The effectiveness of Feminine and Masculine Leadership styles in relation to contrasting gender’s performances

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THE EFFECTIVENESS OF FEMININE AND MASCULINE LEADERSHIP STYLES IN RELATION TO CONTRASTING GENDER'S PERFORMANCES

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Abstract: This paper focuses on the impact and effectiveness of feminine and masculine styles of leadership on contrasting genders in four different economies namely; India, Canada, Pakistan, and United Kingdom's IT Sector. By combining probability and non-probability sampling techniques, the data has been gathered from 248 respondents via semi-structured 5-points scale survey questionnaire. The findings have shown that employees irrespective of gender are significant positively affected by feminine leadership style. Additionally, in developing countries; Pakistan and India there is significant use of feminine leadership while developed economies namely; Canada and the UK have higher preference for masculine leadership style. Nevertheless, overall male workers do not have higher preference to work under masculine leadership style while females have higher preference for both masculine and feminine leadership styles. Interestingly, feminine style of leadership is highly demonstrated by males in Pakistan while in other three economies, it is exhibited by female line-managers. Moreover, female line-managers in the UK have shown higher masculine style of leadership in contrast to other economies. There is significant positive relationship between style of leadership and contrasting genders in distinctive economies. Additionally, feminine leadership style is more effective than the masculine leadership style. Feminine leaders demonstrate higher people-orientation and participative style of management whereas masculine leaders rely on task-orientation and autocratic style.

Key words: cross-cultural comparison, contrasting economies, gender, masculine leadership, feminine leadership

Introduction

The linkage between the "Leadership" and "gender differences" is not a new phenomenon. However, vast number of studies have emphasized in single dimension by either focusing on the geographic dimensions, particular organisational settings, etc. There is a need for examining the phenomenon in the comparative manner in terms of economies. Hence, the paper focuses on the four

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distinctive types of economies. Interestingly, the IT sector of four economies namely; Canada, India, Pakistan, and the UK respectively are included due to the fact that although two are developed economies (Canada and the UK) and two emerging economies (India and Pakistan) but post recession 2008, the trends in all selected economies’ IT sector has experienced boom (Haque et al., 2017). In addition to that, there are similar trends, variations, and constraints in all four selected cases (Haque and Aston, 2016; Haque et al., 2017).

The aim of this article is to investigate the effectiveness of masculine or/and feminine leadership style in the IT sectors of contrasting economies. Hence, the study focuses on the contrasting genders and their preferences for particular (masculine or feminine) style of leadership at the middle and top levels of the IT firms. Additionally, the study investigates the variations and the effectiveness of specific styles in context-specific regions.

**Literature Review**

Leadership and gender related focus has been significantly on three distinctive perspectives for researchers in general aspects (Chaluvadi, 2015). The prime focus has been to assess and evaluate. In reality, is there any visible difference between masculine and feminine leadership styles? The other focus given depending on gender and leadership effectiveness (are masculine leaders can be considered more important than the feminine leaders or vice versa)? The last focus is on the glass-ceiling phenomenon that blocks female leaders to reach to the top most position in any organisations (Northouse, 2007). In the case of masculine and feminine leadership, there are various types of uncertainty related to the usage of terminologies in the literature and all these terms seems to be common in the discussion of leadership styles primarily; gender, sex, men, women, feminine and masculine. From the literature at hand, there is limited evidence regarding precise relationship among aforementioned aspects (Cames et al., 2001) but academic literature has confirmed these terminologies in a completely different manner (Northouse, 2007). Hence, due to variations in usage of terminology, the results also vary to large extent. Gender and leadership styles related studies have shown greater variations in findings due to contextual changes. Nevertheless, such literature has confirmed that there are obvious differences in the leadership styles of specific gender.

Eagly and Johnson (1990) suggest that there exist only slight difference between the feminine and masculine leadership style. The organisational setting compels the feminine leaders to be more democratic and participative in approach while masculine leaders are often demonstrating autocratic behaviour. Rosener (1990) and Eagly et al., (2003) argued that masculine leaders are often using ‘transactional’ leadership style whereas feminine leaders are demonstrating ‘transformational’ style of leadership. However, Helgesen (1990) concluded that feminine leaders are usually attracted by web structure rather than traditional hierarchical structure. Interestingly, there is a significant different between
masculine and feminine leaders due to their self-perception (Vinnicombe and Cames, 1998). However, there are also studies that have confirmed that there is no or little difference between masculine and feminine leaders (Bartol, 1978; Dobbins and Platz, 1986). Nevertheless, this school of thought mainly concentrated on gender. Additionally, the industry should not be discarded while studying leadership style because leaders operate differently due to the trends prevailing in certain industries. Interestingly, earlier researches have shown that female leaders working in a male dominated industry often demonstrate masculine leadership style (Gardiner and Tiggemann, 1999; Eagly and Johnson, 1990; Ferrario and Davidson, 1991). Hence, this school of thought support work of Kanter (1977) that at times female leaders alter their management style in order to operate successfully therefore narrows the gap of gender-based leadership style. Furthermore, the study of Haque et al., (2015) has revealed that female leaders effectively use transformational leadership style.

With the passage of time, there are visible changes in the behaviour demonstrated by both the masculine and feminine leaders. Some of the researches have shown that changes in feminine leadership styles incur due to change in marital status, especially for females, but the masculine leaders do not change after marriage (Konrad et al., 2000; Twenge, 2001). Some studies revealed that the effectiveness of leadership style considering both the male and female as effective leaders in a similar way (Chaluvadi, 2015). Conversely, females are more active than the males while dealing with soft skills (Eagly et al., 1995). Interestingly, considering leadership literature, one of the most widely argued topic is glass ceiling. This phenomenon is most widely associated with the females in leadership position by facing constraints due to lack of human capital, societal and cultural norms, organisation, etc. (Faizan and Haque, 2016). Unfortunately, in contrast to males, limited females attain top positions in the management because of higher household responsibilities, low experience and exposure towards managerial skills, own distinct styles of leadership, personality clashes, and limited opportunities (Northouse, 2007; Faizan and Haque, 2016; Haque et al., 2016; Haque et al., 2017). However, nowadays the glass ceiling is less prominent because of the female participation in labour force, improvements in law, and changes in the organisation and business culture (Goethals et al., 2004; Northouse, 2007). Nevertheless, one should not ignore culture while studying leadership. Leaders are influenced by culture (Hofstede, 1996; Schein, 2004; House et al., 2004). The culture has different definitions but majority accepts it as a way of life, customs and perception of a group of people (Gudykunst and Ting-Toomey, 1998). The research focusing on the understanding of the culture effect and societal institutions mainly have shown three different aspects associated with leadership and organisation (Tsai, 2011). The main focus by sociologists are given more attention to the societal problems such as industrial relations, education system, labour markets, career aspects of mangers, culture, etc. (Gallie, 1978; Lane, 1989; Maurice et al., 1986; cited from Snaebjornsson and Edvardsson, 2013). The effect
of these all aforementioned attributes in the organisation behaviour has been evident to large extent (Gallie, 1978; Lane, 1989; Maurice et al., 1986; Snaebjornsson and Edvardsson, 2013). Interestingly, the work of Nair et al. (2017) has revealed that organizational factors are also vital within organizational setting. Hence, there should not be over reliance only on viewing leadership styles within the organizational settings.

However, national culture inspires the public policies and influences leadership along with gender. In both aspects, feminine and masculine have the accessibility to join labour market, chances to upgrade education, similar opportunities, and potentials for progression. The analysis of the several studies related to feminine and masculine leadership have revealed that there are differences in these styles. Conversely, Eagly (2013) has argued that these distinctions have little or no significance in a practicality for males and females. On the other hand Merchant (2012) has argued that feminine leaders show democratic and participative styles while males are more autocratic and authoritative. However, masculine leaders are likely to accept particularly a top-down style (Merchant, 2012). Considering these difference, it is evident that the cultural impact is higher on females than males in a negative manner (Faizan and Haque, 2016). However, participative leaders mainly concentrate on the situation (Haque et al., 2017). Some evidences are that supports directive and participative leadership styles usually achieve ideal results for males. Nevertheless, Eagly (2013) has argued that feminine leaders exhibit feminine behaviours more often than male demonstrating masculine. Nevertheless, the work of Nair and Sommerville (2017) reflects that organizational culture has significant impact on workforces' distinctive attributes. In other words, leadership style along with culture have dominant role in affecting gender's functioning and performance. Interestingly, the personal and societal constraints hinder not only the performance but representation of females at the corporate level (Faizan and Haque, 2016; Haque and Aston, 2016; Haque et al., 2016; Haque et al., 2017; Haque et al., 2018). Internal factors are equally important like external factors to work effectively under certain leadership style (Alekperova, 2018). On the other hand, national culture is one of the essential determinants in assessing firm's innovative performance (Andrijauskiene and Dumciuviene, 2018). Thus, all aspects should be considered carefully.

Earlier literature investigated various attributes within the organisation including; modern management, employee involvement, teamwork, and flexibility enhances femininity (Lee, 1994; Avolio, 2010). It gives attention to the ethics by associating certain abilities with the women in terms of culture (Priola, 2004). Coleman (2000, 2001) survey reveals that female head teachers are more co-operative and people-oriented in leadership style. Similarly, Haque et al. (2017) also have found females at top have higher people-orientation. The study of Faizan and Haque (2016) has shown that males and females both tend to perform better under masculine style. On the other hand, work of Haque et al., (2017) has revealed that females' performances significantly enhance under feminine style of leadership.
Interestingly, complex evaluation of the policies is equally important to assess the effectiveness and efficiency of workforce (Rollnik-Sadowska and Dabrowska, 2018). Nevertheless, there is still no conclusive evidence to confirm the effectiveness of the relationship between particular style of leadership and gender in more distinctive economies.

**Hypotheses**

H1: *There is no significant relationship between masculine or feminine style of leadership and gender in contrasting economies.*

H2: *Masculine leadership style is not significantly effective in improving performance of male workers.*

H3: *Masculine leadership style is not significantly effective in improving performance of female workers.*

H4: *Feminine leadership style is not significantly effective in improving performance of male workers.*

H5: *Feminine leadership style is not significantly effective in improving performance of female workers.*

**Research Methodology**

This cross-sectional research followed positivist philosophy while falling into positivist research paradigm. The ontological view is relativist while epistemological stance remained objective. This study combined both; probability and non-probability sampling technique for reaching target audience. Using random sampling, the authors picked the registered software firms in all four countries. Later, the authors used networking, connections, and convenience sampling to approach the HR department for formal consent. The formal e-mail contained the purpose, timing, duration, and surety about the anonymity and confidentiality. In the third stage, the authors used purposive sampling by targeting over 60 participants in all four countries while ensuring there is equal split in terms of gender. The authors developed online survey questionnaire through Googledoc. This survey was self-administered semi-structured matrix 5-Point Likert scale-based survey questionnaire, following DAB (Demographic, Attitudinal, and Behavioural questions) formula. The survey started with India, followed by Pakistan, Canada, and lastly collected data from the UK. The sequence was result of the axiological view that we should explore emerging economies first. Moreover, India is renowned for its IT development thus; decided to begin with it. The study kept a gap of one week between collection processes when moving from one country to another. In order to ensure there is no overlapping.

Overall, the study targeted 40 firms (10 each from targeted country), however, only 12 participated, reflecting 30% response rate in terms of organisations. This study had 248 participants in this survey. In the comparative studies, over 200 responses are sufficient in reaching logical conclusion (Sekaran and Bougie, 2012).
Since, this study has more than 200 participants therefore it confirms that data is sufficient in drawing logical conclusion. Furthermore, it is essential to remember that if the data exceeds more, the sig-values reach to infinity due to higher number of frequencies rather than representing the actual phenomenon. In other words, higher number of frequencies automatically increase the infinity power hence the study ensured that it has appropriate number of respondents to draw adequate and logical conclusion. For ensuring data is reliable and valid, the authors used triangulation approach. Hence, for reliability the study had Cronbach's alpha. Interestingly, results showed that =0.762, reflecting that the items are aligned on the scale. Moreover, the study used confirmatory factor analysis test and demographic variables to ensure right participants are approached. This study also had inter-reliability test by gaining the expert views of the professors in the field of research methods and leadership. After running Shapiro-Wilk test, the study attained the Sig-value 0.64, reflecting higher than the 0.05. Hence, there is significant strong evidence against the null hypothesis that data is not normally distributed. In other words, the present data is normally distributed therefore the study opted for parametric test. This is the reason the authors are using 'Pearson Correlation' (parametric) over Spearman Correlation (non-parametric) test.

Results

The majority of the respondents in terms of gender are males (53.25) percent lying between the ages bracket (28-38) years (37.2) percent holding masters' qualification (49.23) percent with 42 percent having (5-8) years’ experience.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic Variables</th>
<th>Country</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>India (%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>53.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>46.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>26-30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>41.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualifications</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masters</td>
<td>41.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelors</td>
<td>3-5 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>38.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

However, the comparative analysis revealed that emerging economies (India and Pakistan) are more male dominated with majority having master’s degree and relatively fresh in terms of experience. On the other hand, although males are more visible in developed economies (Canada and the UK) but the degree of qualification are bachelors with more practical experience in the field.
The above analysis revealed that overall males have higher preference for 'masculine style of leadership' 63.25 percent whereas preference for 'feminine style of leadership' is only 36.75 percent.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Preference for Masculine Leadership</th>
<th>Preference for Feminine Leadership</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>62.0</td>
<td>38.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>47.2</td>
<td>52.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Conversely, overall majority females have higher preference for 'feminine style of leadership' 55.65 percent while only 44.35 percent preferred 'masculine style of leadership'. The highest preference for the 'masculine style of leadership' is scored at Canada (85.0) percent, followed by India (62.0) percent and the UK (61.0) percent whereas the least is scored by Pakistan (45.0) percent. In other words, Pakistani males have lower preference for masculine leadership style while Pakistani females have higher preference for masculine leadership (54.6) percent. Furthermore, the preference for 'feminine style of leadership' by females are higher as Canada (67.9) percent, followed by the UK (56.5) percent and India (52.8) percent whereas Pakistani females scored least of all (45.4) percent. In other words, majority of the females in Canada, UK, and India prefer feminine style whereas Pakistani females likes it but feel much more motivated to work with masculine leadership style. Interestingly, the comparative analysis showed that on average developed economies (Canada and the UK) has higher preference to masculine style while one of the emerging economies (India) also preferred it. However, the Pakistan has a significant variation where males prefer feminine style and females like masculine style of leadership.

However, from the above analysis it is not conclusive that whether the contrasting gender's performance under specific style of preferred leadership is effective or not. Thus, in order to examine it we have conducted statistical test. In order to do so, the foremost requirement is establishing the relationship and its strength between variables of interest.

The Table 3 reflects that there is no statistical significant relationship between 'masculine leadership style' and 'overall performance of the male employees' hence there is no evidence against null hypothesis \((p > \alpha, 0.183)\). Interestingly, only 35 percent variation in the improved overall performance of males is due to the masculine style of leadership. Additionally, there is moderate positive relationship between these variables. Hence, in this regard it supports the work of Faizan and Haque (2016).
Table 3. Correlation between Variables of Interest

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correlation Variables</th>
<th>Pearson Correlation</th>
<th>Sig Value</th>
<th>Results</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Masculine Leadership &amp;</td>
<td>0.35**</td>
<td>0.183</td>
<td>P &gt; α</td>
<td>No significance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Male performance</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masculine Leadership &amp;</td>
<td>0.47**</td>
<td>0.011</td>
<td>P &lt; α</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Female performance</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feminine Leadership &amp;</td>
<td>0.83**</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>P &lt; α</td>
<td>****</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Male Performance</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feminine Leadership &amp;</td>
<td>0.65**</td>
<td>0.003</td>
<td>P &lt; α</td>
<td>**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Female Performance</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

On the other hand, there is strong statistical evidence that female performance is significantly positively affected by the masculine leadership (p < α, 0.011). Hence, there is evidence against null hypothesis and the 47 percent variation in the female performances is resulting from the masculine leadership. Again, the authors have established a new relationship between considered variables. Interestingly, under feminine leadership style both; male and female performances improve. As evident, there is strong significantly positive relationship between the feminine leadership style and the overall performance of males (p < α, 0.000). In other words, there is strong significant evidence against null hypothesis, as it is highly different from the zero. Furthermore, 83 percent variation in males' performance is resulting due to feminine leadership style. Therefore, present findings partially support the findings of Faizan and Haque (2016). Additionally, not only males' performance improves but females' performance also tends to improve under feminine leadership style. There is moderate positive relationship between females' performance and feminine leadership style, as evident 65 percent variation in the females' performance is due to feminine leadership. In addition to that, there is strong evidence against null hypothesis (p < α, 0.003). In other words, the females' performance is significantly positively affected by the feminine leadership style. Hence, the findings of this study contradict the work of Faizan and Haque (2016) while confirms to some extent the work of Haque et al. (2017).

**Independent t-test**

The above t-tests run for examining the correlation between particular style of leadership and gender's performances. Interestingly, results have shown that males' performances are significant positively affected by the feminine leadership style (p< α, 0.000). On the other hand, there is weak evidence against significant positive correlation between masculine leadership style and males' performance. Therefore, the study partially supports the previous findings of Faizan and Haque (2016). In addition to that, second t-test has revealed that female's performances are significant positively interlinked with both; feminine and masculine leadership styles.
Table 4. Independent t-test Style of Leadership Affecting Overall Males' Performance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Levene's Test for Equality of Variances</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Df</td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feminine Leadership Style</td>
<td>24.6</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>8.11</td>
<td>247</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masculine Leadership Style</td>
<td>24.6</td>
<td>.061</td>
<td>.273</td>
<td>247</td>
<td>.061</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5. Independent t-test Style of Leadership Affecting Overall Females' Performance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Levene's Test for Equality of Variances</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>Sig.</td>
<td>T</td>
<td>Df</td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feminine Leadership Style</td>
<td>24.6</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td>7.89</td>
<td>247</td>
<td>.003</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masculine Leadership Style</td>
<td>24.6</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>12.36</td>
<td>247</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As evident above, there is strong statistical evidence that females' overall performance improve under feminine leadership style (p < α, 0.003). However, the relationship between females' overall performance and masculine leadership style has extremely significant positive relationship (p < α, 0.001). If the study compares the two styles and genders, there is strong evidence that the overall performances of both; males and females improve under feminine leadership style to greater extent. Thus, in this aspect present study partially supports the work of Haque et al., (2017) and contradicts the work of Faizan and Haque (2016).

Interestingly, this study contradicts the work of Northouse (2007) as the glass ceiling is not evident in the organisations, especially in the developing countries. In actual, developing countries like India and Pakistan offers more chances for females to progress at the top layer. Therefore, the findings are aligned with the work of Faizan and Haque (2016) and Haque et al., (2017). Partially, the study through preliminary research has found that organisational factors have a dominant role in the retention of the workforce hence it is not essential to have specifically masculine or feminine leadership style. Thus, present finding support to some extent the work of Nair et al., (2017) by stating that organisational factors have a role in the operations and management of workers. In other words, the certain style of leadership is not always to be considered but the organisational factors should be taken into account. Nevertheless, present study has found important variation among the workers under both; feminine and masculine leadership style hence the study supports the earlier arguments of Cames et al., (2001) and Northouse (2007).

Additionally, the authors found that there is significant difference in these two distinctive styles thus; the study opposes the work of Eagly and Johnson (1990) and Eagly et al. (2013). Interestingly, the study confirms that females have higher people orientation and participative style. Therefore, the findings support the work of Eagly and Johnson (1990), Eagly et al. (2013) and Haque et al. (2017) in this
aspect. On the other hand, the study is aligned with the work of Rosener (1990), Merchant (2012), and Haque et al. (2017) as it has found overall males have higher preference for masculine style, reflecting autocratic and task-orientation. However, there is a unique finding that in Pakistan males prefer feminine style while females demonstrated masculine style. Ideally, this could be due to the prevailing organisational culture. Thus, the study supports the previous work of Nair and Sommerville (2017) by confirming that organisational culture has significant impact on the various existing professional and personal attributes of the individuals. In other words, it could be said that culture influences leaders. Therefore, the authors support this notion identified by Hofstede (1996), Schein (2004) and House et al. (2004). Additionally, the study does not find any relevance among web structure always preferred by feminine leaders thus it contradicts the work of Helgesen (1990).

Present study supports the school of thought that considers significant difference between feminine and masculine leadership style. However, the authors also found that only in Pakistan, the females preferred masculine style thus the study supports the work of Gardiner and Tiggemann (1990), Eagly and Johnson (1990) and Ferrario and Davidson (1991).

However, there is still no conclusive evidence behind change in the female leadership because of an attempt to narrow the gap between distinctions demonstrated by male leaders. Conversely, the authors attribute the change is due to other interlinked organisational factors. In addition to that, the study used funnel approach of Haque and Aston (2016) to measure the variation between the modifications in the leadership style due to change in the marital status. Surprisingly, the authors found that most females demonstrating masculine style are married thus the study supports partially the work of Konard et al. (2000) and Twenge (2001).

However, in general the authors also noticed that married males have demonstrated feminine leadership style thus; in this aspect the study has a striking difference with the work of Konard et al. (2000). Additionally, it confirms that irrespective of the gender, both feminine and masculine styles of leadership are effective in managing the diversified workforce. Hence, it supports the work of Eagly et al. (1995).

The authors found that various societal constraints and personal factors affect the female representation at the top tier. Hence, the study partially supports the work of Haque and Aston (2016), Haque et al. (2016), Haque et al. (2017), and Nair et al. (2017). However, there is no conclusive evidence regarding the major hindering factor that has limited the role of females' representation at top level. Furthermore, this study supports the work of Haque et al. (2017) while opposing the findings of Northouse (2007) that females are stricter in comparison to males. In fact, the authors have found that females are more flexible and open to negotiate and dialogues. As evident above in this study, it confirms that males could also demonstrate feminine leadership style and be successful with it and vice versa.
Thus, it opposes the argument of Eagly et al. (2013) that males always demonstrate and succeed with masculine style and females' success by demonstrating feminine leadership style.

**Conclusion and Recommendations**

From the above study, it is concluded that irrespective of gender the feminine leadership statistically significantly affects IT sectors' employees in all four countries. However, the variations evident in both developed and developing countries, especially masculine leadership is more dominant in developed economies while feminine leadership styles in emerging economies. Furthermore, under masculine style, males' preference to work is lower while females are effective under both masculine and feminine style but highly prefers to work under feminine style in the IT sector. Among these four countries, Pakistani males demonstrate higher feminine leadership while in rest females have higher tendency to demonstrate it. Interestingly, considering comparative analysis the authors have found that in UK, females have shown higher demonstration of masculine style of leadership when compared to other economies. The study also concludes that females exhibit people-orientation and participative leadership style to larger extent while individuals with masculine style of leadership focus more on task-orientation and autocratic style. Additionally, the study finds out that the organisational culture has significant impact on the attributes of the individuals. Interestingly, in the IT sectors of all considered four countries, glass ceiling is not evident. Moreover, in the developing countries like India and Pakistan there are higher chances for progression to upper tier to females in contrast to developed economies like the UK and Canada where progression is slower. Furthermore, the societal factors and personal factors affect females at top level more significantly in contrast to those operating on other layers.

Based on these findings, the study recommends that IT organisations need to work on developing higher flexibility in operations. As evident under feminine style there is higher chance of smooth and swift operations therefore the policies and procedures in all targeted economies shall consider acceptance and adaption of flexible stance. Furthermore, the need assessment is vital therefore, contingent approach should be developed as we found that although in emerging economies feminine style is more suitable while in developed economies masculine is more effective thus, the IT sectors should focus on fourfold leadership style and continue with the approach to further excel in operations. In addition to that, the study confirms that glass-ceiling concept is not evident but management shall consider free flow of information and communication in both horizontal and vertical manner so that it can reduce the gap in gender affecting principle and auxiliary operations. Those organizations having adequate communication channels have been found to have fewer constraints for females to participate and progress. Furthermore, the management shall encourage gender-diversity at top to be more competitive because it enables firms to be more productive and competitive in short and long-
term operations. Additionally, the management should promote the environment of circular learning by stating the policy of desk-to-desk rotation. This will enable workers to be more versatile and a chance to learn under different styles of leadership. There are certain limitations attached with this research but it does not affect the validity and reliability of findings. This limitation serves a platform for the future researchers to further explore the research phenomenon. One of the limitations is research design. The respondents were only asked once in given time interval. However, it would have been exciting to know the variations in different time interval. Moreover, there was no control variables considered to attain holistic picture but this could be interesting if future researchers consider controllable variables such as age, experience, and job-related features. Lastly, this study focuses highly on the numeric expression by excluding qualitative aspects. The future researchers shall consider pragmatic approach by interviewing to further explore the variables of interest.

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