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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN GENDER-ROLE ORIENTATIONS AND LEADERSHIP STYLES

Master thesis

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CONTENTS

Odnos između rodnih uloga te stilova rukovođenja
The relationship between gender-role orientations and leadership styles

Sažetak

Cilj ovog istraživanja bio je ispitati odnos između rodnih uloga te stilova rukovođenja. Preciznije, problem je bio ispitati mogu li i u kojoj mjeri rodne uloge predvidjeti stilove rukovođenja te razlikuju li se četiri kategorije rodnih uloga (maskulinost, femininost, androginost i nediferenciranost) s obzirom na dva stila rukovođenja (usmjerenost na odnos te usmjerenost na zadatak). U istraživanju je sudjelovalo ukupno 470 ispitanika iz Hrvatske, od kojih 210 zaposlenih te 260 studenata preddiplomskog i diplomskog studija. U istraživanju su korišteni Upitnik za procjenu stila rukovođenja (LBDQ; Stogdill & Coons, 1957) te Bemov inventar rodne uloge (BSRI; Bem, 1974). Generalno, rezultati su pokazali kako maskulinost predviđa stil rukovođenja usmjerenog na zadatak, dok femininost predviđa stil rukovođenja usmjerenog na odnos. Nadalje, androgini i maskulini pojedinci statistički se značajno ne razlikuju u iniciranju stila rukovođenja usmjerenog na zadatak, dok maskulini pojedinci imaju veću tendenciju ka spomenutom stilu rukovođenja, za razliku od femininih pojedinaca. Što se tiče stila rukovođenja usmjerenog na odnos, nema statistički značajne razlike između femininih te adroginih pojedinaca. Isto tako, feminini pojedinci su skloniji tom stilu rukovođenja za razliku od pojedinaca koji su usvojili maskulinu rodnu ulogu. Nalazi ovog istraživanja mogu se iskoristiti u organizacijskom kontekstu prilikom selekcijskog postupka kandidata za rukovodeće pozicije te za razvoj rukovodećih sposobnosti rukovoditelja i osoba s predispozicijama za rukovoditelje.

Ključne riječi: rukovođenje, usmjerenost na odnos, usmjerenost na zadatak, maskulinost, femininost, androginost

Abstract

The present study examined the relationship between gender-role orientations and leadership styles. Precisely, the main objective was to determine whether and to what extent gender-roles can predict leadership styles as well as to examine differences between masculinity, femininity, androgyny and undifferentiated orientation considering *initiating structure* and *consideration* on an overall sample and subsamples of students and employees. 470 participants from Croatia participated in this study, of which 210 were employees and 270 were students from undergraduate and graduate programme. The Ohio State Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ; Stogdill & Coons, 1957) and The Bem Sex-Role Inventory (BSRI; Bem, 1974) were used to assess leadership style and gender-role orientations. Generally, *initiating structure* style was predicted by masculinity, while femininity predicted *consideration* leadership style. Androgynous and masculine individuals have an equal tendency toward the *initiating structure* style, while masculine individuals, unlike feminine, tend to engage more in this style. On the other hand, feminine individuals engage more in behaviours regarding *consideration* leadership style and there are no differences between feminine and androgynous individuals. The results of this study have practical implications in the organizational context, especially in a selection process for leadership positions and the development of leaders and people who have a predisposition to become leaders.

Key words: leadership, *initiating structure*, *consideration*, masculinity, femininity, androgyny

INTRODUCTION

Leadership

In recent decades, the nature of work has drastically changed. Work is more complex and more mobile, while work tasks are time pressured and depend on team efficiency and cooperation (Heerwagen, 2007). Consequently, organizations today are less hierarchical and flatter, they are more agile and they continually have to adjust to dynamic demands and, in striving to obtain a competitive advantage, they have to constantly reorganize (Heerwagen, 2007). The main goal of every organization is to be successful and competent. Organizations have to be agile, visionary and more importantly, they have to get the maximum from all of their human resources, both men and women (Appelbaum, Audet & Miller, 2002). Successful organizations, led by efficient leadership, are able to ensure employment opportunities which ultimately affect the well-being of an entire society (Jex & Britt, 2008).

The early leadership researchers and theories that originate from the 1900s took only masculine traits and men into account as possible leaders, while women and feminine traits were excluded because of their supposed unsuitability for a leadership role (Jogulu and Wood, 2006). In the 1990s new research took particularly feminine perspective into account and until today women and feminine leadership style have become common researchers' interest (Johanson, 2008). Recent studies gave a new view of women as leaders, with a different leadership style than men, but with skills and qualities that could be of benefit to the organizations and give them a chance to survive in competitive surroundings (Jogulu and Wood, 2006).

Leadership is, because of its great importance, one of the most explored and debated subjects in social sciences, especially in organizational psychology. Since leadership processes are complex and diverse, it is difficult to give one simple definition that would involve all of them. Yukl and Van Fleet (1992) gave a complex definition of a leadership as „*a process that includes influencing the task objectives and strategies and achieve the objectives, influencing the group maintenance and identification, and influencing the culture of organization*" (p.149). On the other hand, Robbins and Judge (2013) define leadership very concisely, as the ability to affect organizational members toward the accomplishment of the organizational vision and objectives.

Regardless of the definitions' length and authors, there are several mutual characteristics of a leadership that can be drawn out of every definition. It is important to emphasize that influencing other people's behaviour is the core of leadership (Jex & Britt, 2008). Furthermore, it is more of a process than an outcome and leadership requires a diversity of skills depending on the type of needed leaders' behaviour (Jex & Britt, 2008). Conceptual and analytical skills are required if leaders want to create and set task goals and strategic direction, while interpersonal and persuasive abilities are required for influencing and motivating other people's behaviour toward achieving set goals (Jex & Britt, 2008).

There are several main functions of leaders. They have to create effective work teams and clearly, without confusions, convey instructions and vision in order to motivate work members. Within the team, leaders' function is to the delegate work tasks to adequate members who have required skills and knowledge, as well as to make a detailed plan of every step to achieving the goals. Leadership is vital to optimal effectiveness and general success of any kind of organization because of the numerous and very important tasks that leaders have to delegate and accomplish along with the responsibilities they have to take (Jex & Britt, 2008).

The Ohio State University leadership research

This study's main interest is the famous taxonomy derived under the behavioural approach whose main focus is on the specific behaviours that distinguish successful from unsuccessful leaders (Robbins & Judge, 2013). This best-known taxonomy originates from the late 1940s. Ralph Stogdill, Edward Fleishman and their colleagues at the Ohio State University conducted a research whose main objective was to identify independent dimensions of the leadership behaviour (Robbins & Judge, 2013). The Ohio State studies were, at that time, one of the most comprehensive research programs in the field of industrial and organizational psychology (Kerr, Schriesheim, Murphy & Stodgill, 1974). The researchers began with more than a thousand dimensions which have been reduced to only two dimensions that were considerably mentioned in the employees' descriptions of the leadership behaviour (Robbins & Judge, 2013).

The two basic independent dimensions of the leadership behaviour are *consideration* and *initiating structure*. Halpin (1959) defines *consideration* as

2

"*behaviour indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect and warmth in the relationship between the leader and the members of his (her) staff*" (p.4). *Consideration* is manifested in behaviours such as showing a concern in subordinates' private life and families and being compassionate about their problems (Jex & Britt, 2008). Leaders who are high on *consideration* are amicable and approachable, treat all employees as equals (Robbins & Judge, 2013) and look out for their welfare as well as show gratitude and support (Bass, 1990, as cited in Judge, Piccolo & Ilies, 2004). Stodgill and Coons (1957; as cited in Davis Inderlied & Powell, 1979) define *initiating structure* as the ability to determine a well-defined pattern of organization, work procedures, and communication channels. The aim of leaders who engage in behaviours regarding *initiating structure* is to facilitate the task performance of work groups by organizing work steps, communicating expectations for maintaining definite standards of performance and keeping subordinates' focus on goals that have to be accomplished (Jex & Britt, 2008). Furthermore, *initiating structure* refers to delegating work tasks to members who have required skills and emphasizing deadlines that have to be met (Robbins & Judge, 2013).

Even though these two dimensions have been utilized by hundreds of studies, a few issues and criticisms had arisen. First of all, the Ohio State researchers did not take situational variables into account (Korman, 1966; as cited in Kerr, Schriesheim, Murphy & Stodgill, 1974). Today, it is known that behaviours in which leaders engage vary from situation to situation. Another issue relates to the theoretically assumed orthogonal dimensions of leadership behaviour. Studies have shown that *consideration* and *initiating structure* are often related and in some cases negatively correlated (Kerr, Schriesheim, Murphy & Stodgill, 1974). Leaders could simultaneously engage in behaviours regarding *consideration* as well as *initiating structure*, but leaders can as well exhibit *consideration* behaviours at the expense of *initiating structure* behaviours and inversely (Jex & Britt, 2008). Many researchers have argued about the ability of *initiating structure* and *consideration* to predict relevant organizational outcomes (Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992). Judge, Piccolo & Ilies (2004) conducted meta-analyses examining relationships between *consideration*, *initiating structure*, subordinates' satisfaction (job satisfaction, satisfaction with the leader) and leader performance or effectiveness (leader job performance, group-organization performance, and leader effectiveness). Results have shown that *consideration* had a stronger relation with outcomes than *initiating structure*,

especially with subordinates' satisfaction, leader job performance and group-organization performance, while both of the dimensions were linked to leader effectiveness (Judge, Piccolo & Ilies, 2004). These results support the criterion validity of the two leadership behaviour categories (Judge, Piccolo & Ilies, 2004).

The two dimensions of leadership style have evident gendered associations because of the stereotypes about women and men (Cann & Sigfried, 1990; Klenke, 1996; as cited in van Engen, van der Leeden & Willemsen, 2001). *Consideration* is perceived to be a stereotypical feminine style because women are sensitive, warm and expressive, while *initiating structure* is a stereotypical masculine style, since men are perceived as competent, rational and instrumental (van Engen, van der Leeden & Willemsen, 2001).

Biological sex and gender-roles

Regarding leadership styles and gender, there are several approaches which explain the relations between them. The first approach states that leadership is biologically determined and innate to males (Appelbaum, Audet & Miller, 2002). That meant that leadership was unreachable for women and that only men could have been effective leaders. However, a supstantial body of literature, regarding sex differences, does not give support to this perspective. Shimanoff and Jenkins (1991; as cited in Kolb; 1999) have come to conclusion that *"there are far more similarities than differences in the leadership behaviours of women and men, and they are equally effective" (*p.504). Davis Inderlied and Powell (1979) state that when differences between women and men are found, it is because of gender-roles, not sex.

This finding leads to the second approach which refers to gender-roles. Gender-roles are defined as "*the shared beliefs that apply to individuals on the basis of their socially identified sex"* (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; p.783). In the 1930s, Terman and Miles were the ones who introduced the concepts of *masculinity and femininity* (Smiler, 2004). Believing that males and females are completely different, they have come with the conception of masculinity and femininity as opposite ends of one dimension (Smiler, 2004). Gender-roles are supposed to be independent of biological sex, but due to socialization, they are often correlated (Korabik & Ayman, 2007). Consequently, it was considered that femininity was normal and expected for women and

masculinity was expected for men, while the inversion was not considered healthy (Ballard-Reisch & Elton, 1992).

According to the gender-role congruency model, males are supposed to behave in a manner that is congruent with the masculine gender-role, while women should act consistently with their feminine gender-role (Koenig, Eagly, Mitchell and Ristikari, 2011). Regarding leadership, the incongruity between the female gender-role and a typical leader role creates prejudice toward women (Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001). Women who adopt masculine leadership style would experience negative evaluations of their performance and leadership potential (Eagly, Makhijani & Klonsky, 1992). According to this model, masculine and feminine leadership styles can be viewed in terms of stereotypes about women and men (Eagly, Makhijani & Klonsky, 1992). Contents of stereotypes can be summarized in two dimensions: *communion* and *agency*, with communal traits being described as friendly, unselfish and concerned with other, while agentic characteristics refer to independency and assertiveness (Koenig, Eagly, Mitchell and Ristikari, 2011). Furthermore, communion is more important for female stereotypes while agency is important in both leader and male stereotypes (Koenig, Eagly, Mitchell and Ristikari, 2011). Consequently, men are perceived to be much more fitting to engage in leadership roles than women. In work environment, communal traits will produce behaviours such as supporting others, accepting others' suggestions and contributing to the interpersonal problems solutions, while agentic behaviours would involve speaking assertively, influencing other people and maintaining focus to tasks accomplishment (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001).

In the beginning of the 1970s, a new perspective of gender-roles has arisen. Masculinity and femininity were viewed as two-dimensional independent constructs, which meant that individual could simultaneously own both masculine and feminine traits (Bem, 1974). This perspective is based on two orientations, with *instrumental orientation* being associated with masculinity and *expressive orientation* being associated with femininity (Bem, 1974). Instrumental and expressive orientations are synthesized in an individuals' personality with a certain proportion of each orientations' characteristics and they represent the extent to which an individual is sex-typed (Korabik & Ayman, 1987). As per the traditional perspective, men are socialized to own more masculine traits from instrumental orientation, while women should have more feminine characteristics

associated with expressive orientation (Korabik, 1990). Bem's new perspective suggested that individuals could be categorized in one of the four gender-roles. Apart from the above mentioned masculinity and femininity, there are also *androgyny* and *undifferentiated category* (Korabik, 1990).

Androgynous individuals are characterized by both high levels of masculine (agentic/ instrumental) and feminine (communal/ expressive) traits (Zugec & Korabik, 2004). In other words, androgynous women are just as feminine as feminine women, but also as masculine as masculine men, while androgynous men are just as masculine as masculine men, but also as feminine as feminine women (Korabik, 1990). Androgynous individuals are more behaviourally flexible because they choose their behaviours from a broader repertoire, what makes them more effective than sex-typed individuals (Cook, 1985; as cited in Zugec & Korabik, 2004). Masculine or feminine individuals are inflexible in their acts because they tend to choose behaviours which are congruent with their biological sex (Bem & Lewis, 1975; Bem, Martyna & Watson, 1976; Paulhus & Martin, 1988; as cited in Hall, Workman & Marchioro, 1998).

The main premise of the differentiated additive model of androgyny is that the outcomes of masculinity (instrumentality) and femininity (expressivity) are domain-specific (Marsh, 1987; Marsh & Byrne, 1991; as cited in Zugec & Korabik, 2004). In other words, the masculine gender-role generates effects in task-oriented domains, such as *initiating structure* leadership style, while the feminine gender-role makes effects in person-oriented domains, such as *consideration* component of leadership style (Zugec & Korabik, 2004). As per research, androgynous individuals have the ability to engage in leadership roles with characteristics of both task-oriented and person-oriented style (Zugec & Korabik, 2004).

Regarding organizational settings, androgyny has been related to lower levels of job stress and to better self-reported leadership effectiveness (Korabik & Ayman, 1987), while the masculine gender-role seemed to be detrimental in situations which required cooperation, such as solving problems (Filley, 1977; Maier & Sashkin, 1971; as cited in Korabik, 1990). Furthermore, femininity, unlike masculinity, is related to greater job and co-worker satisfaction (Korabik & Ayman, 1987). Undifferentiated individuals, with low

levels of both masculine and feminine characteristics, are less adaptable than individuals with other gender-role orientations (Bem, 1974).

Leadership and gender-roles

Korabik and Ayman (2007) introduced the multi-perspective model which can be seen in *Figure 1* (Appendix A). It integrates three perspectives concerning the influence of gender-related processes on leadership: *the intrapsychic, social structural and interpersonal*. The intrapsychic perspective emphasizes gender in terms of gender-role orientations which have an impact on the leader's behaviour and style, regardless of biological sex (Korabik & Ayman, 2010). Early research confirmed this assumption. Studies have shown that masculine individuals engage more in *initiating structure* behaviours, while feminine individuals act in *consideration* dimension of leadership style (Korabik, 1982; Korabik & Ayman, 1987). Also, androgyny, due to greater flexibility, was found to be significantly related to both *consideration* and *initiating structure*. (Korabik, 1982; Korabik & Ayman, 1987). It is important to emphasize that androgynous individuals would not engage in *consideration* and *initiating structure* every time, even though they could (Cook, 1985; as cited in Korabik & Ayman, 2007). Moderating factors that influence androgynous individuals' behaviour are sex-typed tasks, certain behaviours that are usually rewarded and the environmental settings (Cook, 1985; as cited in Korabik & Ayman, 2007). Serafini and Pearson (1984) conducted a study which resulted in a similar finding. Femininity was related to *consideration* leadership style, while masculinity was related to *initiating structure*. There were no differences between feminine and androgynous individuals on the *consideration* component, just like there was no significant difference between masculine and androgynous individuals regarding *initiating structure* style. Furthermore, in numerous studies biological sex was not found to be the significant predictor of leadership style (Korabik, 1982; Korabik & Ayman, 1987; Hall, Workman, Marchioro; 1998; van Engen, van der Leeden & Willemse, 2001).

According to the social structural perspective, gender is defined as an ascribed status characteristic within the leader's sex being the most important aspect which stimulates others' perceptions and evaluations (Korabik & Ayman, 2007). Men are viewed as individuals who are more likely to act in leadership roles that are congruent

with their socio-demographic gender, while women are attributed lower status and their leadership roles are perceived as incongruent with their socio-demographic gender (Korabik & Ayman, 2010). Consequently, different outcomes will result from men leaders and women leaders. This model also includes the interpersonal perspective which refers to interactions between leaders, superiors, co-workers and subordinates (Korabik & Ayman, 2010). In other words, male and female leaders will engage in different types of interactions with their male and female superiors and subordinates which will ultimately have an impact on the outcomes of each of them (Korabik & Ayman, 2007). Meta-analyses conducted by Eagly, Makhijani & Klonsky (1992) showed that female leaders were evaluated more negatively than male leaders, especially when they exhibited masculine leadership style and when they were evaluated by men. Furthermore, they found that men would not experience such negative evaluations and reactions as women, no matter which gender-typed leadership style they used because their gender-role was congruent with leader role. On the other hand, female leaders who were described as using masculine style were perceived as more effective than those who exhibited feminine leadership style, but they were perceived less favourably by subordinates (Forsyth, Heiney and Wright, 1997; as cited in Johnson, Murphy, Zewdie and Reichard, 2008). Nieva and Gutek (1980; as cited in Eagly, Makhijani & Klonsky, 1992) argue that women who are on relatively high positions in the organizational hierarchy may encounter especially prejudiced evaluations because their status is incongruent with their socio-demographic gender.

RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The objective of this research was to examine the relation between gender-roles and leadership styles among Croatian students and professionals. In accordance with the objective, the research problem was defined as well as the corresponding hypotheses.

Problem

The problem was to determine whether and to what extent gender-roles predict leadership styles as well as to examine differences between the four categories of gender-role orientation in leadership styles: *initiating structure* and *consideration*.

Hypotheses

H1) It is expected that a higher score on the masculinity scale will be positively related to a higher score on the *initiating structure* scale. Masculinity, unlike femininity, will explain significant additional variance and contribute to predicting *initiating structure*, after sex and age have been controlled for.

H2) A higher score on the femininity scale will be positively related to a higher score on the *consideration* scale. Femininity, unlike masculinity, will explain significant additional variance and contribute to predicting *consideration*, after sex and age have been controlled for.

H3) It is assumed that there will be statistically significant differences between groups of instrumental, expressive, androgynous and undifferentiated gender-role orientations considering *initiating structure*. Androgynous and instrumental individuals will achieve significantly higher scores on *initiating structure* leadership style, unlike expressive and undifferentiated individuals. Statistically significant difference between androgynous and instrumental individuals is not expected.

H4) There will be statistically significant differences between groups of instrumental, expressive, androgynous and undifferentiated gender-role orientations concerning *consideration*. Androgynous and expressive individuals will achieve significantly higher scores on *consideration* leadership style, unlike instrumental and undifferentiated individuals. Statistically significant difference between androgynous and expressive individuals is not expected.

METHOD

Procedure

This study was a part of an international research program conducted in cooperation with "The Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology (SIOP)". The objective of this international research was to determine the relationship between individual traits and effective leadership and to see whether this relation differs across cultures. The data collected in this study will be used for a comparison with the already collected data on a sample in Canada.

The questionnaire used in the current research has the introductory part in which anonymity has been emphasized. Also, the purpose of this study and instructions for every part of the survey were explained. In order to motivate as many participants as possible, a giveaway was organized with SIOP financial support. When the data collection was finished, 60 cinema tickets were given to the randomly chosen participants.

Participants could complete the questionnaire in one of two possible ways: either paper-pen or online. In order to collect as much data as possible, psychology students from the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences helped by distributing paper-pen questionnaires to their family, friends, and acquaintances. Regarding the online version, participants received invitations via e-mail with a link to the questionnaire and a unique user code.

Participants

The data for this study were collected on a convenience sample in Croatia. The sample consisted of 470 participants of which 145 (30,9%) were male and 325 (69,1%) female with the average age of 29,69 (*SD*=11.009; range between 19 and 64). The subsample of employees consisted of 210 participants of which females accounted for 62,9% (*N*=132) and males accounted for 37,1% (*N*=78) with the average age of 38,75 (*SD*=11.009; range between 21 and 64). 2,9% of employees indicated a vocational school, 22,9% four-year high school or grammar school, 53,8% of employees indicated a university degree of sorts (bachelor or master degree), while 8,6% indicated a postgraduate doctoral and specialist degree. The subsample of students consisted of 270 participants within undergraduate (*N*=143; 55,0%) and graduate programme (*N*=117; 45,0%) from various fields of study and various Universities in Croatia. This subsample included 67 male students (25,29%) and 198 female students (74,71%). 69,2% of students have some work experience, while 30,8% have none.

Instruments

This study examined leadership styles using the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire and gender-role orientation using the Bem Sex-Role Inventory. Socio-demographic variables included sex, age, level of education, work experience, university programme and a year of study.

Leadership style

The Ohio State Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ; Stogdill & Coons, 1957) was used to assess leadership style. Its main purpose is to describe how a leader carries out his or her activities (Serafini & Pearson, 1984). This scale measures two categories of leadership styles: *consideration* and *initiating structure*. It contains 20 items, with 10 items measuring *consideration* and 10 items measuring *initiating structure*. Participants were tasked to evaluate themselves on each item using a scale in which 1 indicates „never„ and 5 indicates „always". The total score was defined as an average score on all the items considering each of leadership styles. Higher score means that a person engages more frequently in behaviours connected with *initiating structure* or *consideration*. An example of an item for *initiating structure* is „I maintain definite standards of performance", and for *consideration*: „I am friendly and approachable". Exploratory varimax factor analysis has shown that, due to saturation with both factors, 3 items had to be removed from the questionnaire. The final version used in the analysis had 17 items of which 8 represented *consideration* and 9 represented *initiating structure*. On a sample of 470 participants, *Cronbach* alpha for *initiating structure* scale is $\alpha=.823$ and $\alpha=.677$ for *consideration* scale.

Gender-role orientation

The Bem Sex-Role Inventory (BSRI; Bem, 1974) was used to assess gender-role identity as indicated by internalized socially desirable characteristics. It consists of 60 items, of which 20 adjectives are considered positive feminine characteristics and 20 adjectives are considered positive masculine characteristics. The remaining 20 adjectives are not associated with neither masculine nor feminine gender-role stereotypes and are considered neutral. The participants' task was to rate themselves on each adjective on a scale from 1 „never or almost never true" to 7 „always or almost always true". The total score was defined as an average score on adjectives considering each of the gender-role stereotypes wherein higher score indicates that an individual has a greater tendency towards stereotypically masculine or feminine characteristics. A typical adjective for masculine characteristics is „willing to take risks", while a typical adjective for feminine characteristics is „sensitive to the needs of other people". Based on the median of each scale, individuals can be categorized in one of the four groups of gender-role orientation: feminine, masculine, androgynous and undifferentiated. The individuals who were above

the median on both scales are considered androgynous, while those who were below the median on both scales are categorized as undifferentiated. The individuals who were above the median on masculinity scale and below the median on femininity scale are considered to be within the category of masculine gender-role. Feminine individuals are those who were above the median on femininity scale and below the median on masculinity scale. On a sample of 470 participants, *Cronbach* alpha for masculinity scale is $\alpha = .88$ and $\alpha = .84$ for femininity scale.

RESULTS

Prior to the implementation of appropriate statistical analysis, the test for normality of distributions for all involved variables was conducted. As it can be seen below in *Table 1*, Kolmogorov-Smirnov test demonstrated that all the distributions significantly differ from a normal one, except the masculinity scale. However, these results should be taken with caution because of the tests' sensitivity. Parametric tests were decided to be used because the distributions do not appear to be visually too distorted, which can be seen in Appendix B (Figures 2-5). Besides the results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, *Table 1* also contains basic descriptive for variables observed in this study.

Table 1

Basic descriptive for variables of this study and results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (N=470)

Variables	M	SD	Min	Max	K-S
Initiating structure	3.63	.557	1.22	5.00	.064**
Consideration	4.04	.413	2.38	5.00	.075**
Masculinity	4.81	.757	2.40	6.70	.046
Femininity	5.06	.641	2.90	6.70	.072**

**$p<.01$

Pearson bivariate correlations for relevant variables were computed. *Table 2* contains correlation tested on the overall sample. It can be seen that sex was negatively correlated with masculinity ($r=-.116; p<.05$), while with *consideration* ($r=.169; p<.01$) and femininity ($r=.180; p<.01$) it had a significant and positive correlation. Also, *initiating structure* was significantly and positively correlated with *consideration* ($r=.330; p<.01$), masculinity (r=.545; p<.01) and age ($r=.178; p<.05$). *Consideration* had a significant positive correlation with masculinity ($r=.143; p<.01$) and femininity ($r=.401; p<.01$).

Table 2
Pearson bivariate correlation between the relevant variables on overall sample (N=470)

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6
1.Sex	-					
2.Age	-.109*	-				
3.*Initiating structure*	-.005	.178*	-			
4.*Consideration*	.169**	-.013	.330**	-		
5.Masculinity	-.116*	.46	.545**	.143**	-	
6.Femininity	.180**	.008	.034	.401**	-.045	-

**p<.01; *p<.05; sex (male=1, female=2)

   Pearson bivariate correlations between all the observed variables on the subsample of employees were computed and presented in *Table 3*. *Consideration* was positively correlated with *initiating structure* (*r=.333; p<.01*), masculinity (*r=.265; p<.01*) and with femininity (*r=.296; p<.01*). *Initiating structure* had a positive and significant correlation with masculinity (*r=.587; p<.01*).

Table 3
Pearson bivariate correlation between the relevant variables on subsample of employees (N=210)

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6
1.Sex	-					
2.Age	-.022	-				
3.*Initiating structure*	-.052	.082	-			
4.*Consideration*	.124	-.071	.333*	-		
5.Masculinity	-.065	-.095	.587**	.265**	-	
6. Femininity	.134	-.072	-.025	.296**	.133	-

**p<.01; *p<.05; sex (male=1, female=2)

   Table 4 presents bivariate correlations on the student subsample. The results are very similar to the ones obtained on the overall sample. Sex had a significant and positive correlation with femininity (*r=.234; p<.01*) and *consideration* (*r=.216; p<*.01), while it was negatively correlated with masculinity (*r=-.138; p<.05*). Furthermore, *initiating structure* had a positive correlation with *consideration* (*r=.331; p<.01*) and masculinity (*r=.502; p<.01*), while *consideration* was positively correlated with femininity (*r=.474; p<.01*).

Table 4
Pearson bivariate correlation between the relevant variables on subsample of students (N=260)

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6
1.Sex	-					
2.Age	-.081	-				
3.*Initiating structure*	.084	.033	-			
4.*Consideration*	.216**	-.023	.331**	-		
5.Masculinity	-.138*	.085	.502**	.054	-	
6. Femininity	.234**	-.004	.064	.474**	-.180	-

**p<.01; *p<.05; sex (male=1, female=2)

In order to test whether and to what extent gender-role orientations predict leadership styles, two separated two-step hierarchical regression analyses were conducted. In each regression two socio-demographic variables were entered in the first step. Age and sex were used as controlled predictor variables. In the first analysis, masculinity was entered as a predictor variable in the second step and *initiating structure* was used as a criterion variable. In the second regression analysis, femininity was entered as a predictor variable in the second step with *consideration* being used as a criterion variable. Each of these two hierarchical regression analyses was conducted on the overall sample, on the subsample of employees and on the subsample of students, meaning that six regression analyses were tested in total.

The results of the first analysis on the overall sample with *initiating structure* as a criterion variable are presented in *Table 5*. Sex and age, entered together in the first step of the analysis, accounted for 2,8% (*p<.01*) of the total variance of *initiating structure* with age as a significant predictor (*β=.18; p<0.01*). The second step significantly added to the prediction of individual differences in *initiating structure* leadership style (29,4%). In total 32,2% of the variance was explained (*p<.01*). Age (β=.*162; p>.01),* sex (β=.*076; p<.01)* and masculinity (β=.*546; p<.01)* were significant predictors.

Table 5
Results of hierarchical regression analysis with ***initiating structure*** as a criterion variable
(N=470)

Predictor variables	Step 1 (β)	Step 2 (β)
Sex	.015	.076**
Age	.18**	.162**
Masculinity		.546**
Adjusted R²	0.028**	0.322**
ΔR²	0.032**	0.294**

**p<.01; *p*<.05; sex (male=1, female=2)

Results of the regression analysis on the subsample of employees and students can be found in *Table 6*. It can be seen that neither sex nor age made a significant contribution in prediction of *initiating structure* in the first step of both analyses. Regarding the employees, the second step explained 35,4% (*p<.01*) of the total variance with age (*β=.139; p<.05*) as well as masculinity (*β=.599; p<.01*) being significant predictors. On the other side, the second step of analysis conducted on the subsample of students has shown that sex (*β=.157; p<.01*) and masculinity (*β=.523; p<.01*) were significant predictors. It has explained 26,7% (*p<.01*) of the total variance of *initiating structure*.

Table 6
Results of hierarchical regression analysis with ***initiating structure*** as a criterion variable

Predictor variables	Subsample of employee (N=210)		Subsample of students (N=260)	
	Step 1 (β)	Step 2 (β)	Step 1 (β)	Step 2 (β)
Sex	-.050	-.01	.087	.157**
Age	.081	.139*	.04	.001
Masculinity		.599**		.523**
Adjusted R²	0	0.354**	0.001	0.267**
ΔR²	0.009	0.354**	0.009	0.267**

**p<.01; *p*<.05; sex (male=1, female=2)

In order to fully test the first hypothesis, the same hierarchical regression analyses on the overall sample and subsamples of employees and students were conducted. Sex and age were entered as predictors in the first step and *initiating structure* was used as the criterion variable. The only difference was that femininity was entered in the second step, instead of masculinity. Results of these analyses can be found in Appendix C. The results of analysis on the overall sample are demonstrated in *Table 7*. It can be seen that only age (*β=.179; p<.01)* was a significant predictor in the second step, while femininity was not.

Only 2,7% of total variance (*p>.05*) was explained. *Table 8* presents results of regression analyses on the subsamples of employees and students. None of the predictors in both steps and both analyses made significant contribution in prediction of *initiating structure*. The results of all conducted hierarchical regression analyses lead to the conclusion that the first hypothesis is confirmed.

Results of the hierarchical regression analysis (*N*=470) with *consideration* as a criterion variable can be found in *Table 9*. The first step explained 2,4% (*p<.01*) of the total variance with the sex *(β=.169; p<.01)* being a significant predictor. The second step significantly added to the prediction of individual differences in *consideration* leadership style (14,2%). Femininity (*β=.383; p<.01*) and sex (*β=.099; p<.05*) were significant predictors and together with age they accounted for 16,5% of the total variance.

Table 9
Results of hierarchical regression analysis with ***consideration*** as a criterion variable (N=470)

Predictor variables	Step 1 (*β*)	Step 2 (*β*)
Sex	.169**	.099*
Age	.005	-.006
Femininity		.383**
Adjusted R²	0.024**	0.165**
ΔR²	0.029**	0.142**

**p<.01; * p<.05; sex (male=1, female=2)

The results of the regression analysis on the subsample of employees and the subsample of students are demonstrated in *Table 10*. Regarding the employees, the first step explained 1,1% of total variance (*p>.05*). When femininity was entered in the regression analysis, 8,4% (*p<.01*) of the total variance was explained with only femininity (*β=.282; p<.01)* being a significant predictor. When the regression analysis was made on the subsample of students, 3,9% (*p<.01*) of the total variance was explained with sex (β=-.215; p<.01) being a significant predictor. The second step significantly added to the prediction of individual differences in *consideration* leadership style (19,0%). Sex was no longer a significant predictor. 22,8% (*p<.01*) of the total variance was explained and femininity (*β=.448; p<.01)* was a significant predictor.

Table 10
Results of hierarchical regression analysis with ***consideration*** as a criterion variable

Predictor variables	Subsample of employee (N=210)		Subsample of students (N=260)	
	Step 1 (β)	Step 2 (β)	Step 1 (β)	Step 2 (β)
Sex	-.122	-.085	-.215**	-.11
Age	-.068	-.049	-.005	-.012
Femininity		.282**		.448**
Adjusted R²	0.011	0.084**	0.039**	0.228**
ΔR²	0.020	0.077**	0.047**	0.190**

**$p<.01$; * $p<.05$; sex (male=1, female=2)

The same hierarchical regression analyses were conducted on the overall sample, the subsample of employees and the subsample of students. Sex and age were used as the controlled predictors and *consideration* was used as a criterion variable. The only difference was that, instead of femininity, masculinity was entered as a predictor in the second step. Results of these analyses are presented in Appendix D. It can be seen in *Table 11* that sex was a significant predictor in both steps of the analysis. 4,9% (*p<.01*) of the total variance was explained and masculinity ($\beta = .165; p<.01$) made a significant contribution in predicting *consideration*. Results of the analysis on the subsamples of students and employees can be found in *Table 12*. Regarding the students, none of the predictors in both steps and both analyses made significant contributions in the prediction of *consideration*. Further, masculinity ($\beta=.279; p<.01$) was a significant predictor in the second step of the analysis conducted on the subsample of employees. Masculinity, together with sex and age accounted for 7,9% (*p<.01*) of the total variance of *consideration*. These results indicate that *consideration* style can be predicted by femininity as well as by masculinity. However, femininity explained a greater amount of the total variance of *consideration* in comparison with masculinity. Considering given results, it can be concluded that the second hypothesis has been partially confirmed.

In order to examine differences between the four categories of gender-role orientation considering *initiating structure* and *consideration*, two separated one-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) were applied. The first step was to divide all the participants into one of the four categories of gender-role orientation: feminine, masculine, androgynous and undifferentiated using the median of masculinity (*C=4.875*) and femininity (*C=5.15*) scale. 24,5% of all participants were categorized as androgynous

and 25,5% of all participants were put in the masculine category. 26,2% were divided in the feminine category and 23,8% of all participants were classified as undifferentiated.

Table 13
Basic descriptive of *initiating structure* scores by gender-role categorization (N=470)

Groups	N	M	SD
Undifferentiated	112	3.35	0.600
Feminine	123	3.41	0.480
Masculine	120	3.91	0.447
Androgynous	115	3.63	0.461

The first ANOVA was trying to determine whether the four groups of gender-roles significantly differ concerning *initiating structure*. Basic descriptive are shown in *Table 13*. The analysis showed that *initiating structure* was significantly different between the groups of interest (*F=39,32; p<.01*).

In order to provide specific information about the groups which significantly differ from each other, further analysis was conducted using *Scheffe*'s post hoc test. In accordance with the hypothesis, masculine individuals did not have significantly different scores on *initiating structure* from androgynous individuals (*t=0.07; p>.05*). Significant differences were found between masculine and feminine individuals (*t=-0.5; p<.01*), as well as between masculine and undifferentiated individuals (*t=0.56; p<.01*). Furthermore, androgynous individuals were significantly different from feminine (*t=0.43; p<.01*) and undifferentiated individuals (*t=0.49; p<.01*). Initiating *structure* mean scores by gender-role classification can be seen in *Figure 6*. It can be concluded that results are in accordance with the third hypothesis.
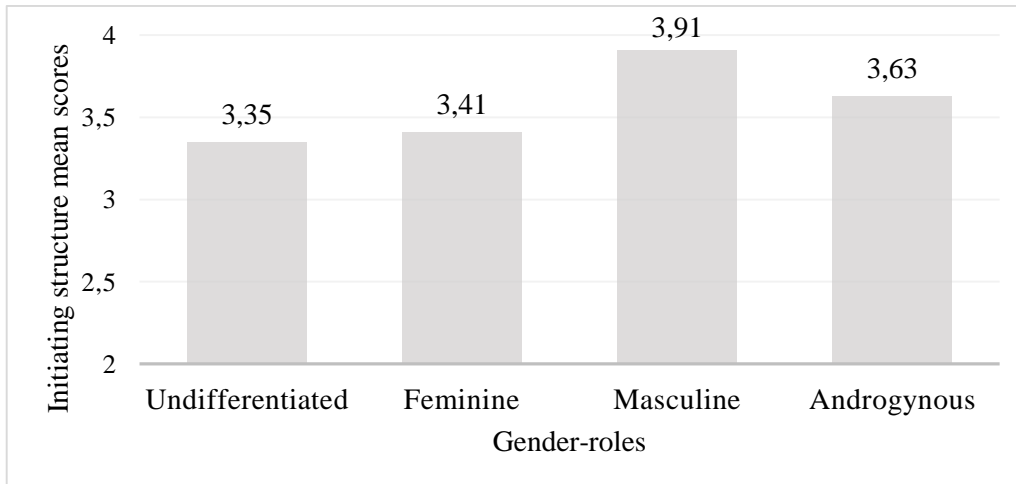
Figure 6. Initiating structure mean scores by gender-role classification

The second ANOVA referred to the differences between feminine, masculine, androgynous and undifferentiated groups concerning *consideration*. Means and standard deviations of *consideration* scores by gender-role categorization are presented in *Table 14*.

Table 14
Basic descriptive of *consideration* scores by gender-role categorization (N=470)

Groups	N	M	SD
Undifferentiated	112	3.84	.383
Feminine	123	4.14	.369
Masculine	120	4.01	.411
Androgynous	115	4.16	.413

There were significant differences between the four groups of interest concerning *consideration* (*F=16.17; p<.01*). *Scheffe's* post hoc test showed interesting results. No significant differences were found between androgynous and feminine individuals (*t=0.02; p>.05*). Androgynous individuals were significantly different from masculine (*t=0.15; p<.05*) and undifferentiated individuals (*t=0.32; p<.01*). Contrary to expectations, no significant differences were found between feminine and masculine individuals (*t=-0.13; p>.05*).

Considering that *Scheffe's* test is very strict, further analysis was conducted using contrast procedure between masculine and feminine group. The contrast procedure revealed that there was a significant difference between masculine and feminine group (*t=2.64; p<.01*). *Consideration* mean scores by gender-role classification can be seen in

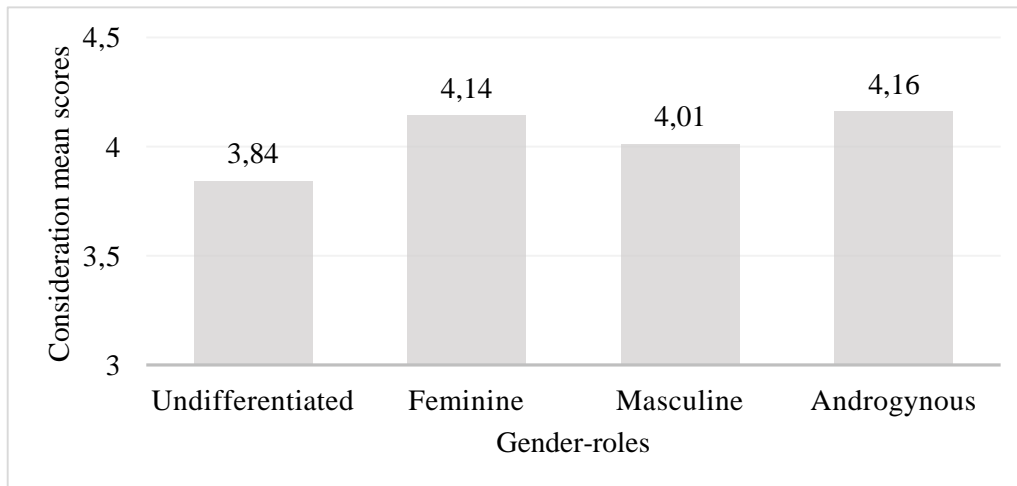*Figure 7.* According to the results, it can be concluded that the fourth hypothesis has been confirmed.

Figure 7. Consideration mean scores by gender-role classification

DISCUSSION

This research examined the relationship between gender-roles and leadership style. Precisely, this study tried to determine whether and to what extent gender-roles predict leadership styles as well as to examine differences between the four categories of gender-role orientation considering *initiating structure* and *consideration* on the overall sample and subsamples of students and employees.

Regarding the overall sample, men possess more masculine traits, while women are more characterized with feminine traits and they tend to engage in behaviours of *consideration* leadership style. One interesting finding is that people who are characterized by masculine traits engage in both *consideration* and *initiating structure* leadership style. Furthermore, it seems that older people engage more in behaviours regarding *initiating structure* style, which was also argued by Howell & Day (2000; as cited in Koenig, Eagly, Mitchell and Ristikari, 2001). They assume that older people have more traditional attitudes toward gender and therefore they might promote a more masculine view of leadership, such as *initiating structure*. Similar to the overall sample,

employees who are characterized by instrumental traits engage in behaviours regarding both *initiating structure* and *consideration* style, while employees who possess more expressive characteristics choose to act in behaviours connected to *consideration* style. Biological sex had no significant association with any of gender-roles nor leadership styles on the employees and students. A lot of research, which was conducted on employees and real leaders in field studies, concluded that biological sex does not have effect regarding leadership style and no differences were found between the sexes (Cuarado, Navas, Molero, Ferrer & Morales, 2012). In those studies, a broader range of individual differences is manifested (Davis Inderlied & Powell, 1979).

Regarding students, women are prone to behave in a *consideration* style manner and possess more feminine traits, while men own masculine gender-role orientation. Furthermore, masculine students engage in behaviours regarding *initiating structure*, while feminine students have a tendency toward *consideration* leadership style. Johanson (2008) obtained a similar finding in his research on undergraduate students of psychology and concluded that students linked masculinity and *initiating structure*, as well as femininity and *consideration* leadership style. It seems that the perception of femininity and masculinity corresponds tightly with *consideration* and *initiating structure* (Johanson, 2008). These results are stereotypical and there are a few explanations. Murphy Jr., Eckstat and Parker (1995) argue that socialization differences between the sexes produce these stereotypical associations. The family and culture in which people are born and raised, have an effect through their whole life and form schemes of their values, attitudes, norms and behaviours (Murphy Jr., Eckstat & Parker; 1995). In the adolescent and early adulthood, young people are under influence of, mostly, their family, friends, professors and groups and they are taught a generalized, stereotyped view of the behaviour in general and leader behaviours (Davis Inderlied & Powell; 1979). Men are taught to assume individualistic and task oriented behaviours, while women are directed toward the adaptation of collectivistic values, caring and relationship oriented behaviours (Weber, 1990; as cited in Murphy Jr., Eckstat & Parker, 1995).

On all of the three samples, there was a positive association between both leadership styles. In other words, people who are high on *consideration* are also high on *initiating structure* style. This is consistent with previous studies in which positive correlation between them was found (Serafini, Pearson, 1984; Kerr, Schriesheim, Murphy

& Stodgill, 1974; Hutchison, Valentino & Kirkner, 1998). This is different from theoretically assumed orthogonal dimensions of leadership behaviour. It means that people can engage simultaneously in behaviours considering both *initiating structure* and *consideration*. There are numerous disputes about the combination of high *consideration*-high *initiating structure* and its effectiveness. Some authors claime it is most efficient and related to maximal satisfaction and performance (Halpin, 1957; Cunningham, 1964; Fleishman & Simmons, 1970; Yukl, 1971; as cited in Kerr, Schriesheim, Murphy & Stodgill, 1974). On the other hand, some research has shown that this combination has some dysfunctional consequences, because *consideration* is often accompanied with low proficiency ratings by higher leadership (Harris, 1952; Graen, Danserau & Minami, 1972; as cited in Kerr, Schriesheim, Murphy & Stodgill, 1974), while *initiating structure* often brings more grievances and turnovers (Fleishman and Harris; 1972; as cited in Kerr, Schriesheim, Murphy & Stodgill, 1974).

Concerning the prediction of leadership styles, received results are in accordance with previous findings (Serafini and Pearson, 1984; Korabik 1982; Korabik & Ayman, 1987). Regarding all of the three samples, *initiating structure* leadership style can be predicted based on the masculine gender-role and instrumental orientation, while *consideration* leadership style can be predicted by femininity. This is consistent with the multiperspective model, particularly with the intrapsychic perspective, introduced by Korabik and Ayman (2007). Indeed, gender-roles, masculinity and femininity, have an impact on leadership styles and behaviours. People who are unselfish, concerned with others and sensitive will engage in behaviours such as taking care for their subordinates, being approachable and developing relationship with their co-workers and subordinates which are filled with warmth and mutual trust. On the other side, rational, competent and assertive individuals will put emphasis on tasks and work procedure and will expect successful accomplishment of goals.

There are some interesting findings in conducted hierarchical regression analyses. As it was already noted, on the overall sample and on the subsample of students, women and individuals with feminine gender-role engage more in behaviours regarding *consideration*. It can be seen that on the overall sample, there is a partial mediating effect of femininity meaning that it can account for some of the relationship between biological sex and *consideration* style. There is a significant relation between feminine gender-role

as a mediator and *consideration*, but there also remains positive, but weaker, relationship between women and *consideration* style. It can be concluded that some other variables, besides biological sex and femininity, may have effect on the studied relationship. Furthermore, it seems that there is a complete mediating effect of femininity on the relationship between biological sex and *consideration* style regarding students. In other words, feminine gender-role is a mechanism which underlies and explains the observed relationship between sex and *consideration* leadership style. This means that women, because of their feminine gender-role orientation engage more in *consideration* leadership style. It can be concluded that gender-roles, unlike biological sex, have a significant contribution in predicting *consideration* leadership style. Davis Inderlied and Powell (1979) have argued that the occurrence of presented results, in most cases, is not because of sex but rather individuals with different gender-role orientations which can be correlated with biological sex.

One-way analysis of variance gave a similar finding as regression analysis, with androgyny and undifferentiated gender-role orientations taken into account. According to the assumed hypotheses and previous findings, feminine and androgynous individuals have an equal tendency toward behaviours regarding *consideration* style. This was expected because both groups have high scores on the femininity scale. Feminine people, regardless of their score on the masculinity scale, engage more in *consideration* behaviours, while masculine individuals have a greater tendency toward *initiating structure* behaviours, no matter what their result on the femininity scale is. Also, no differences occur between masculine and androgynous groups concerning *initiating structure* style, because of their high scores on the masculinity scale. Serafini and Pearson (1984) conducted a research about the influence of gender-role socialization on leadership style, and they obtained the same results about differences between gender-roles regarding *consideration* and *initiating structure*. These results are another argument toward the assumptions that gender-role orientations are associated with leadership styles, as Korabik & Ayman (2010) proposed. Androgynous individuals are able to engage in behaviours regarding both task and relationship styles, which confirms their behavioural flexibility. People who own both communal and agentic attributes are the ones who have the ability to meet the demands of the dynamic nature of society and organizational changes (Ballard-Reisch and Elton; 1992). There are also some assumptions regarding

gender-role orientations and effectiveness. Bem (1974) claims that, because of their adaptability, flexibility and broader range of behaviours, androgyny is associated with better effectiveness, unlike masculinity and femininity. The results from this study give clear support to the assumption that socialization and gender-role orientations that people develop and adopt play a more significant role in leadership style development than biological sex.

Study limitations, suggestions for future research and practical implications

There are a few limitations of the presented research that limit the validity and the generalization of the results. First of all, more useful information could be gathered on the sample of real leaders in real situations. Second, the overall ratio of women (69,1%) and men (30,9%) in this study was unfavourable. In order to examine differences between men and women, the ratio should be much more even. Additionally, with an even ratio, the interaction between biological sex and gender-role using a two-way analysis of variance could be conducted. In that way, additional information regarding sex and gender-roles could be gathered.

The leadership style and gender-role orientation were measured by the participants' self-reports. Even though it is the easiest way to collect data, participants are not always honest when answering and they may give answers that are socially desirable. Also, there is a possibility of discrepancy between the perception of participants' behaviour and their observed behaviours (Serafini & Pearson, 1984). Therefore, besides self-reports, it would be more beneficial if the data were collected also by other people who were familiar with the participants' behaviours. For example, co-workers could assess participants from the subsample of employees, while colleagues from the university could give an assessment of participants from the subsample of students. Furthermore, another problem that could affect the results is a low alpha reliability of *consideration* scale ($α =.677$). Low reliability affects validity and therefore, it cannot be entirely certain that this particular scale really measures *consideration* leadership style. Also, as it was said earlier, positive relation was found between the theoretically assumed orthogonal constructs of *consideration* and *initiating structure*, which could have had effect on the results. Because of the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire's limitations, further research should utilize better instruments that measure leadership style.

As it was mentioned before, there have been discussions about the effectiveness of gender-role orientations, both leadership styles and their combinations. Hence, future research should include leadership effectiveness as the criterion variable. Furthermore, future research could involve some other variables that could affect the examined relation between gender-roles and leadership style. For example, type of organization (Van Engen & Willemsen, 1990), type of work task (Hall, Workman & Marchioro, 1998), the corporate environment (Applebaum, Audet & Miller, 2002) and self-confidence (Kolb, 1999) should be taken into account.

There are numerous other variables that have implications for leadership. Lately, the most used construct in relation with leadership style is emotional intelligence. It is defined as the ability to perceive and express own and others' emotions and to understand the emotions' signals and to reason with emotions (Mayer, 2001). The research have shown that it is a predictor of work success, transformational leadership and ability to foster workgroup cohesiveness (Abraham, 2005). Also, future research should involve other operationalizations of behavioural flexibility, besides androgyny. First, there is flexibility as self-monitoring which refers to the people's ability to accurately adapt to the social situation which may differ from internal social roles, dispositions or attitudes (Snyder, 1974; as cited in Hall, Workman & Marchioro, 1998). Also, there is flexibility as interpersonal behavioural capabilities which refer to ease with which people engage in a particular behaviour depending on situational requirements (Hall, Workman & Marchioro, 1998). It would be interesting to examine how each of these three operationalizations contribute to the prediction of the leadership styles.

There are several contributions that are worth mentioning. First of all, findings from this study could be used in a selection process for leadership positions. Recruiters could use, besides personality and intelligence tests, tests that measure gender-role orientation and leadership style. Additionally, leadership skills can be taught and trained (Robbins & Judge, 2013). Therefore, organizations should invest in the development of their leaders and people who have a predisposition of becoming leaders. They can learn situational-analysis skills, they can be taught how to evaluate situations and how to assess which behaviours are most appropriate and needed in particular situations (Robbins & Judge, 2013).

Also, androgyny described as behavioural flexibility and as orientation of both masculine and feminine characteristics, is found to be advantageous in a variety of situations. Flexible behaviour repertoire should facilitate women's success as leaders. Since androgynous individuals can adapt their behaviours depending on the given situations, there should be less emphasis on masculine traits and more emphasis on feminine traits because the presence of both is beneficial for successful adaptation of leadership behaviours.

CONCLUSION

This research examined the relationship between gender-roles and leadership styles. The studied objectives were to determine whether and to what extent gender-roles predict leadership styles as well as to examine differences between the four categories of gender-role orientation considering *initiating structure* and *consideration* on the overall sample and subsamples of students and employees. *Initiating structure* style can be predicted by instrumentality, while expressivity contributes to predicting the *consideration* component of leadership style. Furthermore, androgynous and masculine individuals have an equal tendency toward the *initiating structure* leadership style, while masculine individuals, unlike feminine, tend to engage more in this style. On the other hand, feminine individuals engage more in behaviours regarding *consideration* style and there are no differences between feminine and androgynous individuals.

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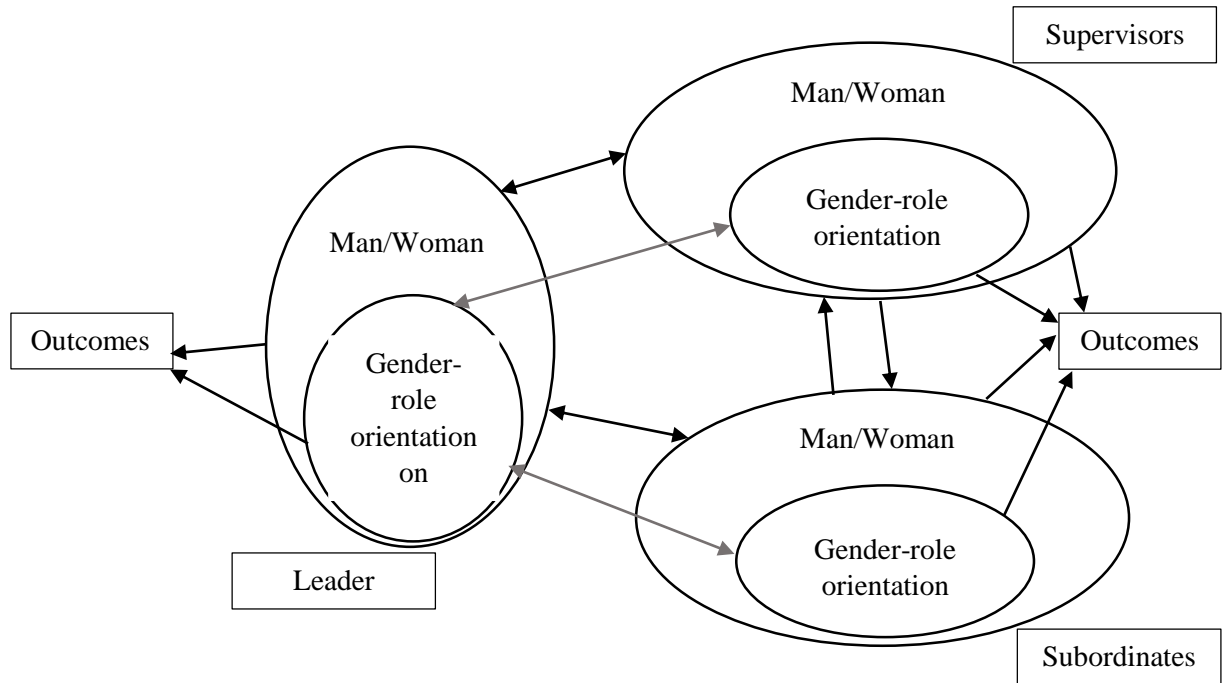
APPENDIX A

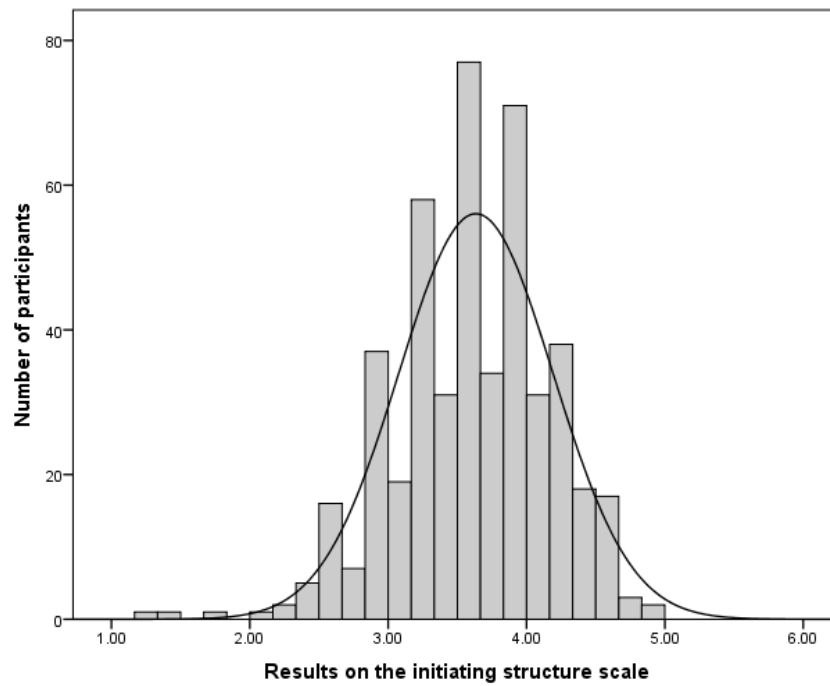*Figure 1.* Multi-perspective model of gender and leadership

APPENDIX B

Figure 2. Result distribution of the *initiating structure* scale (N=470*; skewness= -.479, kurtosis=.755*)
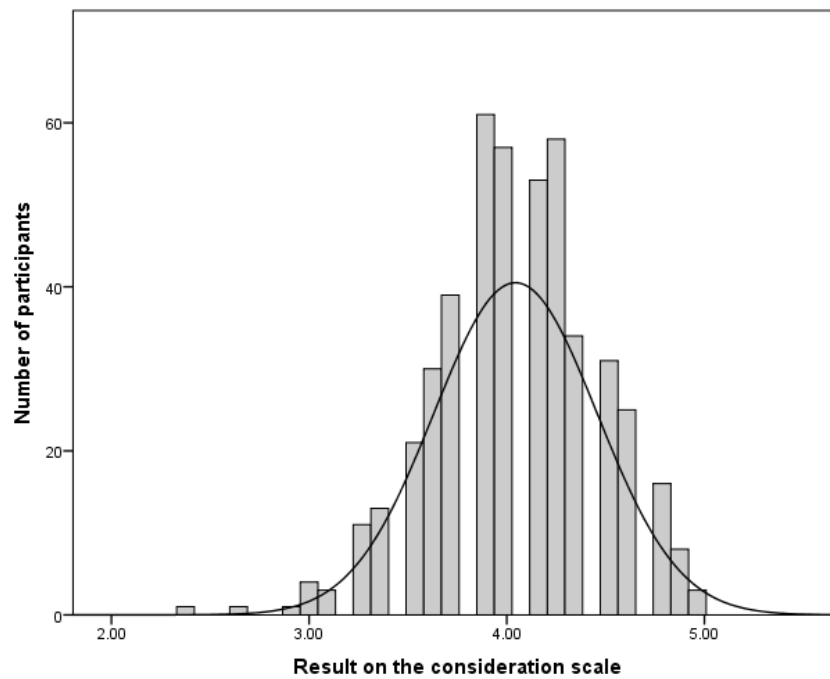

Figure 3. Result distribution of the *consideration* scale (N=470; *skewness=-.299, kurtosis=.356*)
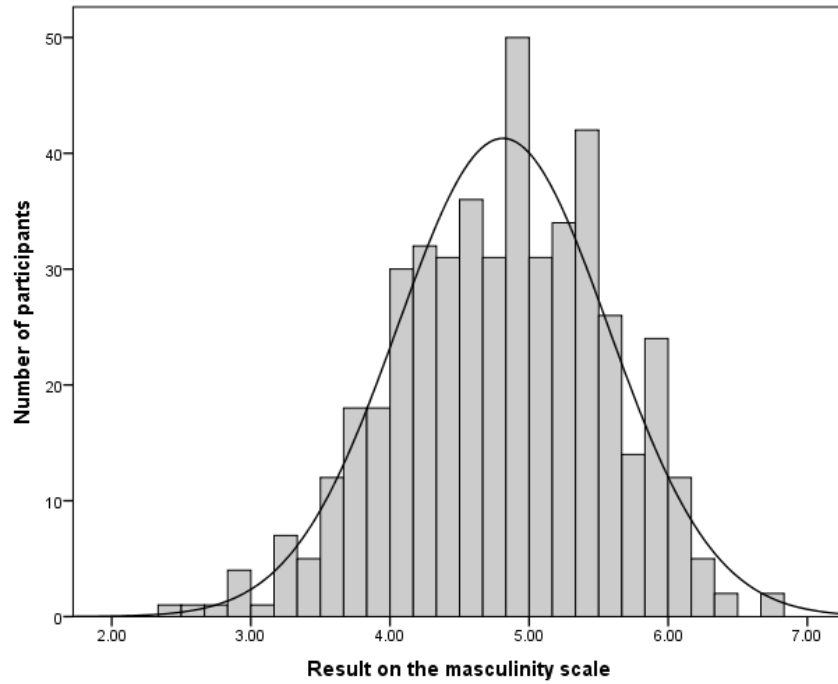
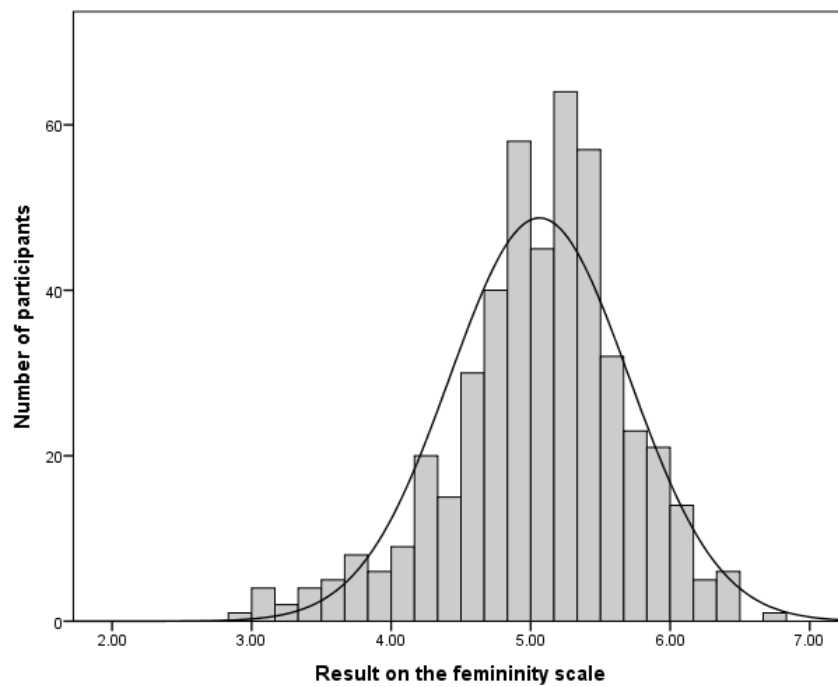*Figure 4.* Result distribution on masculinity scale (N=470; *skewness=-.239, kurtosis=-.239*)

Figure 5. Result distribution on femininity scale (N=470; *skewness=-.584, kurtosis=.730*)

APPENDIX C

Table 7
Results of hierarchical regression analysis with ***initiating structure*** as a criterion variable
(N=470)

Predictor variables	Step 1 (β)	Step 2 (β)
Sex	.015	.009
Age	.180**	.179**
Femininity		.31
Adjusted R²	0.028**	0.027
ΔR²	0.032**	0.001

**p<.01; * p<.05; sex (male=1, female=2)

Table 8
Results of hierarchical regression analysis with ***initiating structure*** as a criterion variable

Predictor variables	Subsample of employee (N=210)		Subsample of students (N=260)	
	Step 1 (β)	Step 2 (β)	Step 1 (β)	Step 2 (β)
Sex	-.050	-.048	.087	.076
Age	.081	.080	.04	.039
Femininity		-.013		.046
Adjusted R²	0	-0.005	0.001	-0.001
ΔR²	0.009	0	0.009	0.02

** p<.01; * p<.05; sex (male=1, female=2)

APPENDIX D

Table 11

Results of hierarchical regression analysis with ***consideration*** as a criterion variable (N=470)

Predictor variables	Step 1 (*β)*	Step 2 (*β)*
Sex	.169**	.188**
Age	.005	0
Masculinity		.165**
Adjusted R²	0.024**	0.049**
ΔR²	0.029**	0.027**

**p<.01; * p<.05; sex (male=1, female=2)

Table 12

Results of hierarchical regression analysis with ***consideration*** as a criterion variable

Predictor variables	Subsample of employee (N=210)		Subsample of students (N=260)	
	Step 1 (*β)*	Step 2 (*β)*	Step 1 (*β)*	Step 2 (*β)*
Sex	.122	.141	.215**	.227
Age	-.068	-.042	-.005	-.012
Masculinity		.270**		.087
Adjusted R²	0.011	0.079**	0.039**	0.043
ΔR²	0.020	0.072**	0.047**	0.007

**p<.01; * p<.05; sex (male=1, female=2)