptance of change (Marshall, 1984). On the other hand, men are believed to manifest agnatic type beliefs and behaviors, such as ambition, assertion, control, and independence from other people. These behaviors may be characterized by the urge to master others, and a desire for self-expansion (Bakan, 1966). Agnatic behaviors therefore exemplify independence, assertion, mastery and change-resistance (Marshall, 1984). Social-role theory suggests that the stereotypes attached to gender roles create different expectations of, and socialization experiences for, males and females, and that these then lead to differences in attitudes and behavior. Such differences may occur in relation to the career progress issues mentioned above.

2.3 Styles of Leadership

The specific effects of two styles of leadership: transactional and transformational leadership (Bass, 1985; Avolio, 1995). Versions of transformational leadership have been proposed by Bass (1985, 1996), Kram (1983), Sashkin (1988), and Tichy and Devanna (1990). Transformational leadership theory helps us understand how a leader influences followers to make self-sacrifices, commit to difficult objectives, and achieve more than was initially expected. The version of transformational leadership theory that has generated the most confirmatory, follow-up and replication research was formulated by Bass and his colleagues (Bass, 1985; 1996; Avolio, 1995). According to Bass (1985), transformational leaders motivate their followers by inspiring them, offering challenges, and encouraging individual development. Transformational leadership, differentiated from transactional leadership, stresses achievement...
of higher collective purpose, of common mission and vision. Transactional leaders stress specific benefits that their subordinates would receive by accomplishing agreed-on tasks. Transactional leadership style involves negotiations between the leaders and their subordinates, and exchange relationships between them.

2.4. Leadership and Job satisfaction.

However, it is clear that leadership style does influence job satisfaction (Rozier, 1996). Glisson and Durnick (1988), for example, found that perceived leadership in an organization was the best predictor of commitment of the workers and job satisfaction. Similarly, Andorka (1998) established that Transformative leadership was positively related to employee satisfaction and job performance. The effect of leader behavior on employee satisfaction cannot be exaggerated: an estimated 60-75% of employees report that their immediate supervisor is the worst or most stressful aspect of their job (Andorka, 1998).

2.5 Leadership and Behavior

A number of meta-analytic studies support the notion of gender differences in leadership behavior. Eagly and Johnson (1990) reviewed 162 previous studies concluding that women do indeed adopt a more democratic style than men do. They also found support for the notion of "gender congeniality", which involves encouraging women to play feminine roles rather than masculine roles. Women were rated poorer when using masculine traits such as directive or autocratic styles, and men were rated poorer when leadership was defined in less masculine terms. Eagly and Karau (1991) examined the emergence of leadership. Under laboratory and field studies, men emerged as leaders to a greater extent than women did. Men were often the leaders in short-term groups and for tasks that did not require complex social interaction. Women most often emerged as leaders in social situations, and female leadership enhanced group productivity.

A number of cross-cultural studies shed light on leadership behavior. Gibson (1995) looked at leadership style across four countries: Norway, Sweden, Australia, and the USA. Men and women evidenced different leadership styles across all boundaries. Although men and women did not differ on all of the directive or relationship behaviors measured in the study, the researchers did find that men were more likely to emphasize goal setting while women more often emphasized interaction facilitation. In a comparison of male and female managers in the USA and India, Ottaway and Bhatnagar (1988) examined the similarities between male and female managers. In both countries, measures indicated that female managers were tense, hardworking, self-blaming and highly motivated to succeed.

2.6 Leadership and Gender.

A number of studies support the notion that men and women value different leader characteristics. Brownell (1994) investigated the traits hotel managers believed most important to their career development. While women mentioned enthusiasm, determination, interpersonal skills, sense of humor and ambitiousness, men more often reported integrity and loyalty as key factors. A similar study by Brenner (1989) compared required management characteristics of male and female managers. Men believed successful managers more often had masculine qualities, outlooks and nature, while women felt that successful managers had both masculine and feminine leadership traits. Rozier and Hersch-Cochran (1996), with physical therapy managers, found men more likely to employ a transformational leadership style and more likely to reflect masculine traits. Both genders ranked themselves highest in the gender-neutral traits of sincerity, competence, and availability (coercive used much coercive styles. Rozier (1996) dominated by work associated with the task and differ in leadership concluded that work based on organizational women are now more experience as women. Rigg and Sparrow (1991) were compared in gender differences, Glisson and Hinson (1994), study were "more consensual"... When paired with working opponents in achieve... 2.7. Gender and Conflict.

Since the 1980s, researchers have sought to exhibit alternative or exhibit maladaptive variety of conflicting managerial behaviors, gender-oriented behavior, and reported that their supervisors would lead one to consider managerial behavior (Daniels, 1989). The stereotype and adaptive research, however, in literature and noted there was more task roles, goal-related information.

Men tend to disaffiliative about infighting or exhibit maladaptive conflict by seeking relationship understanding, support, and develop different m...
leaders stress need-on tasks, subordinates, of sincerity, conscientiousness, truthfulness, and reliability. Of the various power bases available (coercive, expert, reward, legitimate, referent), neither men nor women believed they used much coercive power, but men did rate this factor higher. The researchers concluded that "females used more charismatic supervisory traits such as inspiring and exciting subordinates; the men used more management by exception traits - neither encouraging nor discouraging initiative and only informing subordinates of what they needed to know for their jobs" (Rozier and Hersch-Cochran, 1996).

A number of studies also support the idea that men and women use different leadership styles. Rozier (1996) considered leadership in the nursing industry, which is typically dominated by women. Interestingly, male nurse managers appeared to take on attributes associated with their female counterparts. Results of their study suggest that men and women differ in leadership behaviors. Similarly, Rosener (1990) surveyed 465 female managers and concluded that women are more likely to use a transformational leadership style. Women were more likely to use power based on charisma, work record, and contacts as opposed to power based on organizational position, title, and punishments/rewards. Rosener (1990) concluded that women are now making it into top management based on skills developed from their shared experience as women and were not finding it necessary to adopt the male leadership styles.

Rigg and Sparrow (1994), in a small-scale study of 16 subjects, found that women emphasized the team approach more so than men and were regarded as more people-oriented while men were considered more paternalistic and authoritative. The authors concluded that stereotyped gender differences do exist and that masculine traits are still perceived as more effective. King and Hinson (1994), looking at gender differences in negotiation, concluded that females in the study were "more concerned with the relationship dimension of the interaction than were males ... When paired with female opponents, males in either the buyer or seller role bested their opponents in achieving a favorable settlement" (King and Hinson, 1994)

2.7 Gender and Management

Since the 1960s and 1970s when female began to enter the workforce en masse, researchers have sought to determine whether male and female managers have different styles or exhibit alternative patterns of communication. The results of that research have produced a variety of conflicting findings. Powell (1990) reviewed the literature on gender differences in managerial behavior and concluded there were no differences in task-oriented behavior, people-oriented behavior, and subordinates' responses to actual managers. Eagly and Johnson (1990) reported that their subordinates rated males and females as equally effective. These findings would lead one to conclude that either gender has a trivial, almost inconsequential influence on behavior (Daniels, Spiker, & Papa, 1997), or female managers over time reject the feminine stereotype and adapt to the male-dominated corporate culture (Berryman-Fink, 1997). Other research, however, identifies gender differences. Daley and Narf (1998) reviewed the leadership literature and noted several key differences between male and female managers. Men assume more task roles, give more opinions, are argumentative, and do not disclose personal information.

Men tend to take over decision-making discussions, and criticize the opinions and ideas of other people. Conversely, women assume nurturing roles, interrupt for clarification, are more dismissive about information, and more supportive of other speakers. Women also try to avoid conflict by seeking compromises and talking through problems (Daley and Narf, 1998). Some contend that these differences between male and female managers create a female advantage in today's organizations (Helgesen, 1990). Because young girls are socialized to be cooperative, understanding, supportive, interpersonally sensitive, and flexible, they are more inclined to develop different managerial styles when they grow up and assume leadership positions in.
organizations (Helgesen, 1990). Furthermore, these traditional "feminine qualities" are more in line with contemporary organizations which value sharing information and collective decision-making.

2.8 Coaching

The unique characteristics of coaching clearly establish the relationship as interpersonal (Kalbfleisch & Davies, 1993). The coach guides, counsels, and encourages the younger person, known as a protégé. Within the coaching relationship, there are stages of coming together and coming apart, and feelings of intimacy may occur (Kram, 1983). Coaching combines aspects of a work relationship as well as a personal relationship. The coach provides both career development and psychosocial support (Kram, 1983). The career development function includes sponsorship, visibility to others, protection, and offers of challenging assignments. The psychosocial function enhances a protégé's feeling of competence and sense of identity in the organization. From these two types of support, the protégé learns increased self-confidence, ways of dealing with people, self insight, ways to approach problems, and an increased understanding of the organization (Burke, 1984). Furthermore, research indicates protégés enjoy the additional benefits of having greater job satisfaction (Mobley, Jaret, Marsh & Lim, 1994; Riley & Ash, 1990; Henderson, 1985), attaining an executive position at a younger age (Henderson, 1985), and receiving greater total compensation, including salary, bonuses, and benefits (Whitely, Dougherty, & Dreher, 1991; Dreher & Ash, 1990; Henderson, 1985).

Coaching can also benefit from the relationship. They find internal satisfaction from knowing they have made a positive impact on a younger person. Coaching also receive recognition within the organization from colleagues for successfully developing younger talent (Kram & Isabella, 1985). On the downside, however, coach may feel rivalrous and threatened by a protégé’s growth and development (Kram, 1983). Lack of recognition can also be a problem. In a survey of public managers 47% of those that thought of themselves as having been a coach were not identified as such by their protégés (Henderson, 1985). Research indicates that coaching tends to occur in naturally hierarchical relationships (Burke, 1984).

2.9 Communication

The quality of the subordinate relationship is of vital importance to the employee as well as the organization. It is the primary relationship articulated by the organization (Kram, 1983), and structurally it is the most important communication link in the organization (Downs, Clampitt, & Pfeiffer, 1988). Group meetings and top executives are desirable sources of information, but employees identify the immediate managers as the most preferred source of information (Foehrenback & Goldfarb, 1990). In addition, employees indicate the primary source for actually receiving information (Foehrenback & Goldfarb, 1990). Major reviews of manager-subordinate communication have helped synthesize the research findings for this vital dimension of organizational life. Jaclin (1979) classified the literature into nine categories. He explored areas such as interaction patterns, openness in communication, upward distortion of information, the gap in understanding between supervisors and subordinates, manager’s feedback, and the communication qualities of effective versus ineffective supervisors. Updates to this research were provided by Jaclin (1985).

The most recent update by Jaclin and Krone (1994) added the component of social support. Social support is the communication between people that helps, comforts, cares for, and aids one or both of its participants. Social support reduces uncertainty, stress, and anxiety for the participants. Social support has been investigated in the context of organizations (Cohen & Wills, 1985; Jones- Johnson, 1985).

2.10 Problem solving

The ability to find a satisfying answer will demonstrate one has problem solving skills usually have been ignored (Lazarus, 1966). Good problem solving skills are important. The ability to make a decision, other problem solving skills are needed for ambiguity.

The most people are not comfortable with ambiguity. It might be that Michael claims that the best. Generating discussion in a rigidly or "out side the box" strategy. It might be that Michael claims that the best. Problem solving skills are a must. For example, algebra or chemistry courses. At school or at work, can greatly influence the ability to solve problems to one's advantage.

2.11 Related Studies

Despite the fact that little from males in the" business world" can predict, necessarily mean that more intrinsically female behaviors (e.g., femininity) can predict leadership theory practice. Although males and females have different behaviors (e.g., the manager’s feedback). Female leaders (e.g., female managers to be) female managers to be identified as unique objects in their organization. Perhaps it helps that female managers to be identified as unique objects in their organization. Perhaps it helps that female leaders are identified as unique objects in their organization. Perhaps it helps that female leaders (Eagly & Johnson, 1980; Henning & Michael, 1982). It might help that female leaders are identified as unique objects in their organization. Perhaps it helps that female leaders (Eagly & Johnson, 1980; Henning & Michael, 1982).
The ability to solve problems efficiently is one of top 10 qualities that companies want in each and every employee, Kellah (2001) claims when 'what if' questions are asked, the way you answer will demonstrate your problem solving ability. Those who have good problem solving skills usually have positive personality traits, such as patience, independence and curiosity. Good problem solver usually have self-esteem, competence and a responsible attitude towards decision making, other problem solving traits include flexibility, open mindedness and tolerance for ambiguity.

The most productive problem solver also creative. The world famous physicist understood that most problems have many possible answers. And the first answer is not always the best. Generating multiple solutions is highly desirable. To do this a person must think less rigidly or 'outside the box' says Michael (1996).

Eden's caution against the tendency for people to get stuck on only one particular strategy. It might have worked in the past, but may not work as well in another situation. Michael claims that, a person should evaluate each alternative and should not criticize our self of embarrassment by any error that we make.

Problem solving skills are used on a regular basis. Problem solving is wresting with algebra or chemistry homework. But it also taking on the day challenge of being human being. At school or at work you are confronted by challenging situations. Your problem solving skills can greatly influence your personal and professional success. Aretosky (2001).

Despite the fact that most of the recent literature suggests that female managers differ little from males in their leadership style or overall effectiveness (Powell, 1988), that does not necessarily mean that males and females are equally effective at all aspects of supervision. For example, studies have demonstrated that females display more transformational leadership behavior (e.g., individual consideration) than males, which according to transformational leadership theory promotes higher performance in followers (Bass, Avolio & Atwater, 1996). Although males and females may show only modest differences in their actual leadership behaviors (e.g., female managers tend to be more participative and male managers more autocratic (Eagly & Johnson, 1990), some stylistic differences may make it more difficult for female managers to effectively discipline. The specific problems and pressures which have been identified as unique to female managers include: burdens of coping with the role of the "token" woman; being a test case for future women; lack of role models and feelings of isolation; strains of coping with prejudice and sex stereotyping; and overt and indirect discrimination from fellow employees, employers and the organizational structure and climate (Cooper and Davidson, 1982; Henning and Jardim, 1977). Hansen and O'Leary 1996, suggesting that women may be more intrinsically motivated than men. It might follow that women's preference for effort as a casual explanation is reflecting a tendency to expand high-levels of effort even when