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AN EMPIRICAL STUDY OF EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP STYLE AND GENDER BIASNESS

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Abstract

Every day, leaders face new and different challenges as they attempt to adapt to the ever-evolving environment around them and one of the challenges is to deal with gender biases which impact their leadership effectiveness and styles. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to investigate the effect of gender biases (GB) on leadership style (LS) and leadership effectiveness (LE) by utilizing psychological and organizational methods. A survey method has been conducted which includes an unrestricted close-ended 5-point Likert-scale questionnaire that has been filled out by the leaders as well as subordinates of the textile sector of Karachi, Pakistan. The sample size is 277. Moreover, Reliability and Multi Linear Regression (MLR) have been applied as the best-suited statistical test on the collected data by utilizing SPSS software. The findings reveal that gender biases have a significant effect on leadership styles and leadership effectiveness has a moderating effect on gender biases as well as leadership styles.

Keywords: Gender Biasness (GB), Leadership Style (LS), Leadership Effectiveness (LE)

INTRODUCTION

Researchers in the field of social science are now arguing the relative advantages of a variety of leadership styles and attributes. A plethora of academic research have been conducted over the course of the last three decades to investigate the aspects in which women's leadership styles differ from those of males (Young, 2011). The majority of the research and writing on the topic of leadership has typically focused on democratic or autocratic, participatory or directive forms of leadership. Academics have been studying the differences between male and female styles of leadership for more than 30 years' worth of research. There has been a rise in the amount of research done on the subject until enough women climb their way to the top most level.

Academics and practitioners are now paying more attention to the complicated link between gender and leadership behaviors because of the consistent and considerable growth in the number of women in leadership positions at all levels. With a worldwide proportion of women in senior management roles reaching a record-high 29 percent in 2019, 2019 will go down in history as a watershed year (Catalyst, 2019). Eastern Europe has the largest percentage of women in senior management, at 32 percent, a result of cultural, economic, and political variables in the area and the countries in it. Despite the fact that women make up half of the workforce and hold one-third of management roles, only 17% of women reach the level of senior executive officers (Eurostat, 2019). A clear trend is emerging in which more women are taking up administrative and leadership roles across the board, from the workplace to politics and society.

The relatively slow pace of advancement of women's professions in psychology and management is a current research concern. In spite of the fact that they are currently more successful than males in acquiring postgraduate qualifications and are

increasingly engaged in the labor market, women in Pakistan still face impediments to promotion into senior leadership roles, according to researchers (Vincent-Lancrin, 2008). McKinsey and Company conducted a worldwide research on the status of women in the workplace and found that, although they resign their organizations at a lower rate than men, women still make up just 20% of the top corporate executives (McKinsey, 2017).

These disparities in promotion rates, according to the findings of a myriad of research that have been conducted on the subject of women's lack of representation in leadership posts, are not the consequence of women's lack of professional desire (Ellemers et al., 2012). As a direct consequence of this, women have a lower sense of self-assurance in their capacities as leaders compared to men, who are more optimistic about their prospects for achieving success in positions of authority (Keller et al., 2013). In point of fact, studies have demonstrated that using discrimination in the recruitment process for leadership positions makes women's disadvantage even more pronounced (Burke, 2011).

As a starting point, studies have shown evidence that having gendered assumptions about what it necessary to be a good leader might lead to discrimination against women (Eagly and Karau, 2002). Specific to the view that great leaders should have stereotypically male or agentic characteristics, both men and women are inclined to support (Davison and Burke, 2000).

Investigating whether male and female executives use distinct leadership styles might help explain why there are so few women in management roles. Literature is divided on the usefulness of this avenue of inquiry (Vecchio, 2002). Managers who have been sacked frequently have their leadership styles criticized, as noted by Eagly and Carli (2003) in their book on the subject. According to the authors, several of these research were done to see whether the lack of women in

leadership roles might be attributed to their less successful use of leadership styles. Regardless of their initial notion, the need of addressing this subject is undeniable, even though concluding a definitive answer may be more difficult.

When it comes to making decisions on leadership succession, there is evidence to suggest that males at the top of businesses are more likely to promote people who possess similar traits and qualities or with whom they have a solid interpersonal connection. According to a recent meta-analysis (Koch et al., 2015), stereotyping and interpersonal warmth or similarity reinforce one another. As a result, similarity across the top ranks of businesses is promoted by the need for leadership replacements who conform to conventional (male) standards of leadership. Someone who does not fit into a male culture are further limited in their employment options as a result of this process.

Research on whether male leaders prefer socially equivalent people in leadership roles has been equivocal, but there is substantial evidence for internalized stereotypes about leadership and gender and how they negatively impact better selection and transformation choices (Heilman, 2001). It has been established that internalized gender and leadership stereotypes hinder one's ability to make effective choices throughout the selection and transformation processes (Eagly, 2007). According to studies conducted in economics and sociology, male business executives are reportedly encouraged to maintain elite informal networking systems based on interpersonal fit (the so-called "old boys network"). There are interpersonal connections that are advantageous because they are founded on social similarities (Cuddy et al., 2015). This allows the exchange of information and resources between the persons who are engaged (Ibarra et al., 2005). However, it is not clear if women, after they are in leadership posts, also make transition

choices based on interpersonal liking as a result of exposure to social similarities or shared major qualities. This is something that needs more investigation. It is now possible to discuss this issue in light of the fact that more and more women are taking on leadership roles in corporations and other organizations. Increasing the proportion of women in leadership roles might be possible if women were to base promotion and succession choices on a company's ability to get along with them on a personal level. Relationship between Leadership Styles and Effectiveness with the role of Gender in Pakistan are thus examined in this article methodically.

The textile sector, although adjusting faster than many others, nevertheless has a long way to go before it can ensure its long-term viability. It is the obligation of industry leaders to improve working conditions and address ethical concerns raised about the sector. While women spend roughly 40% more annually on clothing than men and 85% of students graduating from major fashion schools are female, few women are found in executive roles in this business (Koenig et al., 2011).

Despite recent advances, the number of women in management roles is still much lower than the number of males. As one rises in the organizational pyramid, this becomes much more pronounced. Many talented women are unable to advance in their careers due to a series of invisible hurdles known as the "glass ceiling," which was first used in the late 1980s. The phrase has now been widely used (Morrison, White, & Van Velsor, 1987).

It's no surprise, however, to hear headlines of a more "feminine" corporate atmosphere, where a focus on teamwork and interpersonal relationships is increasingly valued (Koenig et al., 2011). An excellent illustration of management issues that need strong feminine-like talents are virtual teams that must bring together people from all over the world to work together and compete in today's corporate climate. Furthermore,

rather than relying solely on the more traditionally associated with men's leadership styles of rationality, logic, and task delegation, women's strengths in consultative communication, cooperation, relationship building, and even simple friendliness can make a significant contribution to the effectiveness and success of teams (Eagly and Johnson, 1990).

Because leaders in enterprises are similar to leaders in other organizations, the study's premise is simple: The study based on the use of authority or the transformational leadership was not used. Instead, a two-dimensional matrix with people and tasks in mind was selected. Managed systems were renowned for it. The whole range of styles and options is available in this system.

Research Objectives

1. The objective of the study is to analyze the relationship between leadership styles and effectiveness with the role of gender in Pakistan.
2. To investigate if there are any disparities between men and women when it comes to leadership styles, using both psychological and organizational methods.
3. To study not only the factors that contribute to the different leadership styles in both men and women but also to take into account the effect of major organizational/contextual elements on leadership styles.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Leadership Styles:

As stated by Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt (2001), leadership style is "the different ways that leaders arrange their interacting behavior to fulfil their position as leaders" (Bass, 1990). Autocratic vs democratic leadership styles, as well as task- and relationship-oriented leadership styles, are the core focus of traditional leadership study (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Group members are not allowed to participate in decision-making under autocratic leadership (De Cremer, 2007). A democratic leader, on the other hand,

incorporates the group in the decision-making process, allowing and encouraging involvement from all members (Gastil, 1994). Researchers Lewin, Lippitt and White (1939) discovered that a group's behaviors might vary based on the sort of leader used. Finally, the authors concluded that democracy was best since it promoted autonomy, group contentment, and productivity. These early findings may be tempered by factors that were discovered in more recent meta-analyses (Foels et al., 2000).

There are two types of leaders: those focused on getting things done and those who focus on building relationships (Moreno, Díez and Ferreira, 2021). The former care more about getting things done, while the latter emphasize the quality of their relationships with others (Hemphill and Coons, 1957). Two of the most prominent models created in this area are the Task-Oriented Behavior Model from the Ohio State Leadership Studies and the Relationship-Oriented Behavior Model from the University of Michigan Leadership Studies (e.g., Likert, 1961). Concern for people and productivity are shown along two axes in the Blake and Mouton (1964) Managerial Layout, another influential model. Evidence from both theory and practise suggests that leaders get the greatest results when they combine the two approaches (Judge, Piccolo, & Ilies, 2004). Though environment plays an important part in determining leadership success, situational models go beyond to demonstrate (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982).

Until the 1980s, social psychology tended to emphasize leadership that was based on mutual exchange. Assumptions were made that employees would support and work for their superiors if they were able to offer them with suitable compensation (Moreno, Díez and Ferreira, 2021). There is a problem, according to Bass (1985), with theories and research that focus on the sharing of information. Bass (1985) developed a methodology based on Burns' (1978) distinction between transformational and

transactional ideological leaders. He distinguished between leaders who have a significant impact on their followers' values, attitudes, and beliefs at the level of the group as a whole (transformational leaders) and leaders who establish a relationship based on a series of transactions (transactional leaders). The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), developed by Bass, is the first and most widely used instrument for assessing these two styles of leadership as well as the laissez-faire approach (Hogg, 2010).

According to a number of research using the MLQ (Dumdum, Lowe, & Avolio, 2002), transformational leadership is associated with greater levels of subordinate performance and satisfaction (Judge & Piccolo, 2004). However, compared to the transformational leaders, the impacts on these variables produced by transactional leaders are always less significant (Molero et al., 2007). Finally, a laissez-faire attitude is associated with lower levels of efficiency and happiness.

Gender Biasness and Leadership Styles

There are two schools of thought on whether or not men and women differ in their approaches to leadership; the first argues that they do not (Foels et al., 2000), while the second argues that they do (Eagly and Karau, 2002). Differentiations are mostly supported by studies from evolutionary theories, cognitive social learning theory, and expectancy-value theory (Hyde, 2014). In leadership research, it is often held that female leaders are more likely to be nurturing, empathic, and relational, whereas male leaders are more likely to be assertive and egocentric. (Eagly, 1987). Because of the qualitative distinctions between men and women's social positions, leadership behavior and results are affected (Eagly, 1987). When it comes to corporate leadership, women tend to focus on maintaining strong interpersonal ties, whereas males tend to focus on accomplishing specific goals and tasks at hand (Martell and DeSmet, 2001). According to

social role theory (Heilman and Haynes, 2005) and the environment of the workplace, males are perceived as more suited and more successful in leadership positions than women (Eagly and Karau, 2002). Furthermore, commonly accepted gender stereotypes have a tremendous influence on how managers behave in the workplace and how observers anticipate them to behave depending on their gender. According to research, there are two major categories of stereotypes about women's conduct that may be applied to the field of leadership: communality and agency (or the traits of being selfless, friendliness, and care for the well-being of others) (Brescoll, 2016). Women tend to be more communal, whilst males tend to be more autonomous.

Eagly and Johnson (1990) conducted a meta-analysis of 162 studies to support the then-common belief that male leaders are more agentic (task- and people-focused) while female managers are more communal (people- and process-oriented). It was also noted that in the study environment, gender stereotypes about who should be in charge had a stronger role than in the organizational context (Ridgeway, 2001). According to new research, women are more likely to lead with a transformational approach than men are, while men tend to follow in a transactional, hands-off fashion (Silva and Mendis, 2017). Leaders may also exhibit actions that defy their gender norms. Wang et al. (2013) have observed that women who deployed authoritarian leadership style adversely affected subordinates job performance, but benevolent leadership of males was connected to greater subordinate performance. Leadership and its consequences, however, are influenced by a wide range of other elements, including those relating to all employees in an organization, as well as external and internal factors determining the company's context (Moreno, Díez and Ferreira, 2021). However, the idea that feminine-type leadership may be advantageous and much required in today's

organizations is a hot topic among academics and practitioners, and it may be quite well proven in future research (Dwiri & Okatan, 2021).

When it comes to gender variations in leadership behavior, previous studies have generally looked at "constructive" and "desirable" styles like relationship-oriented and task-oriented (Eagly et al., 2003). Gender disparities in destructive kinds of management are rare, however, in research investigations (Stempel and Rigotti, 2018). Since males are perceived as domineering, aggressive, dictatorial, and fighting, they have been linked with destructive leadership (Hyde, 2014). In subliminal leadership theories (Epitropaki and Martin, 2005), despotic actions were shown to be more common in males than in women. Female leaders may also be regarded unfavorably if they demonstrate masculine leadership styles like autocracy or defectiveness, according to an earlier meta-analysis by Eagly et al (1992). It seems that successful women might be seen by other women at work as egotistical, insensitive, cold, and manipulative because of their argentic (i.e., male) qualities, which is a terrible leadership style (Snow Andrade, 2022). Another research found that narcissistic women in management roles were seen as especially unproductive by their male subordinates (DeHoogh et al., 2015). Destructive leadership styles have been the subject of much study in recent years because of the prevalence of these leadership styles in businesses (Schyns & Schilling, 2013) and the severe harm they do to employees and organizations alike (Einarsen et al., 2007).

Leadership Effectiveness

Leadership research gives a good chance to examine if the conduct of leaders is gender stereotypic, according to Eagly and Johnson (1990). The "instrumental" aspect of gender stereotypes, such as aggressiveness, ambition, independence, self-sufficiency, dominance, competence, and reasoning, tends to make men more dictatorial and task-

oriented (Snow Andrade, 2022). The "communal" dimension of a person's personality includes traits such as generosity, sensitivity, understanding, tenderness, and compassion; these are all traits associated with female personality types. This link between gender stereotypes and leadership styles is supported by two research by Cann and Siegfried (1990). On a scale of "more like consideration" to "more like structuring," participants in the first research ranked gender-typed features. Male features were seen as more structured, whilst feminine attributes were viewed as more kind. In the second research, participants were asked to judge how masculine or feminine a leader's conduct was. The behaviors of consideration were seen as feminine, whilst the behaviors of structure were seen as male (Snow Andrade, 2022). As a result, the terms "feminine leadership styles" and "masculine leadership styles" are sometimes used interchangeably; thoughtfulness, democratic leadership, and a focus on relationships are examples of the former (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001).

Eagly and Johnson's (1990) meta-analysis of gender variations in various leadership styles reveals that female leaders tend to take a more inclusive and democratic tack. Men, on the other hand, tended to be more authoritarian or directive. It was also noted that although there were no variations in how either gender approached their work, women tended to prioritize their interpersonal relationships somewhat more than men did. However, the sort of investigation that was used to arrive at these final conclusions influenced their significance. As a result, there were no significant differences between men and women in the organizational studies conducted with actual leaders. Studies in which participants did not hold positions of authority found larger and more stereotypical inequalities between men and women. There was a constant difference between the authoritarian and democratic styles in all three experiments.

Gender disparities in transformational and transactional leadership have been examined in recent years. For women, transformational leadership has a more "community" feel because of its emphasis on individual concern. A "feminine" label may be applied to this kind of leadership due to the emphasis placed on the leader's own intellectual stimulation and the high level of individual care shown to subordinates (Van Engen, van der Leeden, & Willemsen, 2001).

For a long time, discrepancies and contradictions hampered studies of these approaches. They found that when it comes to contingent incentive behaviour (a component of transactional leadership), women are more committed and innovative than men. Male executives are more likely to practise management by exception (both active and passive) and laissez-faire than their female counterparts. Eagly et al. (2003) note that despite the fact that these differences are minor, they predominate in both the overall meta-analysis and the auxiliary analyses. Small impacts in scientific terms might have practical significance in realistic contexts, they say. Few meaningful models were found when the research characteristics were examined as modifiers of women's advantage in transformative leadership. Female managers in educational and other institutions face a significant gender gap, which is worth noting (health care, sports). Some kinds of businesses are more welcoming to women who demonstrate transformational leadership than others, say Eagly et al. (2003), who believe this may be because of cultural variations in the workplace.

Further research on the subject of gender variations in leadership styles was done by van Engen and Willemsen (2004) using publications published between 1987 and 2000. Women were shown to be more inclined to choose democratic and transformative leadership styles than men. The remainder of the styles were found to have no gender differences. Both the kind of

organization and the work environment have been shown to be moderators of variations in gender leadership style. When it comes to leadership styles, women are more likely than males to use democratic and transformational approaches (van Engen & Willemsen, 2004). A man's tendency to lead in an authoritarian or laissez-faire manner is greater than a woman's. Additionally, these and other meta-analyses show the presence of covariates that mitigate these outcomes (Eagly Karau & Makhijani 1995).

Factors Contributing to Gender Biasness

According to Dappa et al. (2019) Gender has been examined to see whether it has an effect on leadership styles, among other things. Barbuto et al. (2007) used the full range leadership model to examine the effect of age, education, and gender on leadership approaches. 234 raters from a variety of institutions, including government agencies and educational institutions, as well as 56 leaders, all utilized the MLQ to gather data for the study by Barbuto, et al. (2007). For transformative and transactional leaders, gender alone had no effect (Zacher et al., 2011).

There was further research on the leadership qualities of agriculture education instructors by Greiman et al (2007). A total of 234 Minnesota instructors were included in the study. The MLQ was also used to gather information on leadership style. Gender, years of experience, or the highest degree achieved had no significant effect on the study's conclusions of leadership traits. In addition to other research that obtained similar or identical findings (Isaac et al., 2010). Women scored better than men in the transformational trait of individual concern in the Greiman et al. (2007) research, but this was not the case for males. According to Greiman et al. (2007), the findings of this study call for more investigation into the qualities of leadership.

Findings from studies comparing male and female leaders have been contradictory.

Some studies have shown that male and female leaders use distinct approaches to leading, whereas others have found no such difference (Dappa et al., 2019). Studies on leadership interventions conducted during the last decade are included in this meta-analysis. Based on these findings, it's clear that male and female leaders exhibit distinct traits. More research is needed, although Avolio et al. (2009) say that gender differences in transformational and transactional leadership attributes warrant further investigation. Consistent with other studies' findings, this one is also promising (Paris et al., 2009).

Gender and leadership studies have all been undertaken outside of the mental health field. Corrigan et al. (2000) conducted a study on mental health teams using the MLQ 5x short form for leaders and followers to investigate the connection between leaders' transformational and transactional leadership attributes and customer satisfaction ratings. In their research, Corrigan et al. (2000) found that followership on mental health teams was less likely to burn out if their leaders had certain traits: transformational and transactional leadership. Furthermore, a laissez-faire leadership style was linked to poorer levels of satisfaction and a worse quality of life. Gender variations in leadership traits were not examined in this research. Aarons (2006) gathered information on transformational and transactional leadership styles in a mental health setting using the MLQ 5x short form and a provider survey. The findings suggest that MHOs would do well to hone both their transformational and transactional management skills as leaders. Since this study did not go into the question of whether or not there is a gender gap in leadership roles, we do not know the answer. To that end, this study analysed whether or not MHOs vary in terms of the leadership qualities shown by men and women.

H1: Gender Biasness have a significant effect on Leadership Styles.

H2: Leadership effectiveness have a moderating effect on Gender Biasness and Leadership Styles.

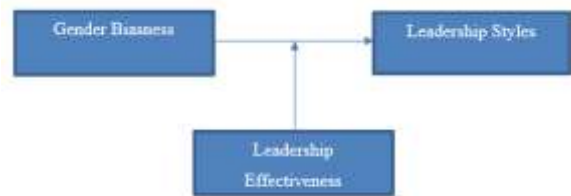


Figure 1: Conceptual Framework

Methodology:

The quantitative research approach has been used. Due to the multifaceted nature of the phenomena of gender prejudice with respect to various forms of leadership, this investigation serves as an explanatory research. The data was analyzed through regression and correlation analysis using SPSS software. The questionnaire reliability was measured by Cronbach's Alpha values.

The causal research design has therefore been used in the study. Causal effect (nomothetic perspective) occurs when variation in one phenomenon, an independent variable (IV), leads to or results, on average, in variation in another phenomenon, the dependent variable (DV). In this case, our IV was Gender Biasness which is assumed to have an impact on DV, Leadership Styles having leadership effectiveness as a moderator. The cause and effect relationship between variables were analyzed using observational method. An observational study is used to answer a research question based purely on what the researcher observes. There is no interference or manipulation of the research subjects, and no control and treatment groups.

The targeted population of this study are the work teams from Textile sector in Karachi, Pakistan based on the following criteria: the activities created by the organizations, and whether these organizations were "numerically male-dominated, female-dominated, or gender-balanced," so that the findings wouldn't be influenced by the kind of organization. In addition to the team leader,

we made an effort to utilize an equal number of male and female leaders and to ensure that the teams had a minimum of four members. The sample size was kept as 277 individuals from 35 distinct teams considering 99% confidence level using purposive sampling technique.

The survey method has been used to collect the data. We came up with two distinct sorts of survey questions. The leaders filled out the first one, while the subordinates completed the second one. The study has used a closed ended five-point Likert scale questionnaires. The measures for each construct have been adapted from various published literature including (Zhang et al., 2018); (Sultan & Uddin, 2011); (Cheung et al., 2009).

Research Instrument:

Gender difference is used in this study as Independent variable and to evaluate its effect on Dependent variable (Leadership) we used questionnaire of Rudman and Kilianski 2000, which gave us data about desires of participants about male and female leaders and 5 point Likert scale is used for rating (1=strongly disagree and 5=strongly agree). There are two elements included in the Leadership (dependent variable), one is Leadership Style and the other one is Leadership Effectiveness. To calculate leadership style we used scale which is created by Lewin,1939/1964; White & Lippitt, 1960 and to rate Leadership Effectiveness we used scale given by Bass and Avolio (1990). Gender-based biasness is playing role of moderating variable in this research. The questionnaire, named “Gender bias quiz” was used in order to examine this variable which is formed by Commonwealth of Learning. 4 point Likert scale was used to rate Gender-Based Biasness.

Table 1: Summary of Research Instruments

Variable/Constructs	Authors / Source	No. of items	Scale
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Leadership styles	(Lewin,1939/1964; White & Lippitt, 1960)	20	1-5
Leadership Effectiveness	Bass and Avolio (1990)	4	1-5
Gender Biasness	Commonwealth of Learning	3	(0=Not at all and 4= Frequently, if not always)

Data Analyses

The questions used to gauge each leadership style were subjected to a number of factor and reliability studies. Samples from subordinates were analyzed for leadership styles. It was for three key reasons why we accomplished this: Since there were two forms of evaluations (that is, subordinate evaluation vs. self-evaluation by leaders), the whole sample could not be included. However, it is possible to acquire the leaders' self-ratings and the ratings by their subordinates in the same variables. Using Student's t tests, researchers were able to examine the probable variations in leadership styles between men and women, as well as the effectiveness, additional effort, and contentment of their subordinates. Lastly, a body of research has examined how gender, along with other socio demographic and organizational/contextual characteristics, affects the ways in which men and women take the reins of an organisation. This group includes (from their point of view and from that of their subordinates). The data was analysed using SPSS software.

FINDINGS

Respondent Profile

We are examining the effect that gender prejudice has on a varied set of persons who are in leadership roles in Pakistan, with a particular emphasis on how they gravitate toward different leadership styles and how effective those styles are for them. The profile of the responder contains information about

their age, gender, and degree of competence, among other things. Table 3 provides a breakdown of the frequency of each demographic attribute as well as the percentage distribution of those frequencies.

Table 2: Respondent Profile

		Frequency	Percentage
Age	26 to 35	17	6%
	36 to 45	52	19%
	46 to 55	78	28%
	56 to 65	84	30%
	66 and above	46	17%
Gender	Female	114	41%
	Male	163	59%
Employment Experience	1 to 2 years	20	7%
	2 to 3 years	45	16%
	3 to 4 years	43	15%
	4 to 5 years	38	14%
	5 to Above years	131	48%

It is clear from Table 3 that only 41% of the people who filled out the survey questionnaire for this investigation were female, while the remaining 59% were male. Today, a greater number of males than women are employed in positions of power in the workforce. Additionally, there are only 6% of leaders who are between the ages of 26 and 35, 19% of leaders who are between the ages of 36 and 45, 28% of leaders who are between the ages of 46 and 55, 30% of leaders who are between the ages of 56 and 65, and 17% of leaders who are 66 or older. Finally, 48% of the respondents have more than 5 years of experience in the workforce, while just 7% of the respondents have experience in the workforce ranging from 1 to 2 years.

Reliability Analysis

Table 3: Cronbach's Alpha Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.654	25

It is regarded sufficient to have a reliability alpha between 0.6 and 0.7, while it is considered great to have an alpha of 0.8 or above. Values higher than 0.95 could point to duplication, therefore you should proceed with care when using them (Hulin, Netemeyer, and Cudeck, 2001).

Regression Analysis

In the context of Pakistan, this study focuses on the various kinds of leadership as well as the efficacy of leadership. Based on an examination of all of the variables and a review of the relevant research, the conceptual regression model may be summarized as follows:

$$LS = \alpha_0 + \beta_1 (GB) + \beta_2 (LE) + \epsilon$$

Where, β represents the regression coefficient and ϵ is the random error.

Model Significance

In terms of leadership style (LS) as a dependent variable, the R-Square value in the model summary is 0.315, which is considered to be on the lower end of the spectrum. The multiple correlation in the model summary table R is 66.8%, which suggests that the dependent and independent variables are related to some degree. This demonstrates that 31.5% of the variance in leadership style might be attributable to gender prejudice and that leadership effectiveness is the factor that controls this variation. The analysis of variance is used to demonstrate how significant the regression model is from a statistical perspective. It illustrates whether or not the overall result of the model is noteworthy. Using the table that was just shown, we can determine that the value of F is 0.033, which is much more than the significance criterion of $0.030 < 05$ that applies to this scenario. It is possible, via the use of the P-value, to draw the conclusion that the regression model is adequate and significant.

Table 4: Model Summary “

Model Summary				
Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate

1	.668 ^a	.135	.053	.487
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a. Predictors: (Constant), Leadership Effectiveness, Gender Biasness

Table 5: ANOVA
ANOVA^a

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Regression	9.352	24	.390	1.644	.033 ^b
1 Residual	59.745	252	.237		
Total	69.097	276			

a. Dependent Variable: Leadership Styles

b. Predictors: (Constant), Leadership Effectiveness, Gender Biasness

Hypothesis Testing

Table 6: Coefficients
Coefficients^a

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	.345	.206		1.672	.096
Gender Biasness	.027	.021	.078	1.255	.020
Leadership Effectiveness	.062	.023	.174	2.689	.003

a. Dependent Variable: Leadership Styles

Important information on the regression model and the way in which independent factors impact a dependent variable may be found here, along with the p-value of each of the independent variables and their respective levels of significance. It is also helpful in identifying the relevance of the many different factors that are independent. It is recommended that the null hypothesis be accepted and the alternative hypothesis be rejected until the P-value is significantly lower than the significance level (0.05).

$$LS = \alpha_0 + \beta_1 (.020) + \beta_2 (.003) + \epsilon$$

Where, β represents the regression coefficient and ϵ is the random error.

Table 7: Correlations
Correlations

	LS	LE	GB
LS Pearson Correlation	1	.003**	.020**
Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000
N	277	277	277
LE Pearson Correlation	.003**	1	.096**

Sig. (2-tailed)		.000		.000
N		277	277	277
GB	Pearson Correlation	.020**	.096*	1
Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	
N		277	277	277

The dependent and independent variables are associated in Table 8, which demonstrates their connection. Gender biasness are connected with leadership style and leadership effectiveness and has a weak positive correlation. This shows that an increase in the gender biasness will contribute slight favorably to leadership styles.

Hypothesis 1

When using a regression equation, we can see that gender biasness (GB) has a Beta coefficient of (0.078), and a P-value of (0.020 < 0.05), which indicates that gender biasness in leadership roles is an important factor in influencing the leadership styles of a leader. This finding supports the hypothesis that gender biasness in leadership roles plays a significant role.

Hypothesis 2

It can be seen through the use of a regression equation that the leadership effectiveness (LE) variable has a Beta coefficient of 0.174 and a P-value of (0.003 < 0.05). This shows that the leadership styles of a leader are influenced by gender, and that gender also controls the leadership effectiveness of a leader.

Summary of Hypotheses Testing

Table 8: Summary of Hypotheses Testing

Hypothesis	Result
H1: Gender Biasness have a significant effect on Leadership Styles.	Accept
H2: Leadership Effectiveness have a moderating effect on Gender Biasness and Leadership Styles.	Accept

It would be illuminating, in terms of future avenues for research, to compare the emotional and cognitive reactions of different types of subordinates to the agentic and communal behaviors of their leaders. This would be an interesting line of inquiry. It's possible that in the future, researchers may concentrate their attention less on the overall

feelings of employees and more on the emotional and task-based reactions of male and female subordinates to supervisors' actual communal and agentic behaviors.

CONCLUSION

This study is focused to identify the relationship between leadership styles and effectiveness with the role of gender in Pakistan. Further, if there are any disparities between men and women when it comes to leadership styles, using both psychological and organizational methods. Moreover, we did not find that female leaders were evaluated lower than males when their styles were stereotypically feminine (such as democratic). This finding might be explained by the fact that although men's in-group bias may have been significant in 1992, much has changed in the ensuing years, and men may now be more receptive to the concept of female leaders than they were in the past. In other words, the women in our research display features of "gender solidarity," which may be a consequence of their gender (women's status as a group that is dominated rather than dominating leads them to define themselves and be defined in relation to the opposing gender and to favor members of their own gender), their status (the heightened "gender solidarity" is related to positions with lower status in organizations than they ordinarily occupy), or as a reflection of processes that are taking place in the world today (Fajak & Haslam, 1998).

As focused on the factors that contribute to the different leadership styles in both men and women, study find out that women at smaller firms have a tendency to embrace specific leadership styles at a higher rate than men do. This might be because they have more liberty to do their work in the manner in which they deem most appropriate. This is feasible to observe that both the "type of activity generated by the organization" and the "male-or-female-domination in managerial positions", gender criteria are

used to categorize the organizations in the study ("democratic").

Furthermore, this discovery adds support to our objective to take into account the effect of major organizational/contextual elements on leadership styles which suggest that there is a relationship between the kind of organization and a leadership style that is more "typical." Specifically, this research demonstrates that there is a correlation between a command-and-control styles of leadership (van Engen et al., 2001). According to the results of our research on management by exception, we found that neither men nor women had a predisposition to adopt a more subordinate approach of leadership.

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