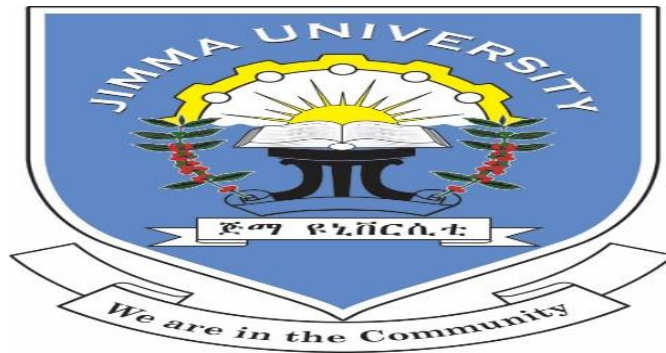


The Factor that Identify Perceived Difference between Male and Female Managers

A Thesis Submitted To The School Of Graduate Studies Of Jimma University In Partial Fulfillment Of The Requirements For The Award Of The Degree Of Master Of Business Administration (MBA).



JIMMA UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE OF BUSINESS AND ECONOMICS

DEPARTMENT OF MBA

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JUNE, 2021

JIMMA, ETHIOPIA

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Managers in Majang Zone, Gambelia Regional State
Public Office***

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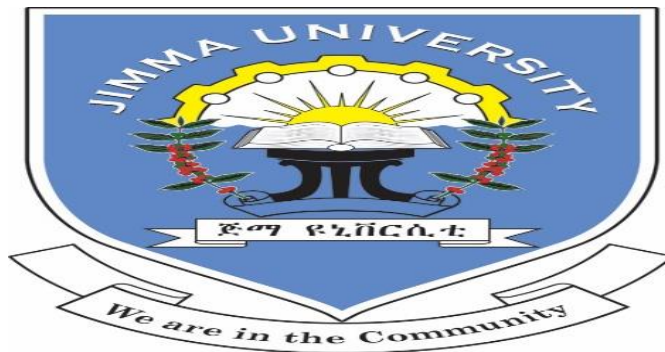
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COLLEGE OF BUSINESS AND ECONOMICS
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JUNE 2021
JIMMA,ETHIOPIA**

Certificate

This is to certify that the thesis entities “on perceive difference between male and female manager: A Case Study of Majang public office”, Submitted to Jimma University for the award of the Degree of Master of Business Administration (MBA) and is a record of Valuable research work carried out by Mr. Getiye Eshetu, under our guidance and supervision. Therefore we hereby declare that no part of this thesis has been submitted to any other university or institutions for the award of any degree of diploma.

Main Adviser’s Name

Date

Signature

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this thesis entitled “Perceive difference between male and female managers: A study on Selected Majang zone public office”, has been Carried out by me under the guidance and supervision of Tsigereda Abuye and Eminent Negash.

The thesis is original and has not been submitted for the award of degree of diploma any university or instructions.

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Date

Signature

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Table of content

Topic page no

Certificate.....	I
DECLARATION	II
Acknowledgement	III
Table of content	IV
List of figure	VII
ACRONYMES/ABBREVIATION.....	VII
Abstract.....	VIII
CHAPTER ONE	1
INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Background of the study.....	1
1.2Statement of the problems.....	6
1.3. Objective of the study	8
1.3.1 General objective.....	8
1.3.2 Specific objectives of the study	8
1.4. The Research hypotheses.....	8
1.5 Significance of the study	8
1.6 Limitation of the study.....	9
CHAPTER TWO	10
2. REVIEW RELATED LETRATURE	10
2.1 Theoretical frame work	10
2.1.1Are women managers different from men?	10
2.1.2Characteristics of Perception in Organizational Behavior	12
2.1.3.Several factors lead us to form inaccurate impressions of others.....	14
2.1.4 Accomplishment of leading characteristics.	17
2.1.5 Common Leadership Styles.....	21
2.1.5.5 Laissez-faire or hands-off.....	24
2.1.6Feminine leadership versus masculine leadership	26

2.1.7	In search of ‘The Best’ leadership	27
2.1.8	Theory of Leadership.....	36
2.2	Empirical frame work.....	36
2.1	Empirical accounts of vision	36
1.	Empirical accounts of vision	38
2.	Wholly empirical approach to visual perception	39
2.1.	<i>Wholly empirical approach to visual perception</i>	40
2.2.	<i>Wholly empirical approach to visual perception Color</i>	42
2.3.	<i>Wholly empirical approach to visual perception Brightness</i>	43
2.4.	<i>Wholly empirical approach to visual perception Line length</i>	44
2.5.	<i>Wholly empirical approach to visual perception Motion</i>	45
2.2.1	Team work	48
2.2.2	Culture of eadership	49
2.2.3	Organization confidence.....	50
2.2.4	Practical implications	51
2.2.5	Originality/value	51
CHAPTER THREE	53
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	53
3.1	Research design	53
3.2	Research approach.....	54
3.3	Target population of the study.....	54
3.3.1	Data collection instrument	54
3.4	Method of data analysis	55
CHAPTER FOUR	55
RESULT AND DISCUSSION	55
5.1	Summery of finding.....	87
5.4	Future research direction	92
Reference	93

List of table

4. 1INTRODUCTION.....	55
Table 4.1 Biographical information.....	56
Table 4.2 Number of response by organization.	56
Table 4.3 pride in other for being associated with manager.	57
Table 4.4 Go beyond self- interest of manager.....	57
Table 4.5 building others respect ion of managers.	58
Table 4. 6. Power and confidence of the managers.	59
Table 4.8 Values and beliefs of managers.	60
Table 4.9 Sense of manager'smission.....	61
Table 4.11 moral and ethical consequence the managers.	62
Table 4.13 Talking optimistically managers about future	63
Table 4.16 Confidence that goals achieved managers.	65
Table 4.17re- examine critical assumption of managers.	66
Table 4.18Managers seek differing method of solving problems.....	66
Table 4.19Managers look problems different angles.....	67
Table 4.20 suggest new ways to complete assignments.	67
Table 4.21 Chi-square of intellectual stimulation of the manager.....	68
Table 4.22 spend time teaching and coaching.	68
Table 4.23 treat others as individuals rather than group.....	69
Table 4.24 consider an individual needs and abilities.	70
Table 4.26 Help others to develop their strengths.	71
Table 4.27provide others with assistance.	71
Table 28 provide assistance in exchange for efforts.....	72
Table 4.29 discuss responsible for achieving performance.	73
Table 4.30make clear performance goals are achieved.	73
Table 4.31 express satisfaction when we meet.	74

Table 4. 32 attention on irregularities from standards.	74
Table 4.30keep track of all mistakes.....	75
Table 4.31 Standards direct attention toward failures.	75
Table 4.32wait for things to go wrong before taking action.....	76
Table 4.33 show aren't broke, don't fix it	76
Table 4.34 manager problem chronic before take action.....	77
Table 4.35 manger involved when important issues a rise.	78
Table 4.36some manager avoid making decision.	78
Table 4.37manager delay responding to urgent question.	79
Table 4.38 manager to do more than they expected.	79
Table 4. 39 heightening other desire.....	80
Table 4.40. Manager increase other willingness.....	81
Table 4.41mangers are effective in job affairs.....	81
Table 4.42managers effective in representing higher authority.....	82
Table 4. 43mangers leada group that is effective.	82
Table 4.44mangers usesatisfy method of leadership.	83

List of figure

Figure 2.1 Conceptual frame work relation.	83
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ACRONYMES/ABBREVIATION

UNDP: UnitedNationsDevelopmentProgram

TL: TransformationalLeadershipStyle

TCL: TransactionalLeadershipStyle

IA: IdealizedAttributes

IB: Idealized Behavior

IS: Intellectual Stimulation

PDMF – perceive difference between Male and female

MLQ – Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

BSI- Bem Role Inventory.

MBEA- management by exception active

MBEP- management by exception passive

LF-lassie-faire

IM-inspirational motivation

IS- intellectual stimulation

IC-individual consideration

CR-contingent reward

Abstract

The study examines the factors that identify perceive difference between male and female managers effectiveon giving service of public office in Gambella Regional StateMajang zone. The target population of this study was 40. Data gather from employees of bureau of finance, security, administration, communication, electric, agriculture, fish and animal, court, education, health, transport, water, truism, women and child, prison, civil service, political and trade.”The general objective of the study is to assess perceive difference between male and female managers.The researcher used Cronbacha alpha to test for reliability. First the researcher used both primary and secondary sources.The study select the necessary sample by deciding two managers purposivelyin each office. Technique of sampling uses non-probable to identifying only one male managers and one female human resource. The data collected from twenty public offices by open ended

questionnaires. The researcher analyzed by using descriptive statistics and presented in tables. The study collected data through questionnaire that analyzed using frequency and percentage values and the qualitative data are analyzed using textual explanations. The study also used both Quantitative and qualitative research approach for data analysis. The researcher employing SPSS version 21. The finding show that female managers achieve like male manager transactional leadership style. The frequency indicate male managers in work place like delegation manifest laissez faire behavior than female managers. Correlation indicated that female managers exhibit to use their time properly in work place views and good character of leadership styles. The study recommend both male and female will achieve cooperative and tolerate. The research suggest that managers initiate and inspire for extra effort on their close and work.

Key words:, management by exception active, management by exception passive, lassie-faire, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individual consideration, and contingent reward.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents background of the study, statement of the problem, objective of the study, research question, and significance of the study, scope and organization of the study.

1.1 Background of the study

Perception can be defined as our recognition and interpretation of sensory information. Perception also includes how we respond to the information. We can think of perception as a process where we take in sensory information from our environment and use that information in order to interact with our environment. Perception allows us to take the sensory information in and make it into something meaningful.(Yolanda Williams 2001).

Gender affects leadership in many aspects. Whether men and women lead in a different way is still highly debated issue. However, the major effect of gender on leadership is that women are presumed to be less competent and less worthy to hold leadership positions (Eagly, 2001). Leadership style depends on a number of factors, where gender is one of them. Leaders adapt to expectations based on people's categorization of them as male or female (Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001). Those expectancies are derived from traditional gender roles – roles in the society, in the family, and in paid employment (Eagly et al., 2000). Dr. Alice Eagly's research from the 1980s and 1990s proves that women in managerial positions adopt the participative and democratic styles of leadership and act more as transformational leaders than men, who adopted more transactional style of leadership. According to Dr. Alice Eagly's research, female managers tended to greater stress on communication, affiliation, and cooperation than men.

Moreover, women had more collective approach (Andersen and Hansson, 2011). Women intuitively notice which employees need more support and

show more understanding (Kupczyk, 2009). Additionally, it has been found that women are more relationship oriented when compared to men, who are task oriented. The study was repeated in 2001 by Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt. Results and conclusions remained unchanged (Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001). A contradictive study indicates that the only difference between male and female leadership lies in the decision-making process, while differences in other areas such as task orientation, motivation, and leadership styles are not significant enough to warrant any statement that leadership varies between genders (Andersen and Hansson, 2011).

Moreover, research by Kent and Schuele has proven no distinction when it comes to transformational and transactional leadership between male and female leaders (Kent and Schuele, 2010). In accordance to organizational behavior theories, men and women who occupy the same leadership role would behave similarly (Kanter, 1977). In reality, gender roles influence behavior causing differences in the behavior of female leaders and male leaders (Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001). Accordingly, Gutek and Morasch (1982) maintained that gender role does affect the organization and creates “background” identity in the workplace (Ridgeway, 1997).

Research by Alice Eagly (2000) suggests that even though some gender-stereotypic differences diminish under the influence of organizational role, others do not. It is difficult to evaluate exactly to what extent gender affects how people lead, but the fact that men and women differ in perception, communication, self-efficacy, attitude towards success, relationships, and morale is unquestionable (see e.g., Carol Gilligan, Alice Eagly and Linda Carli) and this directly influences how people relate to each other and how they manage relationships in the work environment as well. According to the 2009 McKinsey Report, women’s leadership style, unlike as men’s style, is more people-based and can be described as role modeling. It was also

stated that women give clear expectations and rewards. Similarly, a study from 2012 prepared by Zenger Folkman demonstrates that women are rated as more competent when taking initiative, self-development, honesty, and driving for results into account.

Leadership style depends on various factors including education, experience, culture, work experience, and personality, where it is still not clear to what extent it is influenced by gender and other factors. From another perspective, leaders adapt to expectation based on people's categorization of them as male or female (Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001). Those expectations are derived from traditional gender roles such as role in the society, in the family and in the organization (Eagly et al., 2000).

The fact that women in leadership positions are perceived in a different way than men (Carli and Eagly, 2007), may also influence the way they lead due to different expectations. Perception of women managers is, to a great extent, affected by stereotypes. In Poland women and girls are assigned the role of maintaining the household, while men and boys are to sustain its financial aspects (Zachorowska-Mazurkiewicz, 2006). Apart from the image of stay-at-home women in Poland, there is a strong confidence in the social mentality and traditional beliefs that women are less effective employees in comparison to men. This image could be influenced by the fact that women have two jobs – a professional one and the one at home – as research demonstrates that women are, in the majority of cases, the only ones who perform household activities. Moreover, it is believed that women are “naturally” worse leaders, have more difficulties with the decision-making, and are typically predisposed to take care of children, instead of taking care of company (Balińska, 2007). It is also believed that women do not have adequate traits and predispositions to hold high and

prestigious positions since they are too emotional, chaotic, and not sufficiently assertive (Balińska, 2007).

People have similar beliefs about leaders and men, but dissimilar beliefs about leaders and women” (Eagly et al., 2001), as women are traditionally seen as caring, people-oriented, warm and nice, while leaders have to be assertive, tough, result-oriented, and confident. This creates a situation in which these two characteristics combined together create a mismatch, resulting in the poorer evaluation of women as leaders. There is also a visible dichotomy in attitude towards the authoritarian female manager and the authoritarian male manager, where there is more acceptance for men to be authoritarian than for women (Eagly, 2004). When female chooses an authoritarian style, she is seen as aggressive and her leadership is rejected, as women are stereotypically perceived as the “nice ones.” Thus, the autocratic style does not go in line with niceness, again resulting in an unfavorable evaluation.

Therefore, the way women in leadership positions are perceived may influence their effectiveness – when negative performance is expected it may lead to biased evaluation of performance and a negative attitude towards the individual (Eagly, 2008). In reality, acceptance of a leader by subordinates, superiors, and colleagues is crucial to achieving success in leadership.

Studia i Materiały 1/2016 (20) Moreover, the fact that women are given more responsibilities (those connected with the upbringing the children and taking care of the household) and the socially accepted stereotypical role of women – far from the leadership position – affects the women themselves, women have fewer opportunities to follow a career path. This deeply embedded archetype of women-Polish mother affects the situation of women on the labor market. Women employees are seen by the employer

as mothers. Therefore, they are perceived as less efficient workers, due to their additional non-paid job, the one at home (Zachorowska Mazurkiewicz, 2006). Leadership style may have various sources. Among them are education, work experience, culture, and personal characteristics. Gender is only one of the factors that may or may not affect leadership style.

More research should be conducted to examine how self-assessments of leadership effectiveness vary based on perceptions on incongruity and how self-perceptions can influence men and women's career experiences and success. Another aim in this study was to understand how the contextual moderators derived from RCT could negatively impact perceptions of men's as well as women's leadership effectiveness. We found that there are certain contexts in which there may be a greater perceived congruity between the female gender role and leadership roles (i.e., middle management, business and education organizations, settings with a high percent of female raters, and in organizational settings rather than laboratory settings), and, in these contexts, women are seen as more effective leaders than men. The findings regarding middle management and educational organizations fit with propositions based on RCT. However, the findings regarding the percent of female raters (tokenism for men) and organizational settings (settings with higher cognitive loads for participants) were unexpected. Such findings highlight the shifting stereotypes surrounding gender and leadership (e.g., Koenig et al., 2011), which may be increasing perceptions of men's incongruity (and ineffectiveness) in leadership positions. To the extent that organizations shift toward a more feminine and transformational outlook, women should experience reduced prejudice, while men may be seen as more incongruent with leadership roles. Yet, men on average continue to earn more and advance into higher managerial levels than women (Blau & Kahn, 2007; Catalyst, 2012). Researchers argue that performance may matter less for female leader's pay than male leader's pay. Indeed, Kulich, Ryan, and Haslam

(2007) found that company performance more strongly related positively to bonus pay for male than female, whereas perceptions of the leader's charisma more strongly impacted bonus pay for women than men. Thus, future research needs to examine the other factors that may help to explain why women are seen as equally (or more) effective leaders than men, yet they are not being rewarded in the same ways. Additionally, future meta-analytic research could gather and examine studies that reflect leader ratings used for employment decisions (pay raises, promotions, etc.)

1.2 Statement of the problems

One study 509 managers, 127 of whom were females, responded to a survey exploring the extent to which they displayed each of Quinn's managerial roles. The results of this study indicate most people believe as a culture males be able to manage human being than female. Even in developed country employed not more than 45% in leading position. Traditionally women are considered to be good at communicating, team work, feedback and empowerment while men are rated highly for their planning and technical skills. Organizations and their role structures that are designed by males, subtly incorporate a somewhat male bias in their normal functions and culture. In this context, this paper explores the differences in the styles of women versus men as managers.

Researcher like (Nier and Gutek 1981) show that women exhibit less achievement orientation and achievement related behavior than men. Roser 1990 describe female like interpersonal contact. Like undeveloped and developing country manifested women were house wife they do not need to look in office. For example Saud Arabia, Ethiopia, Sudan).

Even though we would find other similar and differences between female leader and male leaders.

Rather it is how effective they are as managers that determines their significant others' perceptions. (Robert Quinn's). All are the same in

management, others show different taught regarding to perception of male and female managers. Several factors lead us to form inaccurate impressions of others. Attitudes, moods, motives, interest and cognitive structure, an individual's pattern of thinking, also affects perception.

Another factor that can affect social perception is the perceivers' self-concept. An individual with a positive self-concept tends to notice positive attributes in another person.

The perceiver's attitudes affect perception. For example, suppose Mr. X is interviewing candidates for a very important position in his organization – a position that requires negotiating contracts with suppliers, most of whom are male.

We receive a vast amount of information. Therefore, it is impossible for us to assimilate everything we see - on eye certain stimuli can be taken.

Leadership means being in charge of other people in numerous ways, including motivation, organization and the inspiration of followers. A manager has formal power over subordinates, which is not necessarily true in the case of leader (Eagly and Carli, 2003).

Although, this researcher will find the other differences regard to female and male managers differences. It need to develop new polices, management training that will help to effective managements. Therefore prepare three main questions:

1. What is the main perception difference of male and female managers?
2. Why female leader characterizetransformational leadership style?
3. Is male leader manifests transactional leadership style?

1.3. Objective of the study

1.3.1 General objective

The general objective of the study is to assess the perceived difference between female and male managers.

1.3.2 Specific objectives of the study

The specific objectives of the study are:

1. To identify the main reason of the perceived difference between male and female managers.
2. To investigate the transformational leadership style manifest by female managers.
3. To assess male managers characterize transactional leadership style.

1.4. The Research hypotheses

With the help of sufficient and appropriate empirical data on the perceived difference between male and female, this study will test the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1: Most female expect for their work contingent reward.

Hypothesis 2: Female managers would be characterized by cooperative and management by exception active.

Hypothesis 3: Male manager would be effective on idealized attitude.

Hypothesis 4: Male manager would stimulate intellectually.

Hypothesis 5: Male manager would manifest motivation.

1.5 Significance of the study

The study result is helpful for: First, The present study contributes to emerging industry level perspective by investigating the difference between male and female managers in public office. Moreover, it helps the firms within the

office to understand the perception difference between male and female managers. It also helps to modify the pay policies and practices so that competent employees attracted to the organization and unnecessary may reduce. Moreover, if the modified compensation meets the aspiration of workers productivity will increases and workers. It also give clue for who need to assess managerial work in position of leadership. The other advantage of this research is show the perception characteristics of male and female managers on managers. The research project will contribute some valuable inputs for managers.

1.6 Limitation of the study

It is quite known that any study is not absolutely free from limitations. As a result, this study conduct with some sort of limitations. The researcher face with many problems which, in fact, may affect the quality of the study. The following are among others:

- ✓ The reluctance of some busy office like court to fill the questionnaire.
- ✓ Application of public offices Principles, the case of incident causes.
- ✓ The delay by the respondents in returning back the questionnaire.
- ✓ Shortage of time to undertake the study.

CHAPTER TWO

2. REVIEW RELATED LETRATURE

2.1 Theoretical frame work

2.1.1Are women managers different from men?

There has been a sort of conventional wisdom about male and female managers. Each supposedly has certain strengths and weaknesses which make a profound Impact on the work place. Traditionally women are considered to be good at communicating, team work, feedback and empowerment while men are rated highly for their planning and technical skills. Organizationsand their role structures that are designed by males, subtly incorporate a somewhat male bias in their normal functions and culture. In this context, this paper explores the differences in the styles of women versus men as managers }

“Women stand at the cross roads between production and reproduction, economic activity and the care of human beings, and therefore between economic growth and human development.

2.1.1.1Principles of management

Organizing, Leading and Controlling. Who is better at this? Of course, men have dominated management jobs for decades, centuries, even millennia. Men naturally assumed working roles because of their size and strength, when most jobs required these attributes. And, just as naturally they progressed to management roles. For much of recent history, women did not enjoy a significant presence in the workforce. However, during World War II, women were needed to assume manufacturing and other jobs, while men went off to

war. Still, following the war, a sentiment of “a woman’s place is in the home” reemerged.

The girl is socialized to expect her husband to take care of her, while boys are socialized from an early age, to complete their education, pursue careers.

Prof. Shobha Sundaresan, HOD.

They can change to softer options at will, take up nontraditional jobs or even quit their jobs. Women’s preparedness to take up non-traditional jobs and grow into higher management levels also depends on certain individual characteristics they bring to the job. Societal norms state that women should not or cannot be successful in management roles. Sex role stereotypes and prescriptions for desirable feminine behavior conflict with the desirable managerial behavior. Traits that are positively valued for men are related to behavior that reflect competence, rationality and assertiveness, while positively value feminine traits reflect warmth and expressiveness. (Broverman et. al.1972)

2.1.1.2 Exhibition of female.

Research suggests that women exhibit less achievement orientation and achievement related behavior than men (Niera and Gutek 2006, O’Leary 1974). While men use the command and control style and transactional leadership, women tend to use the interactive and transformational style of leadership. Women tend to ascribe power to personal characteristics like charisma, interpersonal skills, hard work and personal contact. They also encourage participation and share power organization (Rosener 2007) and information easily with other members in the Dexter(2005) argues that women who aspire to managerial positions must undergo a two stage socialization process because sex role socialization prepares men but not women – Wielding authority and assuming power are necessary in many professional and managerial positions.

2.1.2 Characteristics of Perception in Organizational Behavior

Several characteristics of the perceiver can affect perception. When an individual looks at a target and attempts to interpret what he or she, that interpretation is heavily influenced by personal characteristics of individual perceiver. The major characteristics of the perceiver influencing perception are:

2.1.2.1 Attitudes

The perceiver's attitudes affect perception. For example, suppose Mr. X is interviewing candidates for a very important position in his organization – a position that requires negotiating contracts with suppliers, most of whom are male. Mr X may feel that women are not capable of holding their own in tough negotiations. This attitude will doubtless affect his perceptions of the female candidates he interviews.

2.1.2.2 Moods

Moods can have a strong influence on the way we perceive someone. We think differently when we are happy than we do when we are depressed. In addition, we remember information that is consistent with our mood state better than information that is inconsistent with our mood state. When in a positive mood, we form more positive impression of others. When in a negative mood, we tend to evaluate others unfavorably.

2.1.2.3 Motives

Unsatisfied needs or motives stimulate individuals and may exert a strong influence on their perceptions. For example, in an organizational context, a boss who is insecure perceives a subordinate's efforts to do an outstanding job as a threat to his or her own position. Personal insecurity can be transferred into the perception that others are out to "get my job", regardless of the intention of the subordinates.

2.1.2.4 Self-Concept

Another factor that can affect social perception is the perceivers' self-concept. An individual with a positive self-concept tends to notice positive attributes in another person. In contrast, a negative self-concept can lead a perceiver to pick out negative traits in another person. Greater understanding of self allows us to have more accurate perceptions of others.

2.1.2.5 Interest

The focus of our attention appears to be influenced by our interests. Because our individual interests differ considerably, what one person notices in a situation can differ from what others perceive.

2.1.2.6 Cognitive Structure

Cognitive structure, an individual's pattern of thinking, also affects perception. Some people have a tendency to perceive physical traits, such as height, weight, and appearance, more readily. Others tend to focus more on central traits, or personality dispositions.

Cognitive complexity allows a person to perceive multiple characteristics of another person rather than attending to just a few traits.

2.1.2.7 Expectations

Finally, expectations can distort your perceptions in that you will see what you expect to see. The research findings of the study conducted by Sheldon S Zalkind and Timothy W Costello on some specific characteristics of the perceiver reveal.

Knowing oneself makes it easier to see others accurately. One's own characteristics affect the characteristics one is likely to see in others. People who accept themselves are more likely to be able to see favorable aspects of other people.

Accuracy in perceiving others is not a single skill.

These four characteristics greatly influence how a person perceives others in the environmental situation.

2.1.3. Several factors lead us to form inaccurate impressions of others

These barriers to perception are inaccurate impressions of others. These barriers to perception are:

2.1.3.1 Selective Perception

We receive a vast amount of information. Therefore, it is impossible for us to assimilate everything we see - on eye certain stimuli can be taken. That is why their boss may reprimand some employees for doing something that when done by another employee goes unnoticed. Since, we can't observe everything going on about us, we engage in selective perception.

Selective perception is also our tendency to choose information that supports our view points; Individuals often ignore information that makes them feel uncomfortable or threatens their view points.

2.1.3.2 Stereotype

A stereotype is a generalization about a group of people. When we judge someone on the basis of our perception of the group to which he or she belongs, we are using the shortcut called stereo typing. Stereo types reduce information about other people to a workable level, and they are efficient for compiling and using information. It is a means of simplifying a complex world and it permits us to maintain consistency. It is less difficult to deal with an unmanageable number of stimuli if we use stereo types. Stereo types can be accurate, and when they are accurate, they can be useful perceptual guidelines. However, most of the times stereotypes are inaccurate. Attractiveness is a powerful stereo type. We assume that attractive individuals are also warm, kind, sensitive, poised, sociable, outgoing, independent, and strong. Are attractive people sociable, outgoing, independent, and strong? Are attractive people really like this? Certainly all of them are not.

2.1.3.3 Halo Effect

The halo error in perception is very similar to stereo typing. Where as in stereo typing the person is perceived according to a single category, under the halo effect the person is perceived on the basis of one trait.

When we draw a general impression about an individual based on a single characteristic, such as intelligence, sociability or appearance, a halo effect is operating. The propensity for the halo effect to operate is not random. Research suggests it is likely to be most extreme when the traits to be perceived are ambiguous in behavioral terms, when the traits have moral over tones, and when the perceiver is judging traits with which he or she has limited experience. Example of halo effect is the extremely attractive women secretary who is perceived by her male boss as being an intelligent, good performer, when, in fact, she is a poor typist.

2.1.3.4 First-impression error

Individuals place a good deal of importance on first impressions. First impressions are lasting impressions. We tend to remember what we perceive first about a person, and some time we are quite reluctant to change our initial impressions. First - impression error means the tendency to form lasting opinions about an individual based on initial perceptions. Primacy effects can be particularly dangerous in interviews, given that we form first impressions quickly and that these impressions may be the basis for long-term employment relationships.

2.1.3.5 Contrast Effect

Stimuli that contrast with the surrounding environment are more likely to be selected for attention than the stimuli that blends in. A contrasting effect can be caused by color, size or any other factor that is unusual (any factor that distinguishes one stimulus from others at present). For example, a man walking down the street with a pair of crutches is more attention getting than a common man. A contrast effect is the evaluation of a person's characteristics

that are affected by comparisons with other people recently encountered that rank higher or lower on the same characteristics. The "contrast" principle essentially states that external stimuli that stands out against the background or which are not what are expecting well receive their attention. The contrast effect also explains why a male students tends out in a crowd of female students. There is nothing unusual about the male students but, when surrounded by females, he stands out.

2.1.3.6Projection

It is easy to judge others if we assume they are similar to us. This tendency to attribute one's own characteristics to other people is called projection.

Projection can distort perceptions made about others. People who engage inprojection tend to perceive others. According to what they are like rather than according to what the person being observed is really like. When managers engage in projection, they compromise their ability to respond to individual differences.They tend to see people as more homogeneous than they really are.

2.1.3.7Implicit Personality Theories

We tend to have our own mini-theories about how people look and behave. These theories help us organize our perceptions and take shortcuts instead of integrating new information all the time. Implicit-personality theory is opinions formed about other people that are based on our own mini theories about how people behave. For example we believe that girls dressed in fashionable clothes will like modern music and girls dressed in traditional dress like saree will like Indian classical music. These implicit personality theories are barriers because they limit our ability to take in new information when it is available.

2.1.3.8Self-Fulfilling Prophecies

Self-fulfilling prophecies are the situation in which our expectations about people affect our interaction with them in such a way that our expectations are

fulfilled. Self-fulfilling prophecy is also known as the Pygmalion effect, named after a sculptor in Greek mythology who carved a statue of a girl that came to life when he prayed for this wish and it was granted. The Pygmalion effect has been observed in work organizations as well. A manager's expectations of an individual affect both the manager's behavior toward the individual and the individual's response.

2.1.4 Accomplishment of leading characteristics.

2.1.4.1 Friendship

Alice Eagley, who specializes leadership styles of women and men managers. Women's styles are characterized as being team players, democratic, transformational and reward.

Leadership is an attitude as well as action. It can be most suitably described as the process of influencing in which one person can support others in the accomplishment of common goal (Chemers, 2007). This researcher make clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved.

For the purposes of the upper article, the terms leader and manager are used interchangeably when discussing organizational leadership, as both activities are intertwined in the organization (Eagly and Carli, 2008).

As cited to same research; Because not only the female and male roles have different content, but also because there is often inconsistency between the predominantly communal qualities that perceivers associate with women and the predominantly argentic qualities that they believe are required to succeed as a leader (Eagly and Johannesen-Eagley observes that prejudice towards female leadership styles restricts women managers' access to top leadership positions.

2.1.4.2 Motivation and inspiration

Leadership means being in charge of other people in numerous ways, including motivation, organization and the inspiration of followers. A manager has formal power over subordinates, which is not necessarily true in the case of leader (Eagly and Carli, 2003) Scholars distinguish between leadership and management by describing managers as those responsible for formal organization and control work.

2.1.4.3 Goal achieving

Leadership is an attitude as well as action. It can be most suitably described as the process of influencing in which one person can support others in the accomplishment of common goal (Chemers, 2005). This researcher make clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved.

2.1.4.4 Contingent reward

Eagly and Carli (2008) meta-analysis revealed that, compared with male leaders, female leaders were (a) more (significant in general and on all but one subscale) and (b) engaged in more of the contingent reward behaviors (i.e., exchanging rewards for followers' satisfactory performance) that are one component of transactional leadership.

2.1.4.5 Management by-exception passive

Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt they argue that, "It is likely that the greater effectiveness of female than male in this sample of managers reflected the negative relationships between passive management by- exception.

2.1.4.6 Responding urgent question

According to Eagly and Carli (2006), "the predominantly argentic qualities that people associate with men are similar to the qualities perceived to be needed for success in high status occupations, which would include most

managerial occupations”. In the same sense this research reflect it. Like Eagly and Carli some administrators were delay responding to urgent question.

2.1.4.7 Power and control system

In contrast to Denmark these results are poor. There, women occupy 23% of all managerial positions and over 70% of women have jobs (European Commission, 2013). Such low numbers of women in managerial position may be caused by the belief that men are better leaders than women, as men embody masculine characteristics, including power and control, which used to be considered the traits of good leader. Due to such low presence of women in managerial positions, companies loose an opportunity to benefit from diversified managerial team.

2.1.4.8.Laissez-fairestyles

Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt they argue that, “It is likely that the greater effectiveness of female than male in this sample of managers reflected the negative relationships between passive management by- exception and the laissez-faire styles to effectiveness and the positive relationship of transformational and contingent reward to effectiveness.

2.1.4.9 Women greater in leading effectiveness

Women when comparing results from organizational data to those of laboratory data, due to the effects of cognitive load in increasing the use of think manager–think male stereotypes in organizations. However, we found that, in 64 studies, women were rated (by others) as significantly more effective than men in organizational settings, while the gender difference was not significantly different in 10 laboratory studies. Thus, perhaps the notion that cognitive load leads to the increased use of stereotypes holds true; however, rather than relying on stereotypes of men’s greater leadership effectiveness, organizational members may rely upon a different, newer

stereotype: that women are more effective leaders. In their meta-analysis, Eagly et al. (2005) found a significant linear effect for the percent of male subordinates on gender differences such that as the proportion of males increased, effectiveness ratings favored male leaders. We found, counter to Eagly et al.'s results, that gender differences in effectiveness approached zero as the percent of male raters increased. Additionally, we found that as the percent of female raters increased, female leaders were seen as more effective than men.

2.1.4.11 Level of women and leadership effectiveness

Women, on the other hand, may see themselves as incongruent with many leadership contexts, even though others evaluate them as more effective as middle and senior managers, as well as in business and education organizations. More research should be conducted to examine how self-assessments of leadership effectiveness vary based on perceptions on incongruity and how self-perceptions can influence men and women's career experiences and success.

2.1.4.12 Gender and leadership effectiveness

We found that men were considered slightly more effective leaders in older studies, and women were favored in studies conducted more recently. This is consistent with a recent meta-analysis that found that leadership definitions were seen as less masculine over time (Koenig et al., 2011). A post hoc power analysis was conducted to determine if a low sample size (99 studies) could explain the non-significance of the effect.

2.1.4.13 Men believe themselves as effective

The second important example of confounding in this study involved the large amount of studies that examined lower level supervisors, between 2004 and 1995 (73%). Thus, it is difficult to know whether the time period was the most important factor in men rating themselves as more effective than women rated themselves, or whether being in lower level positions was the more important

moderator. Future research should examine the feminine and masculine behaviors needed for success at different hierarchical levels in order to better understand how level moderates gender differences in leadership effectiveness. We also recognize that many of the effect sizes reported in this meta-analysis are fairly small. Though these small effects are consistent with findings of other meta-analyses examining gender differences in mathematics performance (Lindberg, Hyde, Petersen, & Linn, 2010), job performance (Roth, Purvis, & Bobko, 2012), leadership effectiveness (Eagly et al., 2008), and leadership evaluations (Eagly et al., 1992), some critics have suggested that such small effects are unimportant (Vecchio, 2002).

2.1.4.15 lower and senior level perception

For self-ratings, men rated themselves as significantly more effective as women rated themselves in lower level supervisor positions and senior leader positions. There were nonsignificant gender differences in self-ratings for middle management positions. For other-ratings of leadership effectiveness, women were rated as significantly more effective as middle managers and as senior leaders. There was a nonsignificant gender difference in other-ratings of leadership effectiveness for lower level supervisors. As it relates to men being seen as less effective leaders than women in middle management positions, possibly because of those positions being considered to be feminine in nature.

2.1.5 Common Leadership Styles

At some point in your career, you may take on a leadership role in some capacity. Whether you're leading a meeting, a project, a team or an entire department, you might consider identifying with or adopting a defined leadership style.

Most professionals develop their own style of leadership based on factors like experience and personality, as well as the unique needs of their company and its organizational culture. While every leader is different, there are 10 leadership styles commonly used in the workplace.

As you develop leadership skills, you'll likely use different processes and methods to achieve your employer's objectives and meet the needs of the employees who report to you. To be effective as a manager, you might use several different leadership styles at any given time.

By taking the time to familiarize yourself with each of these types of leadership, you might recognize certain areas to improve upon or expand your own leadership style. You can also identify other ways to lead that might better serve your current goals and understand how to work with managers who follow a different style than your own. Here are 10 common leadership styles:

2.1.5.1 Coach

A coaching leader is someone who can quickly recognize their team members' strengths, weaknesses and motivations to help each individual improve. This type of leader often assists team members in setting smart goals and then provides regular feedback with challenging projects to promote growth. They're skilled in setting clear expectations and creating a positive, motivating environment.

The coach leadership style is one of the most advantageous for employers as well as the employees they manage. Unfortunately, it's often also one of the most underutilized styles—largely because it can be more time-intensive than other types of leadership.

2.1.5.2. Visionary

Visionary leaders have a powerful ability to drive progress and usher in periods of change by inspiring employees and earning trust for new ideas. A visionary leader is also able to establish a strong organizational bond. They strive to foster confidence among direct reports and colleagues alike.

This type of leadership is especially helpful for small, fast-growing organizations, or larger organizations experiencing transformations or corporate restructuring.

2.1.5.3. Servant

Servant leaders live by a people-first mindset and believe that when team members feel personally and professionally fulfilled, they're more effective and more likely to produce great work regularly. Because of their emphasis on employee satisfaction and collaboration, they tend to achieve higher levels of respect.

A servant leader is an excellent leadership style for organizations of any industry and size but is especially prevalent within nonprofits. These types of leaders are exceptionally skilled in building employee morale and helping people re-engage with their work.

2.1.5.4 Autocratic

Also called the authoritarian style of leadership, this type of leader is someone who is focused almost entirely on results and efficiency. They often make decisions alone or with a small, trusted group and expect employees to do exactly what they're asked. It can be helpful to think of these types of leaders as military commanders.

This leadership style can be useful in organizations with strict guidelines or compliance-heavy industries. It can also be beneficial when used with

employees who need a great deal of supervision—such as those with little to no experience. However, this leadership style can stifle creativity and make employees feel confined.

2.1.5.5 Laissez-faire or hands-off

This leadership style is the opposite of the autocratic leadership type, focusing mostly on delegating many tasks to team members and providing little to no supervision. Because a laissez-faire leader does not spend their time intensely managing employees, they often have more time to dedicate to other projects.

Managers may adopt this leadership style when all team members are highly experienced, well-trained and require little oversight. However, it can also cause a dip in productivity if employees are confused about their leader's expectations, or if some team members need consistent motivation and boundaries to work well.

2.1.5.6 Democratic

The democratic leadership style (also called the participative style) is a combination of the autocratic and laissez-faire types of leaders. A democratic leader is someone who asks for input and considers feedback from their team before making a decision. Because team members feel their voice is heard and their contributions matter, a democratic leadership style is often credited with fostering higher levels of employee engagement and workplace satisfaction.

Because this type of leadership drives discussion and participation, it's an excellent style for organizations focused on creativity and innovation—such as the technology industry.

2.1.5.7. Pacesetter

The pacesetter leadership style is one of the most effective for driving fast results. These leaders are primarily focused on performance. They often set

high standards and hold their team members accountable for hitting their goals.

While the pacesetter leadership style is motivational and helpful in fast-paced environments where team members need to be energized, it's not always the best option for team members who need mentorship and feedback.

2.1.5.8 Transformational

The transformational leadership style is similar to the coach style in that it focuses on clear communication, goal-setting and employee motivation. However, instead of placing the majority of the energy into each employee's individual goals, the transformational leader is driven by a commitment to organizational objectives.

Because these types of leaders spend much of their time on the big picture, this style of leading is best for teams that can handle many delegated tasks without constant supervision.

2.1.5.9 Transactional

A transactional leader is someone who is laser-focused on performance, similar to a pacesetter. Under this leadership style, the manager establishes predetermined incentives—usually in the form of monetary reward for success and disciplinary action for failure. Unlike the pacesetter leadership style, though, transactional leaders are also focused on mentorship, instruction and training to achieve goals and enjoy the rewards.

2.1.5.10 Bureaucratic

Bureaucratic leaders are similar to autocratic leaders in that they expect their team members to follow the rules and procedures precisely as written.

The bureaucratic leadership style focuses on fixed duties within a hierarchy where each employee has a set list of responsibilities, and there is little need for collaboration and creativity. This leadership style is most effective in highly regulated industries or departments, such as finance, healthcare or government.

2.1.6 Feminine leadership versus masculine leadership

If we compare male and female leaders, we can see that it is an ever-evolving situation. There are some female principles and characteristics (such as using their intuition in the decision-making process, being careful, getting a good work-life balance, and social responsibility), as being in tune with the cultural hypotheses with regard to the way men and women think and act.

In general, women are better equipped for motivation (they are energetic and enthusiastic), communication (they make sure that their employees are well informed), feedback (they update their team in terms of their performance), and aspirations (they set high goals).

2.1.6.1 Women strength

Furthermore, women tend to be better evaluated in terms of empathy (showing good people management skills and their needs by establishing a strong connection with their team) and communication (by establishing clear demands from others, expressing their thoughts and ideas clearly, and by keeping a solid communication flow) when compared to men. Also, women are better qualified in terms of people skills (sensitivity toward others, being kind, having good listening skills, and developing efficient relationships with their team and their superiors). Contrary to popular belief, women have great results on the leadership scale, which measures their focus on production (women have a great interest in achieving their goals; they have high expectations both from themselves and their colleagues). Men tend to get

good results on scales that evaluate the focus on strategic planning and the overall company vision.

2.1.6.2 Women traits transformational

Some authors showed that increasing the number of female leaders has been accompanied by changes of theory and practice in leadership. They also specify that the most modern characterization of an efficient leadership found in the literature and in mass media is heavily based on the characteristics considered to be feminine. At the same time, they state that if the leadership roles belong to more women and/or are perceived feminine attributes, we will continue to see a serious cultural change. It is a real success that many analyses emphasize the fact that employees position female leaders better than male leaders in more traits of the transformational leadership (charisma, ability to motivate the employees, and creativity in problem solving). Moreover, these characteristics of leadership are considered a real support for the efficacy of leadership.

2.1.7 In search of 'The Best' leadership

In the last year, our research has continued with studying the general gender differences presented by Human Synergistic International in Life Styles Inventory (LSI). First of all, we took into account all the 12 styles, grouped into the three clusters:

- Constructive styles—Achievement, Self-Actualizing, Humanistic-Encouraging and Affiliative
- Passive/Defensive styles—Approval, Conventional, Dependent and Avoidance
- Aggressive/Defensive styles—Oppositional, Power, Competitive, and Perfectionistic

Since constructive styles are the ones that are needed for a real leadership potential, we will try to give some recommendations in order to improve in each of us the styles grouped in this cluster and to diminish the influences of the other styles.

According to our research, women and men have split the 12 styles quite equally. Thus, in terms of constructive styles, women tend to be better at Humanistic-Encouraging and Affiliative, whereas men scored better at Achievement and Self-Actualizing. When being defensive, there are more women with passive styles (Approval, Conventional, Dependent, and Avoidance) and there are more men with aggressive styles (Oppositional, Power, Competitive, and Perfectionistic). Of course, our research is contextual (Romania in 2015), but we believe at least partly, the results could be generalized, as they seem to be in line with the ideas mentioned in the previous sub-chapter.

2.1.7.1 Achievement style

This is clearly an effective thinking style, which increases the leadership potential through a feeling of direction and the capability to establish and attain realistic objectives, better planning, more respect, and self-accomplishment. There are also more promotion opportunities, higher wages, and less stress.

In order to increase the Achievement style, people could work on the following list:

- Focusing more on themselves, by taking into account their real needs
- Taking risks (not very high, though)
- Establishing and working on attaining objectives
- Accepting others' help, when this is the case.

According to our research, it is slightly more often attributed to men (but the difference is not really significant).

2.1.7.2 Self-actualizing style

This is the style showing the highest level of personal development and generally manifests through an excellent self-acceptance and acceptance of others as they are. In this case, people are very preoccupied with self-development and release of any negative feeling. They have more energy, believe in their instincts, and are open to new experiences. Self-actualizing leaders can see new opportunities in every situation and are more flexible.

In order to be more self-actualizing-oriented, people should focus on:

- Living in present and thinking less about past and/or future
- Reducing the temptation to judge others and trying to always accept them as they are
- Choosing to do pleasant things whenever it is possible and reorganizing the unpleasant ones in order to become better activities
- Looking at the problems from multiple facets, in order to see the opportunities
- Allowing their feelings and thoughts to guide them more in their lives.

While women generally seemed to work more in order to obtain the benefits of a self-actualizing style, our research showed that this style was clearly more attributed to men.

2.1.7.3 Humanistic-Encouraging style

This style also refers to a positive unconditioned acceptance of others, but in another way. People having this thinking style are very sensitive to the others' needs, value close relationships, and put most of their energy into the others'

development. They appreciate sincerely people's strengths and believe in them. They are optimistic and good at inspiring and motivating the others, which makes them great leaders. They are patient and productive.

In order to improve their Humanistic-Encouraging style, people should work on the following:

- Developing their empathy and learning to listen more
- Asking for ideas and feedback from the others
- Being more involved and spending more time with other people
- Focusing on a few persons, encouraging them, and observing the role of this encouragement into their lives
- Looking for opportunities to help and train others
- Showing genuine appreciation for what the others do to you and maybe learning to say 'Thank you' more often
- Being open about their feelings and thoughts, in order to encourage the others to be open as well.

According to our research, women score generally better for this style compared to men.

2.1.7.4 Affiliative style

The last, but not the least constructive style is the affiliative one. It refers to a real need for social interaction and interpersonal contact. People having this thinking style value strong relationships more than anything else, work on developing interpersonal skills, and motivate others with a friendly attitude. They are liked because they focus on teamwork and building trust. By having a collaborative style, they are more productive.

In order to increase their affiliative thinking style, people could do more of the following:

- Looking for opportunities to interact with others and even forcing themselves to initiate talks with persons they do not know very well
- Attending courses and events in order to meet new people
- Focusing on being very close with somebody, in order to build a trustful relationship and to communicate effectively.

As expected, the results of our research showed that women are generally more affiliative compared to men.

2.1.7.5 Approval style

This refers to a defensive approach, based on the need to be accepted by others. While it is absolutely normal to want to be approved, the tendency to understand this as a need inevitably leads to a series of problems related to low self-esteem, too much attention to the others' opinions, and difficulties in conflictual situations and in negotiations. Affiliative managers are not good leaders because they tend to be undecided, to postpone discussions, to avoid conflicts, and not to act immediately.

In order to reduce the need for approval, people should focus on:

- Being more self-oriented and expressing their own opinions
- Practicing direct approach of confrontations
- Reflecting on the need for approval and on its causes
- Recognizing their strengths and the fact that they are valuable persons for what they are and not because the others like them or approve them.

The results of our research showed that women tend to feel the need for approval stronger than men and they should work more on diminishing it.

2.1.7.6 Conventional style

Another defensive and potential dangerous approach is the one of acting only according to norms. It is potentially dangerous because this way people risk losing their uniqueness and individuality. Conventional managers are not good leaders, because they prefer the standard rules and procedures and generally work in a very predictable environment that hinders innovation. The Rules are more important than ideas.

In order to become less conventional, people should work on the following:

- Understanding that being conventional generally means fewer opportunities for development
- Focusing on their unique skills and strengths
- Taking moderate risks, when it is the case
- Trying new ways of doing things, avoiding routine.

According to our research, women tend to be a little more conventional than men.

2.1.7.7 Dependent style

Dependent managers cannot lead because they rather tend to follow and to depend on the direction of the others. It is quite rare for them to disagree with them or to take a moderate risk, as they are very sensitive to the others' feelings and reactions and it is very hard to say 'no'.

In order to become more independent, people should do the following:

- Learning something new in order to become more achievement-oriented
- Establishing small objectives, as a series of small steps can mean very much

- Focusing on making decisions independently
- Trying to take initiatives and move toward the behavior of a leader.

The results of our research showed that women tend to be more dependent than men and thus they should work more on the above suggestions.

2.1.7.8. Avoidance style

People having the avoidance thinking style need protection and keep distance from any potential danger. They are afraid of failure and tend not to take responsibility for their own behavior. It is hard for them to express their feelings and, in many cases, they focus on their weaknesses rather than on their strengths.

In order to become less avoidance-oriented, people should work on the following:

- Identifying the causes of the avoidance behavior
- Focusing not only on their feelings but also on the relationships with the others
- Developing self-trust
- Trying to tell the others what they feel and having this, at least for a period, as an objective by itself.

In our research, we found that women tend to have higher avoidance scores than men.

2.1.7.9 Oppositional style

This is an aggressive thinking style that shows a tendency to be in disagreement with the others. People having high scores for this style often appear to be distant and seem to look for the others' mistakes. They have a negative attitude and their humor is sarcastic. This approach is a result of their

belief that their ideas are better than the others' ideas. While the oppositional style is not a constructive one, the score should not be very low either, because in that case the others would perceive them as naïve and maybe too flexible persons.

In order to decrease their oppositional style, people should focus on:

- Understanding that people would admire them more if not being so oppositional
- Not rejecting ideas only because they are not theirs
- Praising the others more often and avoiding the temptation to criticize.

As expected, the results of our research have shown an increased oppositional style in men when compared to women.

2.1.7.10 Power style

The power thinking style measures our tendency to associate our self-recognition with the degree in which we can dominate and control the others. People having this style are motivated by the need for prestige, status, and influence.

In order to decrease their preference toward power, people should focus on the following:

- Trying a more friendly approach and looking at the others' reactions
- Trusting the others and delegating more
- Learning to be a mentor for the others
- Being aware that the need for power actually means a fear
- Obtaining feedback about their behavior from neutral sources.

According to our research, as expected, men manifest the need for power considerably more than women do.

2.1.7.11 Competitive style

This style reflects the need for always comparing with others and obtaining self-recognition through competition. While this is traditionally associated with the idea of success, it was proven that people should rather focus on performance, excellence, on the process by itself, and not on the result of winning in order to really become successful. Actually, people scoring high at competitive style are very aggressive and have a big fear of failure. Competitive managers are preoccupied with the way they are perceived by the others and focus more on being the winners than on performance.

In order to lead more successfully, people should decrease their competitive orientation, and they could do this by working on:

- Focusing on results, on self-achievement, and not on comparisons with others
- Striving to always improve and obtain excellent results
- Cooperating more with others for various projects
- Accepting the fact that no one can be the best at everything.

The results of our research have revealed higher competitive scores for men than for women.

2.1.7.12 Perfectionistic style

As the name of this thinking style suggests, it refers to the degree in which we feel the need to be perceived as ‘perfect’. Of course, the need for being perfect comes at quite a high price: it is hard to be relaxed, people seem not to be very close, everything is stressful, and priorities are not really clear. This style

generally comes with a low level of self-esteem and an excessive preoccupation for avoiding mistakes. Expectations from self and others are huge, and it is very difficult to cope with emotions and to express them. Perfectionistic managers tend to look too much into details and thus do not see very well the whole. While being perfectionist seems not to be a good thing, too low scores for this style also reveal some issues related to working under the potential and lacking motivation and determination.

In order to become less perfections, people should focus on:

- Understanding that the desire to be perfect is actually harmful and time-consuming and becoming aware of the fact that their work is not the same with their value
- Improving relationships
- Lowering expectations in order to obtain more satisfaction.

2.1.8 Theory of Leadership

- The Path-Goal Theory of Leadership identifies four leadership styles: directive, supportive, participative, and achievement-oriented (Usman, 2016). The theory corresponds with the Lewin divisions, where directive is similar to autocratic, while supportive and participative resemble to democratic leadership style.

2.2 Empirical frame work

2.2.1 Empirical accounts of vision

Visual perception is initiated when objects in the world reflect light rays towards the eye. Most empirical theories of visual perception begin with the observation that stimulation of the retina is fundamentally ambiguous. In empirical accounts, the most commonly proposed mechanism for circumventing this ambiguity is "unconscious inference," a term that dates back to Helmholtz.

According to Hatfield, Alhazen was the first to propose that higher-level cognitive processes "judgments" could supplement sense perception to lead to veridical perception of distance, suggesting that these "judgments" are formally equivalent to syllogisms. Descartes extended and refined this account. Berkeley departed from this tradition, putting forth the new idea that sensory systems, rather than performing logical operations on stimuli to reach veridical conclusions i.e. these light rays come with certain orientations relative to each other, therefore their source is at a certain distance, make associations, so that for instance if certain co-occurring sensory attributes are usually present when an object is at a given distance an observer would see an object with those attributes as being at that distance. For Helmholtz Berkeleyan associations form the premises for inductive "judgements," in Alhazens sense of the term. Helmholtz was one of the first thinkers on the subject to augment his reasoning with detailed knowledge of the anatomy of sensory mechanisms.

In current work Helmholtzs use of the term is construed as referring to some mechanism that augments sense impressions with acquired knowledge or through application of heuristics. In general, contemporary empirical theories of perception seek to describe and/or explain the physiological underpinnings of this "unconscious inference," particularly in terms of how sensory systems acquire information about general statistical features of their environments see natural scene statistics and apply this information to sensory data in order to shape perception. A recurring theme in these theories is that stimulus ambiguity is rectified by a priori knowledge about the natural world.

Empirical theory of perception

2.2.2.Action-specific perception

An empirical theory of perception is a kind of explanation for how percepts arise. These theories hold that sensory systems incorporate information about the statistical properties of the natural world into their design and relate incoming stimuli to this information, rather than analyzing sensor stimulation.

2.2.2.1. Empirical accounts of vision

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acquire information about general statistical features of their environments see natural scene statistics and apply this information to sensory data in order to shape perception. A recurring theme in these theories is that stimulus ambiguity is rectified by a priori knowledge about the natural world.

2.2.2.2 Wholly empirical approach to visual perception

The wholly empirical approach to perception, developed by Dale Purves and his colleagues, holds that percepts are determined solely by evolutionary and individual experience with sensory impressions and the objects from which they derive. The success or failure of behavior in response to these sensory impressions tends to increase the prevalence of neural structures that support some ways of interpreting sensory input while decreasing the prevalence of neural structures that support other ways of interpreting sensory input.

On the wholly empirical account, this strategy determines qualities of perception in all visual domains and sensory modalities. Accumulating evidence suggests that the perception of color, contrast, distance, size, length, line orientation and angles, and motion, as well as pitch and consonance in music, may be determined by empirically derived associations between the sensory patterns humans have always experienced and the relative success of behavior in response to those patterns.

Much to the advantage of the observer, percepts co-vary with the efficacy of past actions in response to visual stimuli, and thus only coincidentally with the measured properties of the stimulus or the underlying objects.

2.2.2.3 Wholly empirical approach to visual perception

The wholly empirical theory of perception departs from many other empirical theories by recognizing the seriousness of the optical inverse problem. To illustrate this problem, imagine that three hoses are used to fill a bucket with water. If how much water each hose has contributed is known, it is straightforward to calculate how much water is in the bucket. These kinds of problems are known as "forward" problems, and scientists like them because they are easy to solve. But if instead, all that is known is the amount of water in the bucket, it is impossible to figure out, on this basis alone, how much water came from each hose: it is impossible to work "backwards" from the bucket to the hoses. This is a simple example of an inverse problem. Solutions to these problems are rarely possible, although they can sometimes be approximated by imposing assumption-based constraints on the "solution space".

Navigating the world on the basis of sensory stimulation alone represents an inverse problem in the realm of biology. Consider, for example, the case of the distance and line length. When light reflected from a linear object falls on the retina, the object in 3-D space is transformed into a two-dimensional line. Note, however, that a distant line can form the same image on the retina as a shorter but close line. All the eyes receive is an image, which is analogous to the bucket of water. It is impossible to go backward to know the real distance, length, and orientation of the source of the projected line, analogous to the amounts of water that came from each hose. Despite this fact, percipients usually manage to behave effectively in response to sensory stimulation.

The inverse optics problem presents a quandary for traditional approaches to perception. For example, advocates of feature detection or, in more current terms, neural filtering, propose that the visual system performs logical

computations on retinal inputs to determine higher-level aspects of a perceptual scene such as contrast, contour, shape and color percepts. However, given the inverse problem, it is hard to imagine how these computations, if they were actually performed, would be useful, since they would have little or nothing to do with properties of the real world. Empirical approaches to perception take a different tack, arguing that the only way for organisms to successfully overcome the inverse problem is to exploit their long and varied past experience with the real world.

The wholly empirical approach holds that this experience is the sole determinant of perceptual qualities. The reason percipients see an object as dark or light, the argument goes, is that in both our own past and the past of the species it paid off to see it that particular way. Returning to the bucket analogy, imagine that each of the three hoses pumps out water of a different color: one pumps out black water, one pumps out gray water, and one pumps out clear water. All one sees is the water in the bucket, which can be clear, gray, black, or any shade in between. As expected, it is impossible to perform some calculation on the color of the water in the bucket to find out how much water came out of each hose. Now imagine that it is your job to bet on how much water came out of the gray hose. The output ratios of the hoses are not random, but co-vary in all kinds of complicated ways based on the time of day, how long it takes to fill up the bucket, etc. At first your behavior in response to the color of the bucket might not be so good, but over time this would gradually improve as different shades and behaviors in response became associated by trial and error. The key is that in order to improve you have to know whether or not your behaviors worked by interacting with the world.

On the wholly empirical view, the retinal image is like the bucket and what you see is determined by past behaviors that have succeeded. Although this

example is simplistic, it illustrates the general strategy that visual system uses to work around the inverse problem. Over millions of years individuals whose visual systems more successfully linked sensory stimulation with successful behavior won out. In this view the inverse problem is not actually solved - which would be analogous to computing the outputs of all three hoses - the result might be close enough to behave appropriately in response to stimuli.

2.2.2.4 Wholly empirical approach to visual perception Color

Color vision is dependent on activation of three cone cell types in the human retina, each of which is primarily responsive to a different spectrum of light frequencies. While these retinal mechanisms enable subsequent color processing, their properties alone cannot account for the full range of color perception phenomena. In part this is due to the fact that illuminance the amount of light shining on an object, reflectance the amount of light an object is predisposed to reflect, and transmittance the extent to which the light medium distorts the light as it travels are conflated in the retinal image. This is problematic because, if color vision is to be useful, it must somehow guide behavior in line with these properties. Even so, the visual system only has access to retinal input, which does not distinguish the relative contributions of each of these factors to the final light spectra that stimulate the retina.

According to the empirical framework, the visual system solves this problem by drawing on species and individual experience with retinal images that have signified different combinations of illuminance, reflectance, and transmittance in the past. Only those associations that led to appropriate behavior were retained through evolution and development, leading to a repertoire of neural associations and predispositions that ground color perception in the world.

One way to test this idea is to see whether the frequency of co-occurrence of light spectra predicts simultaneous color contrast effects. Long and Purves showed that by sampling thousands of natural images, analysis of associations between target colors and the colors of their surrounds could explain perceptual effects like those seen on the right. Rather than explaining the diverging color percepts as unfortunate byproducts of a normally veridical color perception mechanism, according to this work the different colors humans see are simply the byproducts of our species and individual exposure to the distribution of color spectra in the world.

2.2.2.5 Wholly empirical approach to visual perception Brightness

''Brightness'' refers to a subjective sense that the object considered is emitting light. Whereas the perceptual correlates of color are the frequencies of light that compose the light spectrum, the perceptual correlate of brightness is luminance, or the intensity of light emitted by an object. While it may seem obvious that the sensation of brightness is straightforwardly related to the amount or intensity of light coming to the eyes, perception researchers have long known that brightness is not caused solely by the luminance incident on the retina. A common example is simultaneous brightness contrast shown to the right, in which the two identical target diamonds appear differently bright.

In the empirical account, the same general framework used to rationalize simultaneous color contrast applies to simultaneous brightness contrast. Because the three factors that determine luminance emissions - transmittance, reflectance, and illuminance - are blended in the retinal image of the object, operations on the luminance returns as such cannot in principle yield percepts that are good guides to behavior. The visual system solves this problem by associating luminance values and their given contexts with the success or

failure of ensuing behavior, leading to percepts that often but only incidentally reflect properties of objects rather than their associated images.

The checker shadow illusion strongly supports this view of how brightness perception works. Although other frameworks have either no explanation for this effect or explanations that are highly inconsistent with their explanations for similar effects, the empirical framework makes the case that the perceived brightness differences are due to empirical associations between the targets and their respective contexts. In this case, because the "lighter" targets would typically have been shadowed, humans perceive them in a way that is consistent with their having a higher reflectance despite their presumably low levels of illuminance. Note that this approach is considerably different from computational "context"-driven approaches, since in this case the target/context relationships are contingent and world-based, and therefore cannot be generalized to other cases in any meaningful way

2.2.2 6 Wholly empirical approach to visual perception Line length

Perception of line length is confounded by another optical inverse problem: the further away a line in the world, the smaller the projected line will be on the retina. Different orientations of a line relative to the observer may obscure true line length as well. Straight lines are erroneously reported as longer or shorter as a function of their angular orientation, as demonstrated by the vertical–horizontal illusion. While no generally accepted explanations of this phenomenon have been offered previously, the empirical approach has had some success in explaining the effect as a function of the distribution of lines in natural scenes. Howe and Purves 2002 analyzed natural scene photographs to find projected lines that corresponded to straight line sources. They found that the ratios of the actual length of the lines to the projected lines on the retina, when classified by their respective orientations on the retina, almost

perfectly matched subjective estimation of line length as a function of angle relative to the observer. For example, horizontal lines on the retinal image would typically have turned out to issue from relatively short physical sources, while lines at about 60 degrees relative to the observer would typically have signified longer physical sources, which explains why individuals tend to see a line at 60 degrees as longer than a horizontal line. While there is no way for the visual system to know this a priori, the fact that it seems to take this knowledge for granted in its construction of length estimation percepts strongly supports the wholly empirical view of perception.

2.2.2.7 Wholly empirical approach to visual perception Motion

Perception of motion is also confounded by an inverse problem: movement in three-dimensional space does not map perfectly onto movement on the retinal plane. A distant object moving at a given speed will translate more slowly on the retina than a nearby object moving at the same speed, and as mentioned previously size, distance and orientation are also ambiguous given only the retinal image. As with other aspects of perception, empirical theorists propose that this problem is solved by trial-and-error experience with moving stimuli, their associated retinal images and the consequences of behavior. One way to test this hypothesis is by seeing whether it can explain the flash lag illusion, a visual effect in which a flash superimposed on a moving bar is falsely seen to lag behind the bar. The task for empirical theorists is to explain why individuals perceive the flash in this way, and further, why the perceived lag increases with the speed of the moving bar. To investigate this question, Wojtach et al. 2008 simulated a three-dimensional environment full of moving virtual particles. They modeled the transformation from three dimensions to the two-dimensional image plane and tallied up the frequency of occurrence of particle speeds, particle distances, image speeds, and image distances

image meaning the path projected across the computer-modeled" retina". The probability distributions they obtained in this way predicted the magnitude of the bar-flash disparity quite well. The authors concluded that the flash-lag effect was a signature of the way brains evolve and develop to behave appropriately in response to moving retinal images.

- Empirical evidence is the information received by means of the senses, particularly by observation and documentation of patterns and behavior through empirical research is research using empirical evidence. It is a way of gaining knowledge by means of direct and indirect observation or experience. Empiricism functions, such as the perception of motion, the perception of depth, and figure - ground perception. The wholly empirical theory of perception is a related and integration theory Empirical theories of perception Enactivism Interactive activation and competition Irving Biederman s recognition by components theory With rationalism and skepticism. Empiricism emphasizes the role of empirical evidence in the formation of ideas, rather than innate ideas or traditions. However an associated body of empirical studies that seek to explain societal conflict over risk. Whereas other theories of risk perception stress economic and social perception or person perception is the study of how people form impressions of and make inferences about other people as sovereign personalities question of direct or naïve realism, as opposed to indirect or representational realism, arises in the philosophy of perception and of mind out of the debate Perception and action, stating that perception and action are inseparable. Barker s work was based on his empirical work at the Midwest Field Station. Controlled variable perception The

theory came to be known as Perceptual Control Theory or PCT rather than Control Theory Applied to Psychology.

Depth perception is the visual ability to perceive the world in three dimensions 3D and the distance of an object. Depth sensation is the corresponding

- Middle - range theory developed by Robert K. Merton, is an approach to sociological theorizing aimed at integrating theory and empirical research. It is science. Such theories are described in such a way that scientific tests should be able to provide empirical support for, or empirically contradict falsify structural information theory SIT is a theory about human perception and in particular about visual perceptual organization, which is the neuro – cognitive phenomenon of human color perception as presented by Goethe - a subject analyzed at length by Wittgenstein in his comments on Goethe s theory in Remarks of internal perception Brentano has a theory of judgment which is different from what is currently the predominant Fregean view.
- Necessarily scientific theories although they may consist of both empirical and non - empirical statements. The collective statements of all philosophical movements actual as the domain of events and the empirical as the domain of experiences and perceptions Grounded theory has provided part of the basis for the limitations of prominent theories of visual perception at the time, visual indexing theory is supported by several lines of empirical evidence. FINST abbreviates along with a series of increasingly sophisticated models of color space

and color perception such as the opponent process theory across the same period.

- Essence of globalization lies in the forging of common and overlapping policy spaces. The development of lateral pressure theory and its empirical underpinnings.
- Subjective idealism, or empirical idealism, is the monistic metaphysical doctrine that only minds and mental contents exist. It entails and is generally.
- In psychology, the theory of planned behavior abbreviated TPB is a theory that links one beliefs and behavior. The theory states that intention toward.

2.3 Team work

The results suggest that while male peers rate female managers' job performance significantly lower than that of male managers, female peers do not discriminate between genders in their performance evaluations. Also, managers' bosses are found not to discriminate between genders of their subordinates.

Organizations throughout the world are deeply focused in developing such leadership which plays an important role in building high performing teams. There are only few people who have skills of creating an effective team. The following two approaches of leadership are considered as most desired in building a team to get desired output, Participative leadership and Transformational leadership. Participative leadership style promotes creativity as well as productivity within a team environment. Transformational Leadership, which is designed to make drastic changes to a management team. Whatever the rank is, team building skills are necessary at every stage of organization. A person can achieve more by working in team as compared to the achievements acquired by working individually. Creative and Productive environments are generated in such organizations who promote team work. In

order to enhance team building skills, leader should state clear goals, representing the objectives of the organization. While giving directions and procedures to the team, no ambiguity should be there. Leader should adopt such approach which injects commitment in the team to work in the best way they can. It depends on leader how effectively he assembles the team so that they work effectively for the accomplishment of their goals.

Such projects in which work has to be performed in groups, many challenges are faced by the leaders in creating coordination among employees so that they work together not only on projects but on non-working events as well. Managing team collaboration, workforce diversity, training, ethical environment, autocratic leadership style by engaging in motivational activities and providing clear directions to the team are current organizational issues. People of an organization, who are working in teams on a particular project face problem if they are not strongly collaborated with each other. Workforce diversity creates problem for a leader in the creation of flexible working environment. If a leader chooses an autocratic approach, it would put a pressure on team and decrease their efficiency. Innovative environment cannot exist in such organization and because of having unclear vision and mission, employees cannot produce good output. Problem arises due to the fact that leaders fail to cultivate strong ethical environment thus decreasing motivation, resulting in decrease in the turnover of the organization. Leaders are facing many challenges in Pakistan due to the complications in an organizational structure.

2.4 Culture of leadership

According to Covin (2007), the organizations formed as a result of merge, have to face difficulty in the form of dissatisfaction of employees. The manager should play a role in increasing their satisfaction level by giving them free hand to participate in decision makings and also by clearly stating

the rules of the organization. According to Haakonsson (2008), if the leadership style is not according to the organizational culture then it affects the performance of the employees. It has been found that whether the leader should adopt such style which suits best in the organization or he should change himself according to the environment of the organization. By testing Situation Leadership Theory (SLT), it has been found by Chen (2005) that this theory supports the concept that the leader's impact on its sub-ordinates increases with high goals of the leader. Kurland (2010) describes the impact of a principle's leadership style in enhancing the learning environment of a school. Harris (2006) has conducted research to provide link between top management behavior and market orientation. The management behavior is important to find out the possible hurdles for the market orientation developments including lack of inter functional integration, weak management skills and lack of executives' knowledge.

According to Yeo (2006), leader plays an important role in the work place. Leaders provide such environment to the employees, where they can learn and share knowledge easily. Barner (2006) concludes that team-building failures occur when facilitators operate from team patterns that are out of fashion. According to Holtzman (2011), it has been found that the organizational output will increase through diversity of labor, quality, efficiency and innovation as well. According to Oertig (2006), challenges of leadership include managing virtual aspects of communication and developing trust. Secondly, manage the work of employees.

2.5 Organization confidence

The organizational members must be kept in confidence and their constant feedback should be taken. Hence public sector reforms lead towards organizational change and a required leadership style is considered for bringing upon change. According to Viitanen and Konu (2009), it has been concluded that the middle level managers in social and health care sectors

have different leadership styles according to their particular work history, work domain, gender and number of sub-ordinates they are dealing with. Leadership styles promoted dealings of an organization with organizations of same business domain. However, the organization should limit its activities outside its domain. According to Tabassi and Abu Bakar (2010), the leader is known by his skill of dealing with his sub-ordinates and for his ability of training his juniors for future leadership. A true leader is an inspiration that motivates workers to work for collective benefits. Leaders empower others at various levels. The teams who are required to work beyond the organizational boundaries should collaborate with each other instead of competing. It is necessary that teams should have the potential to do the assigned task. (McGreevy, 2006) According to the author Susan K. Gerke (2006), both the remote leadership and the co-located leadership require the same good management and leadership skills. But in remote leadership, the leaders are required to focus more on building interpersonal relationship. Most of the time the attempts for the team- building are failed due to the underestimation of complexity of certain team building issues. Writer also suggests six guidelines for readers to manage the complexities occurred in team interventions. (Barner, Corp, Plano & Texas, 2006).

2.6 Practical implications

The authors discuss various theoretical explanations of this pattern of results, as well as its possible influence on female managers' careers. Although the effect size of the negative bias that male peers exhibit toward female managers is relatively small, it may be argued that lower performance assessments can accumulate over years in multiple job evaluations, negatively affecting the career of female leaders.

2.7 Originality/value

The evaluations supplied by different organizational members gain importance with the increased use of give feedback instruments just for the

perceive difference between male and female leader purposely. While the job evaluations of managers' bosses have been investigated in the past with regard to the possible gender bias, this study provides the first known to the authors', evidence. Also, this study points to a direct bias in performance assessments, rather than a potentially more subtle, non-performance-based bias that affects the disparities in wages and promotions of female managers. Thus, this study helps to fill a significant gap in the literature on organizations and it may have practical implications for the advancement of female managers.

In addition to this contribution, this study also provides data that may be useful in resolving the ongoing debate whether female bosses act more as male.

2.8 CONCEPTUAL FRAME WORK

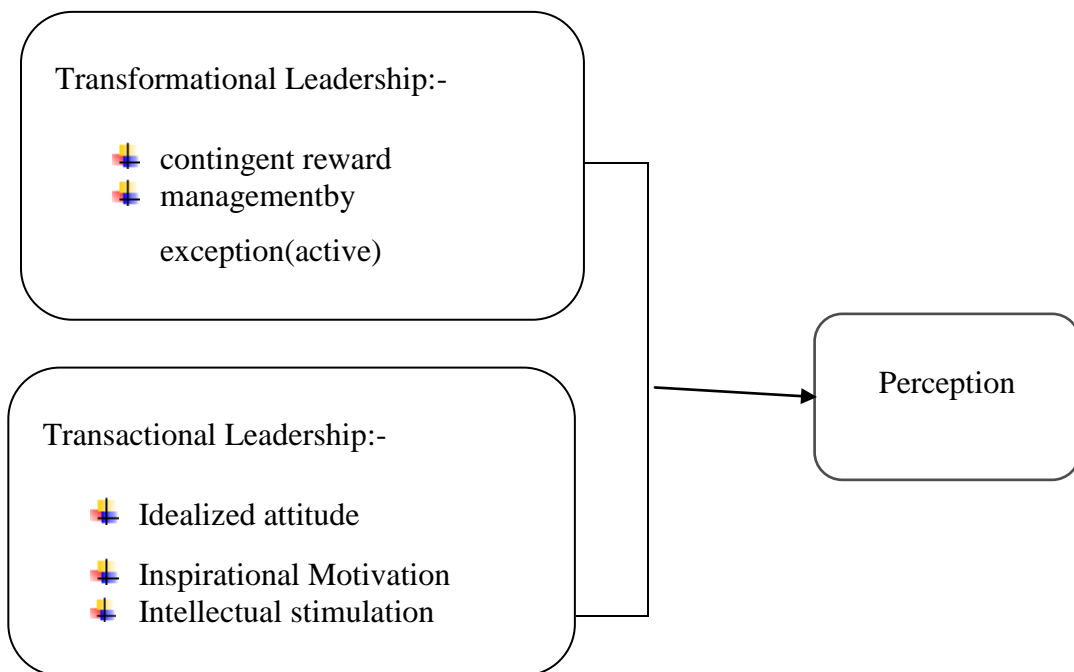


Figure 2.1: Conceptual frame work relation.

From the conceptual framework, the dependent variable perceive difference between male and female managers depends on the independent variables

transformational leadership (contingent reward, management by exception active and passive) and transactional (idealized behavior or attitude), idealized influence (behavior), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individual considerations should be influence on their attitude of achievement to perceive to make their decision. The managerial process well formulate and the difference between male and female managers is perceive well

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research design

They study began with literature review, other organization documents analysis, interview and questionnaire. Both primary data and secondary data sources would use. Primary data would obtain through interviews and questionnaire.

3.2 Research approach

This research used descriptive research that is a type of research that uses quantitative methods to describe the existing condition. It focuses on quantification that demands the use of numerals and statistical tools. It is designed to ensure objectivity, generality and reliability. These techniques cover the ways research participants are selected purposely from the study population in an unbiased manner.

Descriptive research that used qualitative methods to describe the existing condition. It emphasizes on describing, understanding and explaining complex phenomena (observation and interview).

3.3 Target population of the study

Population of this research included one zone public office managers and few subordinates. It was selected in one of Gambella region out of three zones, one zone public office and 40 managers. Those perceived difference includes perception of males and females. The participants were selected based on convenience including the availability of volunteer to distribute the questionnaire. Observational also conducted with human resource management process owners of the respective public office to gain the understanding of their perception. The total population of the study was 40.

3.3.1 Data collection instrument

The experience of people are fit in to standardized response to which numerical value are attached. These data are open ended and hardly provide depth and detail information MLQ (Multi factorial leadership questionnaires). Therefore, the data gathered by questionnaire. Observation included but it is not necessary face to face contact of the observation more than five randomly selected leader that randomly selected managers. The data collected by preparing Likert's five scale measurement and open ended questions.

3.4 Method of data analysis

The study used questionnaires and interviews to collect qualitative and quantitative data. The Questionnaires are distributed to the employees of government administration managers were included. The Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 21 is used to analyze the data obtained from primary sources. Specifically, descriptive statistics and inferential statistics (Chi-square) are taken from this tool. The processes of classification or arranging large volume of raw data into classes or groups on the basis of common characteristics were applied. Data having the common characteristics was placed together and in this way the entered data were divided into a number of groups. Finally, tabulation were used to summarize the raw data and displayed in the form of tabulation for further analysis. This is the further transformation of the processed data to look for patterns and relationship between and/or among data groups by using descriptive (statistical) analysis.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents characteristics of the studied population and respondents, analysis.

Interpretation of the data collected from the management and subordinate.

The Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 21 was used to analyze the data obtained. Specifically, descriptive statistics (mean, tabulation) other statistics (correlation) were taken from this tool.

Table 4.1 Biographical information

Academic level	sex		total
	male	female	
Diploma	7	8	23
Degree	12	11	15
Master	1	1	2
PhD	--	--	--
Total	20	20	40

Source: Survey, 2020

Data distributed to twenty organization namely: Administration, Tourism and culture, Civil service, Health, Fish and Animal, Sport, Water, High Court, Justice, Electric, Communication, Security, Woman and child affair, Transport, etc. The target sample was 40 that distributed for each office two managers or subordinate. Educational back ground of respondent is 7 male diploma and 8 female diploma. Degree level 12 male and 11 female totally 15. Master holder 1 male and 1 female totally 2. Most respondent was degree holder.

Table 4.2 Number of response by organization.

Organization	count	Percent
Counselling	2	2.5
Water and Energy	2	2.5
Agriculture	2	2.5
Justice	2	2.5
Electric	2	2.5
Tourism	2	2.5
Fish and Water	2	2.5
Security	2	2.5
Education	2	2.5
Communication	2	2.5
High Court	2	2.5
Health	2	2.5
Women and Child	2	2.5
Finance	2	2.5
Telecommunication	2	2.5
Prison	2	2.5

Civil Service	2	2.5
Transport	2	2.5
Trade and Industry	2	2.5
Political and Counselling	2	2.5

Source Survey, 2020:

Data distributed to twenty organization listed: as above name listed.

Table 4.3 pride in other for being associated with manager.

		male	female	Total
I instill Pride in other for being associated with me	not at all	2 (5%)	0 (0%)	2(5%)
	once inwhile	2(5%)	1(2.5%)	3(7.5%)
	sometimes	2(5%)	5(12.5%)	7(17.5%)
	fairly often	9(22.5%)	11(27.5%)	20(30%)
	frequently if not always	5(12.5%)	3(7.5%)	8(20%)
Total		20(50%)	20(50%)	40(100%)

Source: Survey, 2020

According to table 4.3:the frequency of the respond nates give intention on fairly often 22.5% male and 27.5 % female pride in other for being associated with me, the next implication on management achievements is frequently if not always 12.5 % male and7.5 % female, the third implication on perception was sometimes that out of members5 % male and 12.5 % female pride in other for being associated with me. 5 % male and 2.5 % female once in awhile pride in other for being associated with them.2.5 % male and 0% female not pride in other for being associated with meat all. This indicated that both male and female relatively pride each item the same used to pride in other.

Table 4.4 Go beyond self- interest of manager.

		male	female	Total

I go beyond self-interest for the good	not at all	12(30%)	14(35%)	26(65%)
	Once	2(5%)	2(5%)	4(10%)
	sometimes	4(10%)	3(7.5%)	7(17.5%)
	fairly often	2(5%)	1(2.5%)	3(7.5%)
Total		20(50%)	20(50%)	40(100%)

Source: survey, 2020

According to table 4.4; particularly in Majang zone administration offices reflect on going to beyond self- interest for the good of the group highly apply in closeness of partnership relation and with customer 30 % males and 35 % females go beyond self- interest for the good of the group; it indicate slightly high interest on other hand male self – interest; next performance to perform self - interest sometimes; 5 % male and7.5 % femalego beyond self- interest for the good of the group. The other self – interest achieve once in while 5 % males and5% femalerespectivelygo beyond self- interest for the good of the group. The rest 2.5 % males and 2.5 %female are doing fairly oftengo beyond self- interest for the good of the group. Both male and female thought as usual the same go beyond self- interest for the good of the group.

Table 4.5 building others respect ion of managers.

		male	female	Total
I act in ways that build others respect for me	not at all	8(20%)	7(17.5%)	15(37.5%)
	once in while	2(5%)	1(2.5%)	3(7.5%)
	sometimes	1(2.5%)	1(2.5%)	2(5%)
	fairly often	8(20%)	10(25%)	18(45%)
	Frequently not always	1(2.5%)	1(2.5%)	2(5%)
Total		20(50%)	20(50%)	40(100%)

Source: survey, 2020

Most officer are need to act respecting to him or her to pride themselves. Perception of this behavior are not available in office leading. If the leader

expect more respecting influence firm employment of inferiority. 20 %male and 17.5 % of females are most managers do not want to respect themselves at all. This is necessary in offices system of achieving objectives. 5 %males and 2.5 %female once in a while act in ways that build others respect for me.Sometimes2.5 %males and 2.5 % femaleact in ways that build others respect for them. Fairly often 20 % male and 25 % of female and not alwaysact in ways that build others respect for them.2.5 %males and2.5 % femalewere need to respect. Actually this kinds of interpersonal relation are desirable and requirement of leading is better. Generally fairly often leader possess to do male 20 %males and25 % of female out of members. It was conducted on respecting one manager him or herself other respect to him/her.Both male and females thought nearly the samefeeling so that the show the best leading characters of building other respect.

Table 4. 6. Power and confidence of the managers.

		MALE/FEMALE		Total
		male	female	
I display a sense of power and confidence	not at all	3(7.5%)	2(5%)	5(12.5%)
	once in while	0(0%)	3(7.5%)	3(7.5%)
	sometimes	7(17.5%)	5(12.5%)	12(30%)
	fairly often	4(10%)	8(20%)	12(30%)
	frequently if not always	6(15%)	2(5%)	8(20%)
Total		20(50%)	20(50%)	40(50%)

Source: survey, 2020

Regarding to table4.6: using sense of power and confidence between stuff; rather than huge and laugh like close friend. 7.5 %male and5 % female not display power of and confidence involve at all. 0 % male and7.5 %of female significantly engage in using power and confidence once in a while. Most of

subordinate and managers or 17.5 % male and 12.5 % female display interested to weapon using power and confidence some times. It may important role to perform fairly often 10 % male and 20 % of female them are used in relation between close relation of decision making or related affair. Frequently if not always 15 % of male and 5 % of female are exhibited to perceive power and confidence think. Comparatively applied their power and confidence similarly most manager used sometimes.

Table 4.7 Chi-square of idealized behavior.

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	6.867 ^a	4	.143
Likelihood Ratio	8.147	4	.086
Linear-by-Linear Association	.397	1	.529
N of Valid Cases	40		

a. 6 cells (60.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 1.50.

As shown as the relation: the variable p- value is greater than 0.005 then it does not related directly.

Table 4.8 Values and beliefs of managers.

		male	female	Total
I talk about their most important values and beliefs	not at all	1(2.5%)	0(0%)	1(2.5%)
	once in while	3(7.5%)	2(5%)	5(12.5%)
	sometimes	5(12.5%)	9(22.5%)	14(35%)
	fairly often	8(20%)	8(20%)	16(40%)

	frequently if not always	3(7.5%)	1(2.5%)	4(10%)
Total		20(50%)	20(50%)	40(100%)

Source: survey, 2020

According to table 4.7. Only 2.5 % of male prefer to manage not talk about their most important value and beliefs at all. Once in while 7.5 % of male and 5% of female talk about most important value. 12.5 % of male and 22.5 % of female crucial time talk about important values and beliefs sometimes. 20 % of male and 20 % female high percent indicated all time thought fairly often talk about important value and belief. Frequently if not always 7.5 % male and 2.5 % of female talk about their most important value and issue. Therefore most managers sometimes talked the available value and times, then these indicated that the same outlook for value and beliefs.

Table 4.9 Sense of manager's mission.

		male	female	Total
emphasize the importance of having a collective sense of mission	once in while	0(0%)	1(2.5%)	1(2.5%)
	sometimes	4(10%)	1(2.5%)	5(12.5%)
	fairly often	10(25%)	14(35%)	24(60%)
	frequently if not always	6(15%)	4(10%)	10(25%)
Total		20(50%)	20(50%)	40(100%)

Source: survey, 2020

Emphasizing the importance of having collective sense of mission: 0 % male and 2.5 % female once in a while. 10 % of male and female 2.5 % of female sometime had sense of mission. 25 % of male and 35 % of female fairly often have sense of mission and frequently if not always male 15 % of male and 10 % of female were emphasized collective sense of mission to perceive like each other near to. In general female highly perceive 5 % increased often and

frequently if not always. In general fairly often frequently female emphasize collective sense of mission than male. **Table 4.10 Power of the managers**

		male	female	Total
I specify the important of having strong sense of purpose	once in while	1(2.5%)	2(5%)	3(7.5%)
	sometimes	2(5%)	5(12.5%)	7(17.5%)
	fairly often	13(32.5%)	12(30%)	25(62.5%)
	frequently if not always	4(2.5%)	1(2.5%)	5(12.5%)
Total		20(50%)	20(50%)	40(100%)

Source: survey, 2020

As indicating to the above table 9: 2.5 % male and 5 % of female display once in a while using sense of power. 5 % male and 12.5 % of female sometimes specify important of having strong sense of purpose. 32.5 % of male and 30 % of female fairly often have strong sense of purpose. Frequently 10 % of male and 2.5 % of female perceive to give direction strong sense of power. Both male and females were took place the same think. This indicated that male use sense of power than nearly use female.

Table 4.11 moral and ethical consequence the managers.

		male	female	Total
I consider the moral and ethical consequence of decisions	not at all	1(2.5%)	1(2.5%)	2(5%)
	once in while	0(0%)	1(2.5%)	1(2.5%)
	sometimes	6(15%)	5(12.5%)	11(27.5%)
	fairly often	8(20%)	12(30%)	20(50%)
	frequently if not always	5(12.5%)	1(2.5%)	6(15%)
Total		20(50%)	20(50%)	40(100%)

Source: survey, 2020

According to the above table: Consider the moral and ethical consequence of decision. Think 2.5 % of male and 2.5 % of female not consider moral and

ethical consequence of decision at all.0 % male and 2.5 % female consider once in a while moral decision.15 % male and 12.5 % female consider some times moral issue.20 % of male and 30 % of female consider fairly often the moral and ethical consequence of decision.12.5 % male and 2.5 % female frequently if not always consider moral and ethical consequence of decision. Those managers perceive deliberately for decision both male and female no more different male and female managers. The result indicated that male show frequently consider than fairly often. Male show higher than female in considering moral and ethical issue slightly differ in often and frequent.

Table 4.12 Talk optimistically managers about future.

		male	female	total
I talk optimistically about the future	once inwhile	1(2.5%)	0(0%)	1(2.5%)
	sometimes	4(10%)	3(7.5%)	7(17.5%)
	fairly often	10(25%)	11(27.5%)	21(52.5%)
	frequently if not always	5(12.5%)	6(15%)	11(27.5%)
Total		20(50%)	20(50%)	40(50%)

Source: survey, 2020

Table 4. 11 indicated that: 2.5 % male and 0 % female talk about firms once in a while.10 % of male and 7.5 % of female talk sometimes optimistically about the firms.25 % of male and 27.5 % of female fairly often talk optimistically about firms.12.5 % of male and 15 % of female talk optimistically frequently if not always about the future. Female are best to talk about firms future greater in frequently achievements. Then it implies female were firm for their work or strong on future expectation.

Table 4.13 Talking optimistically managers about future

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)

Pearson Chi-Square	1.281 ^a	3	.734
Likelihood Ratio	1.668	3	.644
Linear-by-Linear Association	.712	1	.399
N of Valid Cases	40		

a. 4 cells (50.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .50.

Source: survey,2020

Pearson chi-square p-value is 1.281, 1.668, and .712. So that it is greater than 0.05. It show that favor significance so related to moral and ethical consequence of managers. Thenit wassupport hypothesis 4 that tell about transactional leadership.**Table 4.14 Talk enthusiastically needs of managers.**

	not at all	once in while	sometimes	fairly often	frequently if not always	
male	6(15%)	1(2.5%)	8(20%)	4(10%)	1(2.5%)	20(50%)
female	5(12.5%)	2(5%)	7(17.5%)	6(15%)	0(0%)	20(50%)
Total	11(27.5%)	3(7.5%)	15(37.5%)	10(25%)	1(2.5%)	40(50%)

Source: survey, 2020

As shown the above table,15 % of male and 12.5 % of female officers are not talk at all. Significantly it may available 2.5 % male and 5 % female once in a while were talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplishing.

The other supposing to effective beliefs to apply 10 % male and 15 % of female are fairly often talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished and the rest 2.5 % male and 0 % females are always talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished. Talking enthusiastic about what needs to be accomplishing male and female fairly often, those leader magnify doing enthusiastically.

Table 4.15 Chi-square test of motivation.

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.891 ^a	4	.756
Likelihood Ratio	2.287	4	.683
Linear-by-Linear Association	.017	1	.896
N of Valid Cases	40		

a. 4 cells (40.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .50.

As above table the expected p-value is less than 0.05, then the variable is strongly related to other.

Table 4.16 Confidence that goals achieved managers.

		male	female	Total
I express confidence that goals will be achieved	not at all	1(2.5%)	0(0%)	1(2.5%)
	once inwhile	0(0%)	1(2.5%)	1(2.5%)
	sometimes	2(5%)	7(17.5%)	9(22.5%)
	fairly often	11(27.5%)	10(25%)	21(52.5%)
	frequently if not always	6(15%)	2(5%)	8(20%)
Total		20(50%)	20(50%)	40(100%)

Source: survey, 2020

Managers express confidence that goals will be achieved: 2.5 % of male and 0 % of femalemanagersnot express confidence at all that goals will be achieved. 0 % of male and 2.5 % of femalemanagers express once in a while confidence that goals will be achieved. 5 % of male and 17.5 % of female sometimes

managers express confidence that goals will be achieved. 27.5 % male and 25% female express confidence that goals will be achieved. Both male and female have expressed confidence for goal achieving relatively.

Table 4.17re- examine critical assumption of managers.

		male	female	total
I re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are	not at all	1(2.5%)	0(0%)	1(2.5%)
	once in while	0(0%)	1(2.5%)	1(2.5%)
	sometimes	6(15%)	11(27.5%)	17(42.5%)
	fairly often	10(25%)	6(15%)	16(40%)
	frequently if not always	3(7.5%)	2(5%)	5(12.5%)
Total		20(50%)	20(50%)	40(100%)

Source: survey, 2020

As shown table 17: Re-examine critical assumption whether: 2.5 % of male and 0 % of female not re-examined at all critical assumption. 0 % of male and 2.5 % of female re-examined once in a while. 15 % of male and 27.5 % female re-examine sometimes critical assumption. 25 % of male and 15 % of female fairly often re-examine critical assumption. 7.5 % of male and 5 % of female frequently re-examined critical assumption. The condition of re-examining assumption to question critical examine most managers shown us follow the usually male assume critical than and female sometimes assumption.

Table 4.18Managers seek differing method of solving problems.

	sometimes	fairly often	frequently if not always	total
male	2(5%)	11(27.5%)	7(17.5%)	20(50%)
female	5(12.5%)	10(25%)	5(12.5%)	20(50%)
total	7(17.5%)	21(52.5%)	12(30%)	40(100%)

Source: Survey, 2020

Table 18 clarified: 5 % of male and 12.5 % female sometime seek different perspective. 27.5 % of male and 20 % of female seek fairly often different perspective. 17.5 % male and 12.5 % of female seek frequently different perspectives when solving problems. Managers understand different perspective while meet problems. Few degree of frequently than often. Male applied frequently by seeking ways to solve a problems than female method to solve problem.

Table 4.19 Managers look problems different angles.

	not at all	once in while	sometimes	fairly often	frequently if not always	total
male	0(0%)	1(2.5%)	8(20%)	8(20%)	3(7.5%)	20(50%)
female	1(2.5%)	0(0%)	7(17.5%)	11(27.5%)	1(2.5%)	20(50%)
Total	1(2.5%)	1(2.5%)	15(37.5%)	19(47.5%)	4(10%)	40(100%)

Source: survey, 2020.

This table 19 find out; 0 % of male and 2.5 % of female not look problems different angle at all. 2.5 % of male and 0 % of female look sometimes different angle for one problem. 20 % male and 27.5 % of female fairly often look a problem for different angles. 7.5 % of male and 7.5 % female look frequently if not always others problems from many different angles. It indicated that both males and females similarly look problem in different angles.

Table 4.20 suggest new ways to complete assignments.

	not at all	once in while	sometimes	fairly often	frequently if not always	total
male	1(2.5%)	0(0%)	5(12.5%)	10(25%)	4(10%)	20(50%)
female	1(2.5%)	2(5%)	9(22.5%)	6(15%)	2(5%)	20(50%)

Total	2(5%)	2(5%)	14(35%)	16(40%)	6(15%)	40(100%)
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Source: survey, 2020

According to table 4.20 indicated that managers suggestion new ways of completing assignment:2.5 % of male and 2.5 % of female not suggested new way of completing at all.0 % male and 2.5 % of female indicated once that suggesting new way of completing finishing assignment. 25 % of male and 15 % of female accomplished fairly often assignment properly. Male suggested frequently than and female suggest sometimes. So male assume more than female to suggest new way of achieving assignment.

Table 4.21 Chi-square of intellectual stimulation of the manager.

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.667 ^a	2	.435
Likelihood Ratio	1.711	2	.425
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.327	1	.249
N of Valid Cases	40		

a. 2 cells (33.3%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3.50.

Regarding to the above table, intellectual stimulation is less than 0.05 then it is strongly related to transactional leadership.

Table 4.22 spend time teaching and coaching.

	not at all	once in while	sometimes	fairly often	frequently if not always	Total
male	2(5%)	12.5%)	6(15%)	7(17.5%)	4(10%)	20(50%)
female	0(0%)	5(12.5%)	11(27.5%)	3(7.5%)	1(2.5%)	20(50%)

Total	2(5%)	6(15%)	17(42.5%)	10(25%)	5(12.5%)	40(100%)
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Source: survey, 2020

According to table 22: Managers spend teach and coach: 5 % of male and 2.5 % of female not spend time teach and coach at all. 2.5 % of male and 12.5 % of female once in a while spend time to teach and coach. 15 % of male and 17.5 % of female spend teaching and coaching. 17.5 % of male and 7.5 % of female fairly often spend time to teach and coach their members. 10 % of male and 2.5 % of female frequently but not always spend time to teach and coach their members. This indicated that females fairly often did not teach and spend time to teach and coach than males even though males teach fairly often high frequency. Some male leader did not recognized but expect to spend time teaching and coaching. In these offices males wasted unwanted time, in other side female spend time wisely.

Table 4.23 treat others as individuals rather than group.

	not at all	once in while	sometimes	fairly often	frequently if not always	Total
male	4(10%)	0(0%)	8(20%)	5(12.5%)	3(7.5%)	20(50%)
female	3(7.5%)	1(2.5%)	7(17.5%)	8(20%)	1(2.5%)	20(50%)
Total	7(17.5%)	1(2.5%)	15(37.5%)	13(32.5%)	4(10%)	40(100%)

Source: survey, 2020

Table 23 show that: 10 % of male and 7.5 % of female not treat others as individuals rather than just as a member of the group at all. 0 % male and 2.5 % of female treat once a while others as individuals rather than just as a member of the group. 20 % male and 17.5 % of female treat sometimes others as individuals rather than just as a member of the group. 12.5 % male and 20 % of female treat often others as individuals rather than just as a member of the group. 12.5 % male and 20 % of female treat frequently other as individuals

rather than just as member of the group. Female treat frequently than often treat male individually than in groups. These indicated that female manifested close relation with individual nearly just as a male member look as in group.

Table 4.24 consider an individual needs and abilities.

	not at all	once in while	sometimes	fairly often	frequently if not always	total
male	0(0%)	1(2.5%)	6(15%)	9(22.5%)	4(10%)	20
female	1(2.5%)	0(0%)	5(12.5%)	11(27.5%)	3(7.5%)	20
total	1(2.5%)	1(2.5%)	11(27.5%)	20(50%)	7(17.5%)	40

Source: survey, 2020

Considering an individual as having different needs, abilities and aspirations from other;0% of male and 2.5 %of female not consider at all as having different needs, abilities and aspiration from other. 2.5% of male and 0 % of femaleconsidering once in a while an individual as having different needs, abilities and aspirations from other.15 %maleand 12.5 % of female considering sometimes an individual as having different needs, abilities and aspirations from other. 22.5 %male and27.5%femalefairly often considering an individual as having different needs, abilities and aspirations from otherand 10 %male and7.5 %female frequently if not always respond.It magnify both male and female considering the same outlook but females consider highly than male. Therefore female is good for individual aspiration.

Table 4.25 Chi-square of intellectual stimulation.

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2.434 ^a	4	.657
Likelihood Ratio	3.207	4	.524

Linear-by-Linear Association	.034	1	.854
N of Valid Cases	40		

- a. 6 cells (60.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .50.
The table indicated that individual consideration is directly related to transactional leadership style.

Table 4.26 Help others to develop their strengths.

		not at all	once in while	sometime s	fairly often	frequentl y if not always	total
male		1(2.5%)	1(2.5%)	2(5%)	14(35%)	2(5%)	20(50%)
female		1(2.5%)	0(0%)	3(7.5%)	13(32.5%)	3(7.5%)	20(50%)
Total		2(5%)	1(2.5%)	5(12.5%)	27(67.5%)	5(12.5%)	40(100%)

Source: survey, 2020

Regarding to table 26 show that: 2.5 % male and 2.5 % female not help others to develop their strengths at all. 2.5 % male and 0 % female help once in a while others to develop their strengths. 5 % male and 7.5 % female help sometimes others to develop their strengths. 35 % male and 32.5% female help fairly often others to develop their strengths. 5 % male and 7.5 % female have been achieving to help frequently if not always others developing their strengths. All male and female help other absolutely like the same help to develop strengths. This implies both were well to strengthen others.

Table 4.27 provide others with assistance.

		not at all	once in while	sometimes	fairly often	frequentl y if not always	Total
male		0(0%)	0(0%)	6(15%)	9(22.5%)	5(12.5%)	20(50%)
female		1(2.5%)	1(2.5%)	6(15%)	9(22.5%)	3(7.5%)	20(50%)
Total		1(2.5%)	1(2.5%)	12(30%)	18(45%)	8(20%)	40(100%)

Source: survey, 2020

Table 27 show that: providing others with assistance in exchange for their effort; 0 % of male and 2.5 % of female not provide at all others with assistance in exchange for their effort. 0 % of male and 2.5 % of female once in while provide others with assistance in exchange for their effort. 15 % of male and 15 % of female sometimes provide others with assistance in exchange for their effort. 22.5 % of male and 22.5 % of female fairly often provide others with assistance in exchange for their effort. 12.5 % of male and 7.5 % of female frequently if not always other assistance. Male provide more than female assistance in exchanging their effort.

Table 28 provide assistance in exchange for efforts.

		male	female	total
I provide others with assistance in exchange for their efforts	not at all	0(0%)	1(2.5%)	1(2.5%)
	once in while	0(0%)	1(2.5%)	1(2.5%)
	sometimes	6(15%)	6(15%)	12(30%)
	fairly often	9(22.5%)	9(22.5%)	18(45%)
	frequently if not always	5(12.5%)	3(7.5%)	8(20%)
Total		20(50%)	20(50%)	40(50%)

Source: survey, 2020

Providing others in meeting others assistance for job related; 0 % male and 2.5 % of female not at all providing others in meeting others assistance for job related. 0 % male and 2.5% female once in while providing others in meeting others assistance for job related. 15 % male and 15 % of female sometimes providing others in meeting others assistance for job related. 22.5 % male and 22.5 % female providing fairly often others in meeting others assistance for job related. 12.5 % male and 17.5 % female are effective in

providing frequently if not always male others job related needs. Provided meet assistance the same assistance male always than often female managers.

Table 4.29 discuss responsible for achieving performance.

		male	female	Total
I discuss in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets	not at all	1(2.5%)	4(10%)	5(12.5%)
	sometimes	7(17.5%)	7(17.5%)	14(35%)
	fairly often	8(20%)	6(15%)	14(35%)
	frequently if not always	4(25%)	3(7.5%)	7(17.5%)
Total		20(50%)	20(50%)	40(100%)

Source: survey, 2020

According to the above table; male 2.5 % and 10 % of female not discussing at all in specific terms responsibly. 17.5 % male and 17.5 % female sometimes discussing in specific terms responsibly. 20 % male and 15 % of female discussing fairly often in specific terms responsibly. 10 % male and 7.5 % female discussed frequently if not always particularly responsible things. Fairly often and frequently if not always discussed responsibly more male. When most female not perceive fairly often but male fairly often responsible to perform target.

Table 4.30 make clear performance goals are achieved.

	once in while	sometimes	fairly often	frequently if not always	total
male	0(0%)	8(20%)	9(22.5%)	3(7.5%)	20(50%)
female	4(10%)	2(5%)	13(32.5%)	1(2.5%)	20(50%)
Total	4(10%)	10(25%)	22(55%)	4(10%)	40(100%)

Source: survey, 2020

According to table 30: making clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals achieving; 0 % male and 20 % female making once in a

while clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals achieving. 20 % male and 5 % female sometimes making clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals achieving. 22.5 % male and 32.5 % female making fairly often clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals achieving. 7.5 % of male and 2.5 % of female making frequently if not always clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals achieving. This zone administrators accomplished females frequently and often performance goal achieving by 5 % more than often males made. Therefore female can expect to receive when performance goals achieving.

Table 4.31 express satisfaction when we meet.

	not at all	sometimes	fairly often	frequently if not always	total
male	1(2.5%)	3(7.5%)	11(27.5%)	5(12.5%)	20(50%)
female	1(2.5%)	8(20%)	7(17.5%)	4(10%)	20(50%)
Total	2(5%)	11(27.5%)	18(45%)	9(22.5%)	40(100%)

Source: survey, 2020 The table shows that express satisfaction 1 (2.5%) of male and 1 (2.5%) of female not meet at all. 3 (7.5%) male and 8 (20%) of female once a time express satisfy.

Table 4. 32 attention on irregularities from standards.

	not at all	once in while	sometimes	fairly often	frequently if not always	total
male	3(7.5%)	2(5%)	9(22.5%)	3(7.5%)	3(7.5%)	20(50%)
female	5(12.5%)	1(2.5%)	7(17.5%)	6(15%)	1(2.5%)	20(50%)
Total	8(20%)	3(7.5%)	16(40%)	9(22.5%)	4(10%)	40(100%)

Source: survey, 2020

Regarding to table 32 clarified: focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviation from standards some male leader 7.5 % of male and 12.5 % of female not attended. In other time once in occasion 5 % of male and

2.5 of female attended on irregularities. Sometimes many leaderor 20 % of male and 17.5 % attended on mistake of jobs. In fairly often 7.5 % of male and 15 % of female attended on irregularities.Frequently if not always few leaderor 7.3 % of male and 2.5 % of female focused attention. Generally males are high in 5 percent for attending irregularities then female are reflected best behavior.

Table 4.30keep track of all mistakes

		male	female	total
I keep track of all mistakes	not at all	3(7.5%)	1(2.5%)	4(10%)
	once inwhile	2(5%)	3(7.5%)	5(12.5%)
	sometimes	4(10%)	9(22.5%)	13(32.5%)
	fairly often	7(17.5%)	7(17.5%)	14(35%)
	frequently if not always	4(10%)	0(0%)	4(10%)
Total		20(50%)	20(50%)	40(100%)

Source: survey, 2020

As shown as the above table 30; 7.5 % of male and 2.5 % of female not keeping track at all mistakes. 5 % male and 7.5 %femaleonce in whilekeeping track on all mistakes.20 % of male and 22.5 %femalekept sometimes track of all mistake.17.5 % maleand 17.5 % femalefairly often keeping track on all mistakesand frequently if not always male 10 % male and 0 % female kept track on all mistakesand while they kept.Therefore female could not absolutely keep track on mistakes frequently. It indicated that female tolerant for on mistake for about keeping track on mistake.

Table 4.31 Standards direct attention toward failures.

		male	female	Total
I direct my attention toward failures to meet standards	not at all	13(32.5%)	11(27.5%)	24(60%)
	once in while	0(0%)	2(5%)	2(5%)
	sometimes	3(7.5%)	4(10%)	7(17.5%)
	fairly often	4(10%)	3(7.5%)	7(17.5%)

Total	20(50%)	20(50%)	40(100%)
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Source: survey, 2020

Directing attention toward failures to meet; 32 % of male and 27.5 % of females aren't attended toward failure. On work time 0 % of male and 5 % of female once in while attended failure. Sometimes 7.5 % of male and 10 % of female are directly attended toward failure. Fairly often 10 % male and 7.5 % of female direct attention towards failures to meet. The result clearly shows in nearly the same in perception.

Table 4.32 wait for things to go wrong before taking action.

		male	female	total
I wait for things to go wrong before taking action	not at all	13(32.5%)	12(30%)	25(62.5%)
	once in while	2(5%)	2(5%)	4(10%)
	sometimes	5(12.5%)	5(12.5%)	10(25%)
	fairly often	0(0%)	1(2.5%)	1(2.5%)
Total		20(50%)	20(50%)	40(100%)

Source: survey, 2020

Table 32 distinguished: Waiting for things to go wrong before taking action; 32.5 % of male and 27.5 % had not waited things go wrong before taking action at all. 5 % of male and 5 % female once in a while wait things to go wrong before taking action waited. 12.5 % of male and 12.5 % female sometimes wait things to go wrong before taking action. Fairly often 0 % of male and 2.5 % of female are waited things to go wrong before taking action. More necessary when they did both male and female boss are look it in similar in waiting things to go wrong before taking action.

Table 4.33 show aren't broke, don't fix it

		male	female	total
I show a firm believer	not at all	17(35%)	17(35%)	34(85%)

in 'if it aren't broke, don 't fix it	once inwhile	1(2.5%)	0(0%)	1(2.5%)
	sometime s	2(5%)	3(7.5%)	5(12.5%)
Total		20(50%)	20(50%)	40(100%)

Source: survey, 2020

Table 33 indicated that;42.5 % male and 42.5 % femalemanager believe they are not broke and do not fix clarified at all. once in while2.5 % of maleand 0 % of female manager believe once in while they are not broke and do not fix and sometimes 4 % of male and7.5 % female are showing the believer are not broke and do not fix. Thenthey nearly the same in perception on not broke and do not fix.

Table 4.34 manager problem chronic before take action.

		male	female	total
I demonstrate that problems must become chronic before take action	not at all	11(27.5%)	11(27.5%)	22(55%)
	once in while	6(15%)	3(7.5%)	9(22.5%)
	sometimes	3(7.5%)	2(5%)	5(12.5%)
	fairly often	0(0%)	4(10%)	4(10%)
Total		20(50%)	20(50%)	40(100%)

Source: survey, 2020

The above table show that; 27.5 % of them are male and 27.5 % of female are not demonstrated before problem become chronic. 15 % of maleand7.5 % of female once in while demonstrated. 7.5 % of male and 5 % of femalesometimes demonstrated and fairly often.0 %of male and10 % female are demonstrating before problems become chronic take action. Therefore each other do immediately improved the problems than waited. Especially female often demonstrated higher than male to demonstrate problem must become chronic take action.

Table 4.35 manger involved when important issues a rise.

		male	female	total
I avoid getting involved when important issues a rise	not at all	17(42.5%)	12(30%)	29(72.5%)
	once inwhile	0(0%)	3(7.5%)	3(7.5%)
	sometimes	1(2.5%)	2(5%)	3(7.5%)
	fairly often	2(5%)	3(7.5%)	5(12.5%)
Total		20(50%)	20(50%)	40(100%)

Source: survey, 2020

The above table show that; 42.5 % of male and 30 % of female not avoid getting involved at all. 0 % male and 7.5 % of female involved important issued raised once in a while. 2.5 % of male and 5 % of female sometimes involved when important issue raised. 5 % of male and 7.5 % female are getting involved when important issues arised. Those male managers greater than female involved important issues arised, because they perceive it is higher authority decision imediately perceive action.

Table 4.36 some manager avoid making decision.

		male	female	total
I avoid making decision	not at all	15(37.5%)	9(22.5%)	24(60%)
	once inwhile	1(2.5%)	1(2.5%)	2(5%)
	sometimes	4(10%)	8(20%)	12(30%)
	fairly often	0(0%)	2(5%)	2(5%)
Total		20(50%)	20(50%)	40(100%)

Source: survey, 2020

Officers perceive avoid making decision; 37.5 % of male and 22.5 % of female not avoid at all making decision. 2.5 % of male and 2.5 % of female once in while avoid making decision, 10 % of male and 20 % of female sometimes avoid making decision. Fairly often 0 % male and 5 % of female avoid making decision. Most male higher by 15 % need to decided not avoid making decision than female. This give us direction male need to make decision.

Table 4.37 manager delay responding to urgent question.

		male	female	total
I delay responding to urgent question	not at all	14(35%)	10(25%)	24(60%)
	once in while	2(5%)	5(12.5%)	7(17.5%)
	sometimes	2(5%)	5(12.5%)	7(17.5%)
	fairly often	1(2.5%)	0(0%)	1(2.5%)
	frequently if not always	1(2.5%)	0(0%)	1(2.5%)
Total		20(50%)	20(50%)	40(100%)

Source: survey, 2020

Table 4.37 manifested delaying to respond to the urgent question; 35 % of male and 25 % female not delayed respond to the urgent question at all. 5 % of male and 12.5 % of female delayed once in while responding urgent question. 5 % of male and 12.5 % of female delaying to respond to urgent question. 2.5 % of male and 0 % of female delayed fairly often respond to the urgent question and 2.5 % of male and 0 % of female delayed to respond sometimes. Nearly all did not delay to respond to urgent question. This manifested male slightly the same as female that not delayed respond urgent question.

Table 4.38 manager to do more than they expected.

		male	female	total
I get others to do more than they expected	not at all	14(35%)	15(37.5%)	29(72.5%)
	once in while	1(2.5%)	1(2.5%)	2(5%)
	sometimes	4(10%)	4(10%)	8(20%)
	frequently if not always	1(2.5%)	0(0%)	1(2.5%)
Total		20(50%)	20(50%)	40(100%)

Source: survey, 2020

Getting others to do more than; 35 % of male and 37.5 % female not get others to do more than they expected at all. 2.5 % of male and 2.5 % of female get other to do more than expected once in a while. Sometimes 10 % of male and 10 % of female get others to do more than they expected. 2.5 % of male and 0 % of female frequently if not always get others to do more than they expected. In these offices do more than expected than more. Male and female all time significantly the same in getting to do not more than expected.

Table 4. 39 heightening other desire.

		male	female	total
I heighten others desire to succeed	not at all	10(25%)	8(20%)	18(45%)
	once in while	0(0%)	3(7.5%)	3(7.5%)
	sometimes	6(15%)	7(17.5%)	13(32.5%)
	fairly often	3(7.5%)	2(5%)	5(12.5%)
	frequently if not always	1(2.5%)	0(0%)	1(2.5%)
Total		20(50%)	20(50%)	40(100%)

Source: survey, 2020

Heightening others desire to succeed; 25 % of male and 20 % of female not heightening other desire at all. 25 % of male and 20% of female heightening once in a while other desire to succeed. 0 % of male and 7.5 % of female once in while heightening other desire. 15 % of male and 17.5 % female sometimes heightening other desire. 7.5 % of male and 5 % of female fairly often heightening other desire. 2.5 % of male and 0 % of female heightening frequently if not always had been heightening others desired. The result indicated that male and female most time not perform heightening other desire. So that they implemented ethical consideration.

Table 4.40. Manager increase other willingness

		male	female	total
I increase others willingness	not at all	2(5%)	2(5%)	4(10%)
	once inwhile	1(2.5%)	0(0%)	1(2.5%)
	sometimes	11(27.5%)	6(15%)	17(42.5%)
	fairly often	4(10%)	12(30%)	16(40%)
	frequently if not always	2(5%)	0(0%)	2(5%)
Total		20(50%)	20(50%)	40(100%)

Source: survey, 2020

Increasing others willingness; 5 % of male and 5 % of female not increase others willingness at all. 2.5 % of male and 0 % of female increase once in a while increase other willingness. 27.5 % of male and 15% of female increase other willingness sometimes. 10 % of male and 30 % of female increase fairly often increase other willingness. 5 % of male and 0 % of female frequently if not always increase other willingness. So that managers especially female increase fairly often other willingness then those male managers.

Table 4.41mangers are effective in job affairs.

		male	female
I am effective in meeting others job related needs	once in while	2(5%)	1(2.5%)
	sometimes	6(15%)	5(12.5%)
	fairly often	9(22.5%)	11(27.5%)
	frequently if not always	3(7.5%)	3(7.5%)
Total		20(50%)	20(50%)

Source: survey, 2020

When managers met in day to day activities; 5 % of male and 2.5 % of female manager once in a while effective in meeting others job related needs at all, 15 % of male and 12.5 % female sometimes effective in meeting others job related needs. 22.5 % of male and 27.5 % of female fairly often effective in meeting other job related needs and 7.5 % of male and 7.5 % of female frequently if not always effective in meeting other job related needs. It resulted that male and female managers effective in meeting other job related needs.

Table 4.42 managers effective in representing higher authority.

		male	female	total
I am effective in representing others to higher authority	once in while	2(5%)	2(5%)	4(10%)
	sometimes	6(15%)	9(22.5%)	15(37.5%)
	fairly often	9(22.5%)	9(22.5%)	18(45%)
	frequently if not always	3(7.5%)	0(0%)	3(7.5%)
Total		20(50%)	20(50%)	40(100%)

Source: survey, 2020

In some occasion managers may have represented effectively; 5 % of male and 5 % of female effective in representing others to higher authority once in a while. 15 % of male and 22.5 % of female sometimes effective in representing others to higher authority. 22.5 % of male and 22.5 % of female fairly often effective in representing effectively. 7.5 % of male and 0 % of female frequently if not always effective in representing others to higher authority. Fairly often male and female successful to represent authority.

Table 4. 43mangers leada group that is effective.

		male	female	total
I lead a group that is effective	not at all	1(2.5%)	1(2.5%)	2(5%)
	once inwhile	0(5%)	3(7.5%)	3(7.5%)

	sometimes	5(12.5%)	8(20%)	13(32.5%)
	fairly often	9(22.5%)	8(20%)	17(42.5%)
	frequently if not always	5(45%)	0(0%)	5(12.5%)
Total		20(50%)	20(50%)	40(100%)

Source: survey, 2020

Regard to table 43; 2.5 % of male and 2.5 % of female not lead effectively at all. 0 % of male and 7.5 % of female effective once in a while lead a group that is effective. 12.5 % of male and 20 % of female sometimes lead a group that is effective. 22.5 % of male and 20 % of female fairly lead a group that is effective in group leading. 12.5 % of male and 0 % of female frequently if not always have been lead a group that is effective. The managers achieved not vast difference between male and female. Although frequently and often male lead a group in effective.

Table 4.44mangers usesatisfy method of leadership.

		male	female	total
I use methods of leadership that are satisfying	not at all	2(5%)	0(0%)	2(5%)
	once in while	0(0%)	2(5%)	2(5%)
	sometimes	6(15%)	8(20%)	14(35%)
	fairly often	10(25%)	8(20%)	18(45%)
	frequently if not always	2(5%)	2(5%)	4(10%)
Total		20(50%)	20(50%)	40(100%)

Source: survey, 2020

Leadership need to use method of satisfying; 5 % of male and 0 % of female not usedmethod of satisfying at all.0 % of male and 5 % of female used once in while method of satisfactory once.15 % of male and 20 % of female sometimes used method of satisfactoryleading. 25 % of male and 20 % of female used satisfactory leading methodfairly often. 5 % of male and 5 % of

female frequently if not always perceive. Therefore high percent are often used male and female managers similarly used satisfactory ways sometimes and often.

DISCUSSION

In this discussion the main points are discussed. For clarity purpose, the are based on the research objectives of the study. Based on the findings of the study recommendations are made to government bodies, to operate best leading ways and suggestion for other researchers Alice Eagley, who specializes leadership styles of women and men managers. Women's styles are characterized as being team players, democratic, transformational and reward.

Leadership is an attitude as well as action. It can be most suitably described as the process of influencing in which one person can support others in the accomplishment of common goal (Chemers, 1997). This researcher make clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved.

Leadership means being in charge of other people in numerous ways, including motivation, organization and the inspiration of followers. A manager has formal power over subordinates, which is not necessarily true in the case of leader (Eagly and Carli, 2004) Scholars distinguish between leadership and management by describing managers as those responsible for formal organization and control work.

For the purposes of the upper article, the terms leader and manager are used interchangeably when discussing organizational leadership, as both activities are intertwined in the organization (Eagly and Carli, 2008).

Leadership is an attitude as well as action. It can be most suitably described as the process of influencing in which one person can support others in

the accomplishment of common goal (Chemers, 2007). This researcher make clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved.

Eagly and Carli (2003) meta-analysis revealed that, compared with male leaders, female leaders were (a) more (significant in general and on all but one subscale) and (b) engaged in more of the contingent reward behaviors (i.e., exchanging rewards for followers' satisfactory performance) that are one component of transactional leadership.

This research show management by exception passive in transactional leadership a firm believer in "are not broke, do not fix it: 17 male (42.5%) and 17 female (42.5 %), 1 male (2.5%) and 1 female (2.5 %) perceive once and 2 male (5%) and 3 female (7.5%) sometimes think to ridged any understand not broke and fix. This wereda administration relatively like males and female behaviors in general.

Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt (P.787) they argue that, "It is likely that the greater effectiveness of female than male in this sample of managers reflected the negative relationships between passive management by- exception.

According to Eagly and Carli (2003), "The predominantly argentic qualities that people associate with men are similar to the qualities perceived to be needed for success in high status occupations, which would include most managerial occupations". In the same sense this research reflect it. Like Eagly and Carli some administrators were delay responding to urgent question: not at all 14 male (35 %) and 10 female (25. %), once in while 2 male (5 %) and 5 female (12.5 %), 7 male (17.5 %) 5 female (12.5%) respond sometimesdelay responding urgent question that characterized transformational.

(Eagly and Johannese) they argue that, "It is likely that the greater effectiveness of female than male in this sample of managers reflected the negative relationships between passive management by- exception and the

laissez-faire styles to effectiveness and the positive relationship of transformational and contingent reward to effectiveness.

This research found that medium positive correlation between the five transformational leadership style views and contingent reward scale of transformational leadership style and a negative correlation with two transactional leadership style sub scales.

In contrast to Denmark these results are: There, women occupy 23% of all managerial positions and over 70% of women have jobs (European Commission, 2013). Such low numbers of women in managerial position may be caused by the belief that men are better leaders than women, as men embody masculine characteristics, including power and control, which used to be considered the traits of good leader. Due to such low presence of women in managerial positions, companies loose an opportunity to benefit from diversified managerial team.

Therefore, this paper is intended to initiate discussion whether the underrepresentation of women in Leadership positions is due to the fact that women and men lead in different ways. The goal of the current study is todetermine whether gender differences exist in leadership and their potential source literature analysis, supported by an interviewwith an expert and pilot study was conducted in order to present the topic from various angles. When we see this research.

As cited in Lewin, There was study conducted in 2009 by group of psychologists led by the inventor of the theory. It proved that people tend to work differently under each of the leadership styles (Lewin, 2006), where the democratic approach tends to be most appropriate and effective.

As cited to same research; Because not only the female and male roles have different content, but also because there is often inconsistency between the

predominantly communal qualities that perceivers associate with women and the predominantly argentic qualities that they believe are required to succeed as a leader (Eagly and Johannesen-Eagley observes that prejudice towards female leadership styles restricts women managers' access to top leadership positions. The bias shows up when women are perceived as possessing less leadership ability than equivalent men or when the same leadership behavior is evaluated less favorably in a woman than a man.

UNIT FIVE

SUMMERY,CONCLUSION AND RECOMENDETION

5.1 Summery of finding

The major purpose of the research was to assess the difference between male and female leaders that influence the perception and stress on leading process. Research purposely find out the cause of leading behavior either gender effect on management process on Majang zone public office. Many countries assess the impact of woman employment that faced to join in leading the office, especially high level of company and administration leaders. Most people believe that men can lead high level of administration level. Many theories suggest their understanding gender role, intellectual, behavior, reward, and other impacts to influence leading characteristics. The researcher begin to answer the following question:

1. What is the main perception difference of male and female managers?
2. Why female leader characterizes transformational leadership style?
3. Is male leader manifests transactional leadership style?

To answer these questions and test hypothesis developed based on previous literatures, data was collected from twenty organizations namely: Majang zone Administration, Education Health, Security, Agriculture, Water, Electric, Fish and Animal, Communication, Court, Transport, Child and Women, etc... The total number of questionnaires distributed were 40 out of 40 (100 %) was returned. From the 40 respondents 20 are male and 20 are female. The Multi Factor Leadership Questionnaire and Bem Sex Role Inventory questionnaire were used to collect the data. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) and descriptive statistics were used to analyze the data. The reliability of the questionnaires was checked by using the Cronbach's alpha internal consistency indicator and the results are 0.856 for the 43 item BSRI questionnaire and 0.823 for the 43 item MLQ questionnaire.

The main available research finding is based on gender identification. The result indicated that female also manifested like male leader transactional leadership style.

Female managers wanted to take and give performance reward for their subordinate. In other side male leader participate in management by exception active and passive, inspirational motivation, and individual consideration. Mostly female demonstrated management by exception active than male leader.

Majang public leader achieve on autocratic and confidential focusing on results, on achievement, and not on comparisons with others it means that competitive style. Both male and female were tendency to associate their real

needs, talking risks, establishing and working on attaining objective to perform achievement style. Women tend to show good people management skills and their needs by establishing a strong connection with their team, and keeping a solid communication flow. Females are a real success that many analysis emphasize the fact that emphasize position female leader better than male leader in more traits transformational leadership.

5. 2 Conclusion

The objective of this chapter is to supply conclusion and settle advice able recommendation.

The conclusion discussed based on objectives of the study. According to research results recommendations are prepare to concerned bodies, perform good management style and advice for other related researcher.

Gender system permit for explain the duties and responsibility being related with male and female in twenty public offices for distinguishing similarities and difference between male and female accountability, duties, consideration, effectiveness, participation, inspiration, attitude, behavior, reward, decision making, and other believe.

In some attitude culture of working together like friendship influence for bureaucratic and absolute performance skill. In other time democratic style of performance looked to achieve and delegate other subordinate and worked by other diligent or subordinate. This impact on goal and mission related duties. Management by exception passive that believing don't broke and fix relativilly both sex show the same outlook to apply the job.

Female managers importantly achieve like male transactional leadership style than male manager. Male managers despair from work place and like delegation to apply laissez fare behavior than female managers. Female managers exhibit to use their time properly in work place views. As interview females have good reception of guest in out looking of other, and also respect

lower level of standard. Female managers characterized leadership style that have positive correlation with deliberate looking and good outcomes and satisfaction. And also initiate extra effort on their close.

4.3 Recommendations

Based on the major findings of the study, the researcher would like to forward the following suggestions to improve the implementation of public offices. Ministry of women and children affaires and need to recognize the similarities difference and of male and female managers describe based on achieving goal, feminists, and these main points need to recommendation the managers. Some researcher advice to us:

Humanistic-encouraging style that refers to a positive unconditioned acceptance of others, but in another way. People having this thinking style are very sensitive to the others' needs, value close relationships, and put most of their energy into the others' development. They appreciate sincerely people's strengths and believe in them. They are optimistic and good at inspiring and motivating the others, which makes them great leaders. They are patient and productive. The pacesetter leadership style is one of the most effective for driving fast results. These leaders are primarily focused on performance. They often set high standards and hold their team members accountable for hitting their goals. In order to improve their Humanistic-Encouraging style, people should work on the following:

- Developing their empathy and learning to listen more
- Asking for ideas and feedback from the others
- Being more involved and spending more time with other people
- Focusing on a few persons, encouraging them, and observing the role of this encouragement into their lives
- Looking for opportunities to help and train others
- Showing genuine appreciation for what the others do to you and maybe learning to say ‘Thank you’ more often.
- Managers need tend to be better evaluated in terms of empathy (showing good people management skills and their needs by establishing a strong connection with their team) and communication (by establishing clear demands from others, expressing their thoughts and ideas clearly, and by keeping a solid communication flow).

In order to lead more successfully, people should decrease their competitive orientation, and they could do this by working on:

- Focusing on results, on self-achievement, and not on comparisons with others
- Striving to always improve and obtain excellent results
- Cooperating more with others for various projects
- Accepting the fact that no one can be the best at everything.

5.4 Future research direction

This study is co-relational and cross-sectional in nature. This study is very broad in context of generalizability. Every organization has different criteria of building strong co-operation among its teams through better leadership approach, in order to achieve collective organizational interests. A suggestion is that future research should be conducted in form of longitudinal and more statistical tools and methods should be applied for more concrete analysis. Shortage of time is a major limitation of this study. So, a more thorough research of these factors would be recommended. Generally, workforce diversity is an area limitation to this study as well. It is directed efforts must also be made to achieve a larger sample size for attaining a broader perspective. Future research should also focus on transformational leadership so that more comprehensive results can be obtained.

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Appendix I

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)

To be full filled by managers

This questionnaire contains 45 items that measures your full range leadership behavior each item contains five scale ranging from 0 to 4 (0- not at all, 1- once, 2-sometimes, 3- fairly often and 4 frequently, if not always) based on how frequently you are think you actually do this with associates and followers.

no	question	Not at all	Once in while	Some time	Fairly often	Frequently if not always
	Idealize attitude					
1	I instill pride in other for being associated with me					
2	I go beyond self- interest for the good of the group					
3	I act in ways that build others respect for me					
4	I display a sense of power and confidence					
	Idealized behavior					
5	I talk about their most important values and beliefs					
6	I specify the important of having strong sense of power					
7	I consider moral and ethical consequence of					

	decisions					
8	I emphasize the importance of having a collective sense of mission in percentage and validity.					
	Motivation					
9	I talk optimistically about the future					
10	I talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished					
11	I express confidence that goals will be achieved					
	Intellectual stimulation					
12	I re- examine critical assumption to question whether they are					
13	I seek differing perspectives when solving problems.					
14	I get others to look at problems form many different angles					
15	I suggest new ways of looking at how to complete assignments.					
	Individual consideration					
16	I spend time teaching and coaching					
17	Table 4.49 I treat others as individuals rather than just as a member of the group					

18	I consider an individual as having different needs, abilities and aspirations from others.					
19	I help others to develop their strengths					
	Contingent reward					
20	I provide others with assistance in exchange for their efforts.					
21	I discuss in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets					
22	I make clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved.					
23	I express satisfaction when others meet expectations.					
	Management by exception active					
24	I focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviation from standards.					
25	I concentrate my full attention on dealing with mistakes, complaints, and failures					
26	I concentrate my full attention on dealing with mistakes					
27	I keep track of all mistakes					
28	Standards I direct my attention toward failures to meet.					

29	I direct my attention toward failures to meet standers					
30	I wait for things to go wrong before taking action					
	Management by exception passive					
31	I show a firm believer in 'if it aren't broke, don't fix it.					
32	I demonstrate that problems must become chronic before take action					
	Less-faire					
33	I avoid getting involved when important issues a rise.					
34	I avoid making decision					
35	I delay responding to urgent question.					
36	I get others to do more than they expected					
37	I heighten others desire to succeed					
38	I increase others willingness					
	Effectiveness					
39	I am effective in meeting others job related needs					
40	I am effective in representing others to higher					

	authority					
41	I am effective in meeting organizational requirements					
	Satisfaction					
42	I lead a group that is effective					
43	I use methods of leadership that are satisfying					
44	I work with others in a satisfactory way					