

ATHABASCA UNIVERSITY

LEADERSHIP STYLES IN MALE-DOMINATED ORGANIZATIONS:

A MIXED-METHODS STUDY

BY

STEPHANIE MANGAN

A DISSERTATION

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES

IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF

DOCTOR OF BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

FACULTY OF BUSINESS

ATHABASCA, ALBERTA

MAY, 2019

cc STEPHANIE MANGAN



**Approval of Dissertation**

The undersigned certify that they have read the dissertation entitled:

**LEADERSHIP STYLES IN MALE-DOMINATED ORGANIZATIONS:  
A MIXED METHODS STUDY**

Submitted by:

**Stephanie Mangan**

In partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

**Doctor of Business Administration**

The examination committee certifies that the dissertation  
and the oral examination is approved

**Supervisor:**

Dr. Angela Workman-Stark  
Athabasca University

**Committee Members:**

Dr. Alan Okros  
Canadian Forces College

Clare Beckton  
Carleton University

**External Examiner:**

Dr. Julie Weatherhead  
University of Calgary

May 1, 2019

## Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to my partner Michael Frimpong, for his constant support of this pursuit and all the time and space he gave me to complete it, and to my three boys, Caden, Jordan, and Tyson, whom I hope to inspire to achieve their own goals.

## Acknowledgements

I am grateful to have the support and encouragement of friends, family, colleagues, and professors. I would like to acknowledge the support of my dissertation committee. Thank you to my supervisor Dr. Angela Workman-Stark for the consistent guidance, advice and feedback through every step of this process, and to the committee members Dr. Alan Okros and Clare Beckton, for their support.

A special thank you to Moe and Steve, for providing me with everything I needed.

### Abstract

Women continue to be under-represented in senior leadership positions, particularly in male dominated organizations. Despite this gap, popular literature including the New York Times and the Harvard Business Review have espoused the benefits of hiring female leaders. Women, more so than men, are thought to exhibit the nurturing and empowering characteristics of the transformational leadership style that is the popular method of leadership sought by today's organizations. Academic researchers have tended to argue against gender differences in leadership style. However, some scholars have found that women tend to be more transformational than men, except in the presence of moderators such as a predominately-male sex composition of the organizational hierarchy. Using the constructs of transformational and transactional leadership, this mixed-methods study employed the Multi-Factor Leadership Questionnaire and semi-structured interviews to explore the leadership practices of male and female leaders in a male dominated organization. The theoretical paradigms of role congruity theory and social identity theory allowed for the examination of stereotypes and prejudices against female leaders that influenced their leadership styles and provided insight into the evaluative differences between male and female leaders. The quantitative results reveal that both male and female leaders rated themselves as more transformational than transactional, with men just as likely as women to use a transformational leadership style. A thematic analysis of qualitative data revealed two overarching themes, which were applied to the research questions. The results indicate that some women alter their leadership behaviours when leading in a male dominated environment and perceive they are evaluated differently when leading in a transformational manner in male dominated roles.

Keywords: female, leadership, male dominated, gender roles, performance, effectiveness

## Table of Contents

Approval Page.....	ii
Dedication.....	iii
Acknowledgements.....	iv
Abstract.....	v
List of Tables.....	ix
Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study.....	1
Statement of the Problem.....	6
Purpose of the Study .....	8
Research Questions.....	8
Hypotheses .....	9
Nature of the Study .....	9
Significance of the Study .....	10
Definition of Key Terms .....	11
Assumptions.....	12
Limitations .....	13
Delimitations.....	14
Summary .....	14
Chapter 2: Review of the Literature.....	15
Introduction.....	15
Gender and Leadership .....	20
Male Dominated Organizations and Leadership Roles .....	24
Female Leadership in Male Dominated Organizations .....	27
Social Identity and Role Congruity Theories.....	29
Summary .....	35
Chapter 3: Research Methods .....	37
Introduction.....	37
Research Design.....	37
Description of Site .....	40

Table 1. CBSA Senior Leadership Structure 2017 .....	41
Population and Sample .....	42
Table 2. Demographics of Quantitative Survey Participants.....	45
Table 3. Demographics of Qualitative Interview Participants.....	46
Research Instrument.....	46
Research Procedures .....	48
Data Analysis .....	50
Researcher Positionality.....	52
Protection of Study Participants.....	54
Informed Consent.....	54
Confidentiality .....	55
Summary .....	55
Chapter 4: Data Analysis and Results.....	57
Overview .....	57
Quantitative Data Analysis .....	57
Table 4. Descriptive Statistics of Quantitative Survey Participants .....	58
Table 5. Leadership Mean Scores, by Gender .....	59
Table 6. Individual Factor Scores of Transformational and Transactional Leadership.....	60
Table 7. Transformational Leadership Scores of Qualitative Interview Participants ..	61
Qualitative Data Analysis .....	61
Table 8. Demographics of Qualitative Interview Participants.....	61
Table 9. Emergent Themes .....	63
Summary .....	71
Chapter 5: Discussion .....	73
Review .....	73
Restatement of Purpose.....	74
Interpretation of Key Findings.....	75
Implications for Theory and Practice.....	81
Limitations .....	83
Recommendations for Future Study .....	84
Conclusions.....	87

References .....	88
Appendix A: Invitation to Participate .....	111
Appendix B: Interview Guide .....	112
Appendix C: Alphabetical List of Basic Themes .....	113
Appendix D: First, Second and Third Order Themes.....	116
Appendix E: Certification of Ethical Approval for Pilot Project.....	119
Appendix F: Certification of Ethical Approval for Research Project.....	120



List of Tables

Table 1. CBSA Senior Leadership Structure 2017 .....	41
Table 2. Demographics of Quantitative Survey Participants.....	45
Table 3. Demographics of Qualitative Interview Participants.....	46
Table 4. Descriptive Statistics of Quantitative Survey Participants .....	58
Table 5. Leadership Mean Scores, by Gender .....	59
Table 6. Individual Factor Scores of Transformational and Transactional Leadership.....	60
Table 7. Transformational Leadership Scores of Qualitative Interview Participants .....	61
Table 8. Demographics of Qualitative Interview Participants.....	61
Table 9. Emergent Themes .....	63

## **Chapter 1. Introduction to the Study**

*In the Vice President's boardroom on the 19<sup>th</sup> floor, a monthly meeting of Operations Branch executives in the field of law enforcement takes place. The executives are two women and five men, from seven regions across Canada and they meet to discuss issues facing frontline officers. At the helm, is the Vice-President, sharply dressed in a crisp, navy uniform with stripes on the shoulders, and medals across the breast, signifying authority and accomplishment. The Vice-President commands the Operations Branch, which includes more than 6500 officers across the country that deal with issues of immigration, the importation of illegal contraband, and the processing of goods and people in a 24/7 operational environment. The meeting moves quickly as the Vice-President is brisk, efficient, and has a reputation for no nonsense. The Vice-President is also a young woman.*

While the above passage is a reality in the organizations of today, for a female to become the Vice-President of a national law enforcement agency was not always achievable. There is no doubt that the last decades of the 20<sup>th</sup> century saw considerable progress in the advancement of women in the workforce. Even in the traditionally male roles at the senior management levels progress has been made. In 1980, there were no women in the top executive ranks of the Fortune 100, however, by 2001, 11 percent of those corporate leaders were women (Warner, 2014). The number of women in global political leadership positions has also steadily increased over the past 40 years (Vecchio, 2002). For the first time in history, women represent almost half of the workforce in both Canada and the United States. The entry of women into the ranks of management as well as a shift in modern management style has brought about a debate on sex, gender, and leadership.

Historically, powerful and effective leadership has been associated with a masculine ethic. However, with an increasing presence in management, women, and the possible differences they bring to leadership, have become a topic of interest. In fact, recent research and popular literature claim that women are better leaders than men (Yukl, 2002; Smith, 2009). Books such as Helgesen's "*The Female Advantage: Women's Ways of Leadership*" espouse a feminine edge in leadership style. The New York Times published an article with the headlines "*No doubts: Women are Better Managers*" and the Harvard Business Review conducted a study that concluded that at every level, more women were rated by their peers, their bosses, their direct reports, and their other associates as better overall leaders (Zenger & Folkman, 2012).

At the core of the debate on sex, gender, and leadership is the question as to whether or not males and females differ in their displayed leadership behaviour as a result of sex. Sex refers to the binary categories of male and female assigned based on biological characteristics while gender to the socially constructed roles, behaviours, activities, and attributes that a given society considers appropriate for men and women. (Archer & Lloyd, 2002; Lippa, 2006). The argument for the female advantage is predicated on the socially constructed behaviours and gender expectations that view women as more transformational leaders while men are viewed as more transactional leaders (Helgesen, 1990).

Transactional leadership is characterized by transaction and reward behaviours, with the leader identifying the expectations of their followers and responding to them by establishing a close link between effort and reward (Burns, 1978). Authority is given to the leader to evaluate, correct, and train subordinates when performance needs to be improved and to reward effectiveness when the required outcomes are achieved. Transformational leadership is characterized by encouragement and empowerment of followers, leading them to do more than

they were originally expected to do (Bass, 1985). This leadership style motivates followers to perform at higher levels, and builds respect, trust and heightens personal development. In the evolution of leadership styles, transformational leadership is currently thought to be the most effective leadership style for modern organizations (Flood, et al. 2000; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Martin, 2017).

As women are more often viewed as transformational leaders, this has led some researchers and practitioners to conclude that women may be better leaders than men (Harvard Business Review, 2012; McKinsey & Company & Leanin.org; 2016). A review of the literature on gender differences in leadership style indicates a great deal of debate. However, there is a body of research that supports the argument (Bass et al., 1996; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Eagly, Karau, & Johnson 1992; Helgesen, 1990; Loden, 1985; Rosener, 1990; Rosener, 1995; Rudman & Glick, 2001; Van Engen & Willemssen, 2004).

Studies asserting gender differences have generally concentrated on leadership models that contrast transformational leadership with transactional leadership and management-by-exception leadership. Researchers have found that women tend to enact more interpersonally oriented (which is more closely aligned with transformational leadership) styles than men (Bass & Avolio, 1992; Eagly & Johnson 1990, Eagly et al. 2003; van Engen and Willemssen 2004; Carless, 1998). van Engen and Willemssen (2004) carried out a meta-analysis of studies published between 1987 and 2000 concerning gender differences in all leadership styles and confirmed that women tend to use democratic and transformational leadership styles to a greater extent than men. Eagly and Johnson (1990) found that there is a tendency for men to lead in a more autocratic manner, which closely aligns with transactional leadership, while women tend to lead in a more democratic manner, which closely aligns with transformational leadership. However,

not all researchers are in agreement with these findings (Dobbins & Platz, 1986; Hyde, 2005; Vecchio, 2002). For example, Vecchio (2002) asserts that in the aggregate, the sexes do differ with respect to social actions; however, he criticizes the finding of Eagly and Johnson's (1990) meta-analysis as weak, and based largely on non-standardized measures of leader behaviour including self-reports rather than independent observer ratings. Critics further note that the argument for differences in leadership style based on gender is too simplistic. They assert that this argument fails to take into account contextual moderators such as the features of the leadership context, including the characteristics of the leader's evaluators, the type of work associated with the leadership role, as well as the perceived incongruity between the characteristics of women and the requirements of leader roles (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014; Yukl, 2002).

Leadership context is an important consideration. As previously noted, women make up almost half of the workforce, however simple cross-agency comparisons of the status of women and excessive focus on women's share of total employment can give a misleading picture (Mastracci & Bowman, 2015). Women continue to be underrepresented in male dominated organizations (male dominated here refers to the representation of gender in the workforce, but can also refer to the ethic or culture of the organization which will be further explored in the next chapter). As an example, research indicates that 67% of employed Canadian women work in industries in which they have traditionally been concentrated such as teaching, nursing and related health occupations, clerical or other administrative positions, or sales and service occupations (Statistics Canada, 2015). Professions, such as law enforcement, medicine, engineering, and construction continue to be male dominated. Additionally, women continue to

be underrepresented in traditionally male dominated roles, such as operational (or line) leadership roles.

The type of leadership role, whether an operational (or “line” role) or a staff role, is an important distinction. Line functions are associated with core business functions that contribute directly to the organization’s primary goals (Heraty & Morley, 1995). The strengths of line managers represent the more traditional task mentality for organizations (Church & Waclawski, 2001). Line managers are thought to be customer-driven, focused on the task, and getting the job done. Conversely, staff functions are associated with activities, such as administrative functions, that support the line functions of the organization (Heraty & Morley, 1995). Staff managers are thought to represent the more process-driven side of the organization (Church & Waclawski, 2001). For example, staff managers include those roles in organizational development, human resources and information systems functions (Church & Waclawski, 2001). Line experience, in areas such as operations or manufacturing is often deemed an essential prerequisite for the senior management positions (Oakley, 2000). However, accessing key operational leadership roles can be challenging for women. Scholars such as Daily and Dalton (2003) contend that women tend to occupy relatively few of the most highly compensated executive positions in the Fortune 500 due, in part, to the relatively larger percentage of female executives in staff versus line positions as compared to their male counterparts. These staff positions will, on average, pay less than line or operational roles (Daily & Dalton, 2003). Additionally, the lack of access to key operational roles that generate critical knowledge and experience within organizations may impede the very progress of women towards senior leadership (Daily & Dalton, 2003; Lyness & Heilman, 2006). For example, in an interview with the New York Times following her resignation, Pepsi’s Chief

Executive Officer Indra Nooyi noted that she would have loved for the board to select a woman to fill her vacancy but there just weren't any women that had the requisite experience for the job.

If, as some research claims, women may be better suited to lead today's organizations because they utilize an effective leadership style, we must account for why women continue to be underrepresented in senior leadership positions and male dominated roles (Barreto, Ryan & Schmidt, 2009; McKinsey and Company, 2018; Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014). Researchers have suggested that overt or covert discrimination and the differential treatment of women and men because of their gender contributes to the glass ceiling effect for women (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Heilman, 2001; Ridgeway, 2001). The gender role stereotypes that are most often prescribed to women include kindness and concern for individual well-being. Those that are prescribed to men include aggressiveness, assertiveness, and authority. Research indicates that the attributes prescribed to men are more closely aligned with those associated with successful leaders (Koenig, Eagly, Mitchell, & Ristikari, 2011; Lyness & Thompson, 1997; Schein & Davidson, 1993). These gender role attributes impact access to leadership roles as well as perceived performance within those roles (Eagly et al., 1992; Koenig et al., 2011; Powell & Butterfield, 1979, 2015; Powell et al., 2002; Schein & Davidson, 1993). The role incongruity between the attributes prescribed to women and the perceived demands of leadership may make it seem that women do not have what it takes for key leadership roles, which contributes to the biased evaluation of women as leaders (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Koenig et al. 2011).

### **Statement of the Problem**

A review of the literature indicates that there is a debate as to whether or not there are differences in leadership styles that can be attributed to gender. Eagly and Johnson (1990) argue that this debate can be partly attributed to the differences in methodologies. While reports in the

professional literature base the presence of gender differences on their experiences and impressions gleaned from practicing managers, social scientists have typically based their conclusions on more formal studies of managerial behaviour gathered via questionnaire or behavioural observations and analyzed quantitatively. However, there is some empirical evidence indicating that women tend to enact more transformational leadership styles than men (Bass et al. 1996; Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Eagly et al. 2002; Helgesen, 1990; Rosener, 1990; Rosener, 1995). In a meta-analysis of studies conducted on leadership, the strongest evidence Eagly and Johnson (1990) found with respect to a gender difference in leadership style occurred on the tendency for women to adopt a more democratic or participative style and for men to adopt a more autocratic or directive style. These styles correspond to the current paradigms of transformational and transactional leadership styles respectively.

Given the current popularity of transformational leadership in the literature, and its ability to allow leaders to bring about positive change by using inspiration, vision, and motivation to transcend self-interests for a collective purpose (Avolio, Waldman, & Yammarino, 1991), some researchers have asserted that women may be better suited to lead in today's organizations (Smith, 2009; Yukl, 2002). However, within their research, Eagly and Johnson (1990) noted that to the extent the organizational composition was predominately male, the tendencies for women (vs. men) to show more concern about interpersonal relations and to be more democratic weakened. This provides support for the assertion that women may tend to employ a more transactional leadership style when occupying male dominated roles or leading in male dominated organizations. If women tend to lead in a more transformational manner, except in male dominated organizations, this may mean they are less effective than they could be in leadership positions (Carli 1989; van Engen et al. 2001; Eagly & Johnson, 1990). Additionally, if



transformational leadership is accepted as the most effective leadership style for today's organizations, then male dominated organizations may be failing to capitalize on female leaders' potential. Further investigation of this theory in relation to women leading in male dominated organizations is required (Eagly et al. 1995).

### **Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this study was to examine the differences in leadership styles of men and women in male dominated organizations and specifically, to determine if women tend to lead in a more transactional manner when leading in roles typically considered masculine (operational or line roles) versus roles traditionally depicted as feminine (administrative or staff roles). Additionally, this research sought to determine if women perceive they are evaluated differently in these leadership roles. Data were collected from a sample population of leaders in the Canadian law enforcement agency, the Canada Border Service Agency. The present study builds on the body of research on differences in leadership styles of men and women (Eagly et al. 2003; Eagly & Johnson 1990; van Engen & Willemsen 2004) by conducting one of few empirical studies of transformational leadership styles in a Canadian law enforcement setting.

### **Research Questions**

This study examined the leadership styles of men and women and explored the perception of effectiveness of women in male dominated roles. The following research questions guided this study:

RQ1: Is there a difference in leadership styles adopted by men and women in male dominated organizations?

RQ2: Do men and women shift their leadership style based on the nature of the role, whether an operational (line) role or an administrative (staff) role?

RQ3: Do women perceive that they are evaluated less favorably if they adopt a transformational leadership style?

### **Hypotheses**

H1: Female and male leaders are more likely to adopt a transactional style of leadership in male dominated organizations.

H2: Female and male leaders are more likely to shift to a transformational leadership style in administrative versus operational functions.

H3: Female leaders will perceive they are evaluated more negatively in line roles than staff roles.

### **Nature of the Study**

A mixed methods approach was used which incorporated the quantitative advantages associated with the use of a survey with the qualitative advantages of semi-structured interviews. Researchers commonly use surveys in social science research to collect data from a sample for the purpose of generalizing findings to a larger population (Creswell, 2009). However, because leadership involves multiple levels of phenomena, has a dynamic character and symbolic component, researchers have argued that quantitative methods are insufficient when testing theories about its nature (Parry et al. 2014). The advantages of doing qualitative research on leadership include flexibility to follow unexpected ideas during research, sensitivity to contextual factors, and increased opportunities to test new ideas and theories (Parry et al. 2014). Using a qualitative research method allowed for insight into the complexity and depth of leadership. The population for this study consisted of Executive level employees within the Canada Border Services Agency. The employees were both male and female to allow for a comparative analysis. The sampling frame was established using internal organizational charts that identified executive

leaders across the organization. Additionally, the researcher had access to Human Resources data that permitted identification of operational (line) and staff (administrative) leader roles. Chapter 3 provides a more detailed discussion of the selected research methodology, sample design, survey instrument, data collection and analysis procedures, and describes the steps taken to ensure the ethical protection of research participants.

For the quantitative portion of this study, the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) developed by Bass and associates was sent to participants (Bass, 1990; Bass & Avolio, 1990, 1994; Seltzer & Bass 1990) via a link in an email. Primary data collection methods were employed and participants voluntarily completed the survey. The use of the self-administered questionnaire also minimizes the role of the researcher in the data collection process (Fowler, 1995). The variable being explored was leadership style in relation to the nature of the leadership role. The qualitative portion of this research consisted of semi-structured interviews with the aim to build more robust research and add context to the leader's responses to the questionnaire. Interviews are commonly associated with qualitative research and allow the researcher to gain insight into the participant's beliefs and attitudes on a particular subject (Wilson, 2014). While leadership is a well-researched area of interest, there currently exists very little research on female leadership in federal law enforcement agencies (Parry et al., 2014).

### **Significance of the Study**

The results of this study contribute to the existing literature on sex and leadership styles in a number of different ways. Firstly, this study is one of few empirical studies to explore the differences in leadership style by gender and functional role in a Canadian law enforcement setting. Secondly, this research produced findings that are contradictory to much of the current literature in that male leaders were just as likely to adopt a transformational leadership style as

female leaders. Finally, this study provides important practical implications for the organization under study with respect to the experiences of male and female leaders.

Organizations and institutions have realized the importance of leadership and are seeking to maximize leadership potential with the aim of gaining an increased and sustainable competitive edge. The benefits of a study of leadership styles used by executives across varying positions provides invaluable information to an organization, including how best to support their leaders.

### **Definition of Key Terms**

**Laissez-faire leadership:** Refers to the leadership style in which the leader tends not to focus in on their subordinates but more on their own needs and wants. These leaders tend to delay decision-making decisions, provide little feedback, and make little effort toward subordinate development (Avolio, 1999; Bass, 1998; Burns, 1978).

**Leadership style:** Refers to the relatively stable patterns of behaviour that are manifested by leaders, which in this study are differentiated between transformational and transactional styles (Eagly & Schmidt, 2001).

**Leader:** For this research, a leader refers to those at the Executive 1 (EX1) to Executive 5 (EX5) level within the Canada Border Service Agency in the Canadian Public Service.

**Multifactor leadership questionnaire:** A questionnaire developed by Bass and Avolio (1995) focusing on individual behaviours that transform individuals and organizations; the MLQ assesses leadership behaviours that motivate associates to achieve agreed upon and expected levels of performance. The MLQ is suitable for administration at all levels of organizations and across different sectors.

MLQ 5X Short: A validated form of 45 items for organizational survey and research purposes and for preparation of individual leader reports developed in response to criticisms of the MLQ (Avolio and Bass, 2004). Leaders complete the MLQ 5X Short to obtain their perceived level of transformational leadership.

Transformational leadership: Refers to the leadership style in which the leader aims to empower followers and encourage them to do more than they are originally expected to do (Bass, 1985). Transformational leaders motivate followers to perform at higher levels and to show more commitment. They encourage and support followers and assist in their development by promoting growth opportunities. They show trust and respect and build and heighten followers' personal development.

Transactional leadership: Refers to the leadership style in which leaders identify the expectations of their followers and respond to them by establishing a close link between effort and reward. Authority is given to the leader to evaluate, correct and train subordinates when performance needs to be improved and to reward effectiveness when the required outcomes are achieved (Avolio, 1999; Bass, 1998; Burns, 1978).

### **Assumptions**

There were two assumptions made for the purpose of this study. The first assumption was that participating leaders would exhibit some of the behavioural manifestations of transformational leadership in varying levels. Although it was anticipated that not all leaders would lead in a transformational manner, there was the assumption that some of the components of transformational leadership such as idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration would be part of the leader's behaviours. The second assumption was that participants would respond honestly to the survey, and to any follow up

questions in a qualitative interview. Each participant received a thorough explanation of the aim of the study and the privacy of each participant was protected. The participants' confidentiality was guaranteed.

### **Limitations**

There are limitations that are important to note regarding this research. Firstly, the study was conducted using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (5X Short) (Part One) and qualitative interviews (Part Two), both of which provided subjective assessments of the participant's opinion of their own leadership styles. Additionally, as the participants were solicited it should be interpreted that they were interested in this topic, and wanted to contribute to the research. Secondly, while response rates are generally high for internet-based survey's and face-to-face interviews (De Vaus, 2002), the sample size was small. Of the 164 executives sent the survey, 58 were women, and 106 were men. In total, 50 participants responded to the survey (30% of the population), 24 were men and 26 were women. For Part Two of the study, the qualitative interview, there were 10 participants (20% of population) six of which were men, four of which were women. The small sample size may impact the generalizability of the data obtained. Thirdly, the setting of the study was limited to senior leaders in the Canada Border Services Agency, which limits the generalizability of the findings. Finally, researcher positionality must be considered as a limitation as the researcher is both a woman and a member of the organization, which may have introduced subjective biases to the research. Care should be taken when thinking about how the information obtained in this study may or may not be applicable to all experiences for leaders in male dominated organizations. These limitations will be discussed in further detail in Chapter 5.

### **Delimitations**

A purposive sample of leaders, including Directors, Executive Directors, Directors General, Associate Vice-Presidents, and Vice-Presidents within the Canada Border Services Agency, a male dominated organization, was selected to respond to surveys. The focus was on gender and the dependent variable, transformational leadership. Leaders were considered transformational by the measured results on the leader self-rated MLQ (5x-Short). The aim of the study was to examine any links between gender and transformational leadership. However, it was recognized that contextual influences, which include organizational structure, organizational culture, organizational climate, organizational objectives, communication, empowerment, and ethics, can affect the leadership style adopted, as could the leader's tenure in the organization, educational level, or years in a management position.

### **Summary**

This section provided an introduction to the dissertation and set the scene for the research topic and questions. The next chapter provides an introduction to leadership as well as transformational and transactional leadership styles, and discusses gender and leadership, gender stereotypes and differences in leadership style, as well as the impact of leadership styles on perceived effectiveness. Chapter 3 outlines the method of inquiry, ethical considerations and expected outcomes. Chapter 4 provides the data analysis for both the quantitative and qualitative portion of the study and Chapter 5 is a discussion of the results and recommendations.

## **Chapter 2. Review of the Literature**

### **Introduction**

The goal of this present study was to examine the differences in leadership styles of men and women in male dominated organizations, and specifically to determine if women tend to lead in a more transactional manner when leading in roles typically considered masculine (operational or line roles) versus roles traditionally depicted as feminine (administrative or staff roles). Additionally, this research sought to determine if women perceive they are evaluated differently in these leadership roles. In support of that aim, the following chapter defines leadership for the purpose of the study and provides an introduction to transformational and transactional leadership, asserting that women tend toward a more transformational leadership style. Following this, an examination of traditional male and female gender and leader stereotypes demonstrates that masculine stereotypes are still associated with leadership positions. Finally, a review of role congruity theory illustrates how prejudice is triggered when female leaders violate these stereotypes by attempting to occupy leadership roles that are in conflict with these expectancies, while a review of social identity theory illustrates how individuals will likely act differently in varying social contexts according to the groups they belong to. The focus of this chapter is on the literature that examines women's representation in male dominated organizations and leadership roles within those organizations, as well as how stereotypes around leadership styles and gender roles may be contributing to that phenomenon.

In order to complete the review, the researcher utilized the academic database at Athabasca University in addition to reference listings from relevant dissertations, scholarly texts, and peer-reviewed journal articles. The areas of focus for this study included: female leadership,



law enforcement, gender and leadership style, leadership effectiveness, performance evaluation, leadership performance, role congruity theory, and social identity theory.

### **Leadership**

For the purpose of this study, leadership will be defined as the process of persuasion by which an individual induces an individual or members of a group to pursue objectives held by the leader, or shared objectives between the leader and followers (Antonakis & Day, 2003; Eagly & Schmidt, 2001; Gardner, 1990; Stogdill, 1950). Leaders are corporate officers that occupy a position that confers decision-making authority and the ability to influence others' pay or promotions (Eagly & Carli, 2003). In highlighting this definition, it is also important to note that leadership is not the same as power or management. Power refers to the various means leaders have to influence others; therefore, formal authority is not a necessary component (Antonakis & Day, 2003). Management is task-driven, focussed on organising and planning, with goals arising out of necessity and the fulfillment of contractual obligations while leadership is purpose-driven based on personal and organizational values, ideals, and emotional exchanges (Antonakis & Day, 2003; Kotter, 1990; Zaleznik, 1977).

Since at least the early 1900's, there has been considerable interest in the concepts, cultures, change strategies, and organizational structures of high performing organizations. Practitioners and scholars of leadership have argued that leadership impacts the success or failure of organizations (Bass, 1985; Canella & Rowe, 1995). Leadership style is an important component of leadership and refers to the relatively stable patterns of behaviour that are manifested by leaders, or more simply, the manner in which followers are led (Eagly & Schmidt, 2001). Effective leadership has been shown to enhance organizational performance and assist in the achievement of goals whereas ineffective leadership has been shown to have a negative effect

on both employee and organizational performance (Amabile, Schatzel, Moneta & Kramer, 2004; Bass, 1985; Bass & Stogdill, 1990; Gordon & Yukl, 2004).

Because effective leadership has been shown to enhance organizational performance, there is heightened interest in understanding the relationship between these two variables (Berson & Linton, 2005). Accordingly, numerous theories, models, and concepts of leadership style have been developed in the past 100 years. An in-depth review of the literature revealed that leadership theories have expanded from notions of inborn traits, to personal characteristics, to a reciprocal exchange with subordinates, to behaviours that can be observed, evaluated and developed. This research focuses on Bass's (1985) transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership or "full-range" leadership theory, which is one of the most researched contemporary theories (Gardner et al., 2010; Hunt, 2004; Lowe & Gardner, 2000).

### **Transformational, and Transactional Leadership**

The transformational leadership style was introduced during the late 1970's and was categorized under the New Leadership school of thought along with the visionary and charismatic leadership styles (Antonakis & Day, 2003). Under this school of thought, effective leaders were believed to have integrity, maintain a balanced lifestyle, be socially responsible and be genuinely concerned about others (Adair, 1983). During this period, Burns (1978) operationalized transformational leadership as distinct from transactional. Burns (1978), and other researchers, argued that prior leadership theories were mainly transactional. Transactional leaders typically build relationships with subordinates that are reciprocal in manner, based on the exchange of valued things, which could be economic, political or psychological in nature (Birnbaum, Bensimon, & Neumann, 1989). A transactional leader offers contingent rewards based on satisfactory performance, utilizes passive management by exception (the leader waits

for subordinates to make mistakes prior to taking corrective action), and active management by exception as a means of exerting power and influence (subordinates mistakes are pointed out as a warning for others; Bass and Riggio, 2006).

Transformational leadership has been conceptualized as leadership that promotes and develops vision in followers (Burns, 1978; Bass, 1985). Burns (1978, p.20) described the transformational style as moral leadership that “raises the level of human conduct and ethical aspiration of both leader and led, and thus it has a transforming effect on both”. Though, distinct from charismatic leadership, transformational leaders show charisma, nurture, encourage and motivate employees. They treat followers differently but equitably based on their needs (Maher, 1997). The transformational leader convinces followers to transcend their self-interest for the sake of the organization. Bass (1985) modified the original concept of transformational leadership to include four factors, or components: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration.

The transformational leader exhibits each of the four components, to varying degrees, with the goal of achieving desired organizational outcomes through their followers (Bass 1985; 1990). The first factor, idealized influence, posits that followers attribute the leader with certain qualities that the follower wants to emulate while the leader impresses followers through their behaviours (Bass & Riggio 2006; McCleskey, 2014). Inspirational motivation involves leader behaviour, such as enthusiasm and optimism that motivates and inspires followers by providing shared meaning and challenges (Bass & Riggio 2006; McCleskey, 2014). Intellectual stimulation provides leaders with the opportunity to increase follower efforts by questioning assumptions, reframing problems, and applying new frameworks and perspectives to challenges (Bass & Riggio 2006; McCleskey, 2014). Open communication without fear of criticism leads to

increased confidence in followers in problem-solving, which in turn leads to increased self-efficacy and overall effectiveness (Bass & Riggio 2006; McCleskey, 2014). The final factor, individualized consideration, is where leaders provide coaching and mentoring to subordinates in order to help achieve both personal and collective goals and growth (Bass & Riggio 2006; McCleskey, 2014). These factors were foundational to research endeavors that ultimately yielded the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire 29 (MLQ) a validated instrument that is widely used as a research tool for leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1995).

Contemporary leadership theorists have placed leadership styles on a continuum in terms of effectiveness, with the laissez-faire leadership style at the bottom end, transactional in the middle of the continuum, and transformational at the top (Avolio, 1994; Bass 1985; Berson & Linton, 2005). The laissez-faire leadership style is characterized by a leader that tends to focus more on their own needs and wants than those of their subordinates. These leaders tend to delay decision-making decisions, provide little feedback, and make little effort toward subordinate development (Avolio, 1999; Bass, 1998; Burns, 1978). Bass and Avolio's (2004) leadership theory proposed a relationship between transformational and transactional leadership which suggested that, although transactional leadership can be an effective leadership model, the inherent aspects of transformational leadership work together to have a greater impact on the performance and outcomes of these leaders. Bass stated, "The transactional leader works within the existing organizational culture; the transformational leader changes it" (Bass & Avolio, 2004, p. 33). This style of leadership gets to the heart of working with people in creating relationships that preserve a sense of community and common goals among everyone in the organization. Studies have shown the positive performance outcomes by which transformational leadership has

had an impact (Bass & Avolio, 2004; Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, & van Engen, 2003; Jones & Rudd, 2008; Smith & Bell, 2011).

In today's environment of constant change, with demand for innovation, flexibility, and adaptability, organizations, academics, and practitioners have identified the transformational leadership style as more suitable for responding to these demands than the transactional leadership style (Flood, et al. 2000; Judge & Piccolo, 2004; Martin, 2017). Through its Canada Blueprint 2020 initiative, the Federal Government of Canada has identified principles and competencies that are consistent with the aims and objectives of transformational leadership. For instance, the goal of the Blueprint 2020 exercise has been to chart a new course in shaping large-scale organizational culture change in the public sector. The principles include an open and networked environment, a whole-of-government approach that enhances service delivery, a modern workplace that makes smart use of new technologies, and a capable, confident and high-performing workforce that embraces new ways of working and mobilizes a diversity of talent (Government of Canada, 2016). Additionally, the key competencies for executives are consistent with transformational leadership in that they include mobilizing people, promoting innovation and guiding change, and creating vision and strategy (Treasury Board of Canada, 2016).

### **Gender and Leadership**

Throughout history, the majority of leaders have been men. In the early 19<sup>th</sup> century, traits such as tough-mindedness, analytic ability, and a capacity to put aside personal emotions in the interest of task accomplishment were valued (Kanter, 1977). As the proportion of female leaders began to rise in the 1960's and 1970's, studies of relationships among gender and leader stereotypes emerged. Kanter (1977) notes that the development of the human relations theories in the 1960's and 1970's added a feminized element to the old masculine ethic, yet still directed

women into administrative roles such as human resources. It was believed that women could manage personnel staff as they understand people better, yet the lack of a “masculine ethic” was cited as a lack of qualification to succeed and obtain senior leadership positions (Kanter, 1977). Thus, the stereotype was developed that women use their emotional fine-tuning in the workplace while men exhibit a rational logic.

### **Gender Stereotypes**

Studies of masculine and feminine leadership styles have shown that they can be understood in terms of the content of people's stereotypes about women and men (Eagly & Schmidt, 2001). Gender can be viewed as a social construction that resides more in the observer attribution than in the object of study (Vecchio, 2002). Masculine and feminine are categories defined within culture and are created out of complex, dynamic interwoven cognitive, emotional and social forces (Billing & Alvesson, 2000). The term gender often considers cultural, societal, and psychological influences on biologically-based categories in which males and females adopt what is known as a gender role (Helgesen, 2012). In the history of western philosophy, the two have often been viewed as mutually exclusive, with masculinity portrayed as the anti-thesis of femininity. Men are expected to possess high levels of agentic qualities, including being independent, assertive, and competitive, while women are expected to possess high levels of communal attributes, including being emotionally expressive, unselfish, and concerned with others. These qualities suggest that the male-stereotypic forms of leadership style are transactional, task-oriented, and dominating. Alternatively, the stereotypical female qualities indicate that female forms of leadership are interpersonally oriented and collaborative, (Eagly & Schmidt, 2001).

A review of the literature indicates that there is research to support the notion that leadership styles have a gendered connotation (Cann & Siegfried, 1990; Eagly & Schmidt, 2001; Klenke, 1996; van Engen et al. 2001). Powerful and effective leadership styles have traditionally been portrayed as masculine. This has led to the association of agentic (e.g., competitiveness, assertiveness) qualities with leadership (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Kark & Eagly, 2010; Koenig, et al., 2011). People generally believe that women are more emotionally expressive than men and that they lack important attributes that make a successful leader (Fischbach et al., 2015). The expected task content of managerial jobs is gender-typed, where successful managers are perceived to have more association with masculine traits than feminine ones (Berkery et al., 2013; Heilman, Block, & Martell, 1995; Powell & Butterfield, 1979, 1989; Powell et al., 2002).

In the early 1970's, Virginia Schein conducted empirical investigations of managerial gender roles: first with a sample of male managers in 1973, and then again with a sample of female managers in 1975. She compiled a list of 92 characteristics that people commonly believe distinguish between men and women and then asked a sample of middle managers in the United States to describe how well each characteristic fit women in general, men in general or successful middle managers in general. Schein hypothesized that as the majority of men were managers, the managerial role would be regarded as requiring personal attributes that were ascribed to men more than women. In both experiments, it was revealed that both male and female managers strongly perceived that the characteristics associated with managerial success were more likely to be held by men than by women (Schein et al., 1996). Schein hypothesized that this association between gender role stereotypes and the perceptions of requisite management characteristics attributed to the limited number of women in management positions.

Schein's results revealed that women, as much as men, were likely to make selection, promotion, and placement decisions in favor of men. This 'think manager, think male' archetype has important implications, one of which is that simply having female managers within an organization would not significantly enhance the ease of entry of other women into these positions as the belief that women are less qualified for leadership positions was held as much by women as men.

Recent replications of Schein's experiments have revealed that while women in the United States now see men and women as equally likely to possess managerial attributes, men still believe that men are more likely than women to possess managerial attributes than women (Eagly & Carli, 2007; Powell, 2011; Powell, Butterfield & Parent, 2002). Academic research in cultures, both inside and outside of the United States, have also replicated the tendency to view successful managers in relatively masculine terms (Vecchio, 2002). While there is some evidence of change, the deeply rooted cultural ideas and current processes of social constructions continue to allow leadership to be framed by a masculine image. The agentic qualities of competitiveness, assertiveness, and daring, continue to be thought of as stereotypic male qualities that align with the managerial role (Powell, et al., 2002; Schein & Mueller, 1992). The gender role stereotyping of the managerial job could result in the perception that women are less qualified than men for management positions because the gender-stereotypic woman does not fit with that leadership stereotype, a perception which would have an influence on selection, promotion, and career development decisions (Heilman et al., 1989; Schein, 1975). This puts women, particularly those seeking certain positions in male dominated industries, at a disadvantage.



### **Male Dominated Organizations and Leadership Roles**

The present study was conducted in a profession that continues to be male dominated and this research further examines leadership roles typically considered to be masculine (operational or line roles). Thus, defining a “male dominated” organization as well as “male dominated roles” is necessary. As previously noted, there are certain professions that continue to be male dominated in terms of gender representation, including law enforcement, medicine, engineering and construction (see Kvande & Rasmussen, 1994; Scandura & Ragins, 1993; Stergiou-Kita, Mansfield, Colantonio, Moody & Mantis, 2016). In these professions, the ratios of males to females in the organizations are examined to determine underrepresentation. However, research indicates that it is not as simple as a 50-50 split. In early feminist research, Kanter (1977) defined the ratio of women to men in a male dominated organization to be 15:85, or around 15% or lower. Gutek (1985), in her book on sex and work, defined a male dominated organization as having fewer than 20% female workers. More current research, such as that conducted by Gardiner and Tieggmann (1999), extrapolated on Kanter’s definition and applied the ratio to both the general population of the organization, as well as the managerial level of the workforce. Studies such as that conducted by Watkins and Smith’s (2014) refer to male dominated simply as those organizations where men dominate positions of power. Consistent with Watkins and Smith (2014), in the current study, male dominated organization is defined as one in which positions of power are typically occupied by men.

In defining “male dominated roles”, an important consideration is the masculine ethic previously discussed. While definitions of male dominated organizations in terms of gender representation have varied, Acker (1990) hypothesized that there is little debate that organizations are male dominated because the link between masculinity and organizational

power has been so obvious that no debate was needed. Since men have historically founded and dominated institutions related to law, politics, religion, the state, and the economy, the subordination and exclusion of women became part of ordinary institutional functioning (Acker, 1992). Similarly, the critical human resource development theories, which seek to draw attention to the hidden nature of sexism in the workplace, postulate that organizations, built in patriarchal societies, represent and promote patriarchal values (Bierema, 2009; Riehl & Lee, 1996; Stead & Elliott, 2009). Under these paradigms, organizations actively participate in creating and reproducing gender in conformity with stereotyped ideas of masculinity and femininity, which place men in roles of power and women in support roles (Acker, 1990; Andersen & Hysock, 2009).

Maier (1997) noted that given the bias of masculine values in organizations, both men and women conform to an existing set of (masculine) norms in order to be accepted, and to succeed and get ahead in managerial ranks. In this way, regardless of the percentage of representations of men and women, organizations are gendered and male dominated in that the key constructs such as roles, workplace structures, practices, and patterns of interaction inadvertently favor men (Ely, Ibarra, & Kolb, 2011). The present study examines the CBSA, which has a law enforcement mandate. Law enforcement occupations are masculine by nature, as they typically are associated with aggressive behaviour and physical strength (Yu, 2017). Gender and leader stereotypes can be consequential as they are factors that may affect people's views about the type of role they should occupy including whether or not they should become leaders or advance to higher positions in organizational hierarchies (Eagly & Schmidt, 2001). These stereotypes are evident in the workforce today. As previously noted, the majority of employed women continue to work in occupations in which they have been traditionally concentrated

(Statistics Canada, 2015). In male-typed and male dominated organizations including law, medicine, financial services, construction, engineering, and information technology sectors, women are still underrepresented (Germain et al. 2013; Lyness & Heilman, 2002; Miller, Neathey, Pollard & Hill, 2004).

Another important consideration when studying gender differences in leadership is how leadership roles are defined. Research has indicated that leader role definitions vary widely across leadership domains, such as military, educational, health care, business, and political as well as the functional area of management within organizations, such as production, marketing, and personnel (Gomez-Mejia, McCann, & Page, 1985). In male dominated organizations, women are particularly underrepresented in operational roles (Germain et al. 2013; Lyness 2002). Operational managerial roles, or line roles, are those that involve the management of employees directly involved in the production or delivery of products, goods and services. These roles are generally task-oriented and found on the revenue generating side of the organization (Church & Waclawski, 2001). Line or operational managers manage employees and operations while reporting to a higher-ranking supervisor.

In contrast, staff managerial roles are generally on the revenue consuming part of the organization. Staff managers are responsible for activities that support line functions, such as accounting, organizational development, human resources and information systems functions (Church & Waclawski, 2001). Staff positions generally pay less than line or operational roles (Daily & Dalton, 2003). The progression of an individual's career can be impacted by failure to achieve operational leadership roles. For example, a survey of 325 male Chief Executive Officers of Fortune 1000 companies in the United States revealed that the top two reasons they believed that women were prevented from ascending to senior levels of management were lack

of line or general management experience and the scarcity of women in the executive pipeline (Oakley, 2000). Although this study was conducted in a corporate setting, it is reasonable to conclude that the same scenario would exist in other sectors, particularly across management and leadership roles. Thus, this experience-based bias may assist in explaining why women are underrepresented in senior management and leadership roles (Daily, Certo & Dalton, 1999).

### **Female Leadership in Male Dominated Organizations**

The masculine stereotypes that are associated with leadership and those stereotypes that we prescribe to women (e.g., compassionate, communal, caring) have led several researchers to assert that incongruity exists between the roles traditionally prescribed for women and the perceived demands of the leadership role (Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Koenig et al. 2011; Powell, 2011). This makes it difficult for women to not only obtain leadership roles but to be seen to perform well in them. If women conform to the female gender role by displaying predominantly feminine characteristics, they fail to meet the requirements of the leader stereotype. However, if they compete with men and conform to the leader role by displaying predominantly masculine characteristics, they fail to meet the requirements of the female gender role, which calls for deference to the authority of men. In this way, female leaders often struggle to cultivate an appropriate and effective leadership style that reconciles the role incongruity of communal qualities (typically associated with women) with agentic leadership qualities that are typically associated with men (Eagly & Carli, 2007). Eagly and Carli (2007) illustrate this best with a quote from former Prime Minister Kim Campbell:

I don't have a traditional way of speaking...I'm quite assertive. If I didn't speak the way I do, I wouldn't have been seen as a leader. But my way of speaking may have grated on people who were not used to hearing it from a woman. It was the

right way for a leader to speak, but it wasn't the right way for a woman to speak.

It goes against type. (p. 5)

Some researchers have found that women tend to enact more interpersonally oriented or transformational leadership styles than men (Bass & Avolio, 1992; Eagly & Johnson 1990, Eagly et al. 2003). However, when occupying male gendered roles and leadership roles in male dominated organizations, this tendency is reduced (Eagly & Johnson, 1990). Eagly and Johnson (1990) examined 162 studies of leadership style and found that overall women's leadership styles emphasized both interpersonal relations and task accomplishment to a slightly greater extent than men's styles. Yet, they noted that the gender differences were less pronounced in organizational studies than in assessment or laboratory studies. As an explanation, the researchers postulated that organizational selection criteria and socializing forces for manager roles minimizes tendencies for men and women to lead or manage in a stereotypic manner (Eagly & Johnson, 1990). The researchers also found that when female leaders were rare, women abandoned the stereotypic concerns for morale and welfare of people in the work environment in favor of more stereotypically male leadership styles (Eagly & Johnson, 1990). Research has shown that women may lose authority if they abandon distinctly feminine styles of leadership in male dominated roles in favor of the style typical of male role occupants (Carli, 1989; Eagly & Johnson, 1990; van Engen et al 2001). For example, van Engen et al. (2001) note that female managers in male dominated environments are expected to use leadership styles that suit the 'men's world', which is typically characterized by competitiveness, hierarchical authority, and emphasis on control.

The assertion that managers are sensitive to the gender composition of their surroundings is supported by research on influencing strategies. Carli (1989) found that both male and female leaders used more aggressive and direct styles of influence when dealing with men than with

women. Additionally, researchers have found that both male and female participants in meetings used more stereotypically masculine influence styles in male dominated meetings than in female-dominated meetings (van Engen, Van Knippenberg, & Willemsen, 1996). In conclusion, the research above indicates that there may be gender differences in leadership style, and contextual factors may mitigate these differences. In particular, female leaders may adopt a more stereotypically male leadership style when leading in a male dominated context (Eagly & Johnson, 1990; van Engen, et al., 1996).

### **Social Identity and Role Congruity Theories**

**Social identity theory.** An exploration of social identity theory provides a useful theoretical base for examining why women in male dominated organizations may abandon a stereotypical leadership style. Organizations tend to exert strong pressures on members to conform to standards dictated by those in power. Social identity theory postulates that individuals have a range of identities open to them, both personal and social. A person's self-concept or personal identity is comprised of individual attributes, abilities, and past experiences. The social identity is comprised of salient group classifications and characteristics of group attributes, processes, and composition (Tajfel & Turner, 1986).

Research suggests that both personal and social identities are important as each identity reflects an individual's self-worth and self-esteem and assist in defining oneself (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Tajfel & Turner, 1986). An individual will likely act differently in varying social contexts according to the groups they belong to. When an individual perceives themselves as part of a group, that group is an "ingroup" for them (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Tajfel and Turner (1986) identify the processes of social categorization, social identification, and social comparison, all of which create ingroup and outgroup mentality. By categorizing others,

individuals understand themselves and they define appropriate behaviour according to the groups they belong to (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Tajfel & Turner, 1986). Having done so, they can adopt the identity of the group, act in ways that they perceive members of the group to act, and categorize and identify themselves as being members of that group.

For many individuals, characteristics of their work group can serve as a basis for self-definition and they often compare these characteristics to those of other groups for evaluating their self-worth and self-esteem (Brewer & Gardner, 1996). Individuals generally perceive membership in the work group as valuable and tend to define themselves based on the group characteristics (Kark et al., 2003; Podsakoff et al., 1990). The findings of Eagly and Johnson's (1990) meta-analysis of interpersonal and task styles support this logic. When social behaviour is regulated by other less diffuse social roles, as in organizational settings, behaviour often can reflect the influence of these other roles and therefore lose much of its gender-stereotypic character (Carli, 1989; Eagly & Johnson, 1990; van Engen et al., 2001). Thus, we can expect that most female leaders in a male dominated organization and in male dominated roles will conform to dominant leadership styles within the organizational group and enact a more transactional leadership style. Taking this conclusion together with the research indicating that a transformational leadership style is the current style desired by organizations and the evidence that women tend towards this style, it can be argued that women in male dominated organizations and roles that conform to the more stereotypically male transactional leadership style may be less effective than they could be if they maintain a transformational style.

**Role congruity theory.** Social identity theory provides a theoretical framework for examining how and why women lead in a certain manner in male dominated organizations, while role congruity theory offers a theoretical basis for examining the factors that contribute to the lack of female leaders in those male dominated organizations. Role congruity theory hypothesizes that the type of leadership role, and its congruency with a specific gender stereotype, can impact whether or not women may attain a specific leadership role as well as how they are perceived in that role (Eagly, 1987; Eagly, Wood, and Diekmann, 2000). Developed out of social role theory, which elaborates how social roles and stereotypes arise (Eagly, 1987; Eagly et al., 2000), role congruity theory considers the congruity between traditional gender roles and other roles, especially leadership roles, and specifies key factors and processes that influence congruity perceptions and their consequences for prejudice and prejudicial behaviours (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Under this theory, prejudice arises from an incongruity between a group stereotype and social role characteristics (Eagly, 2004; Eagly & Diekmann, 2005; Eagly & Karau, 2002). A form of prejudice occurs when members of a group enter, or attempt to enter, into social roles that are not stereotypically congruent for their group.

Prejudice can involve a lowered evaluation of an individual in a given context and can be negative or positive. For example, while it may be positive that women are perceived as collaborative, in a specific context, it may result in a more negative evaluation. In the case of gender norms, instances of prejudice should be especially strong due to how prescriptive these norms tend to be compared to other types of norms (Eagly, Makhijani, and Klonsky, 1992; Fiske & Stevens, 1993). Prejudice that arises from a gender role violation may be as blatant as sexual harassment, or it may be more subtle in that it calls into question a person's competence or



ability to do a job. For female leaders, this prejudice can result in limited role opportunities or limited access to leader roles.

In the development of role congruity theory, Eagly and Karau (2002) hypothesized that female leaders experience prejudice in a leadership role derived from two types of disadvantage: 1) the descriptive aspect of the female gender role, which leads to the perception that women possess less leadership ability than men; and 2) the injunctive aspect of the female gender role, which leads to the less favorable evaluation of behaviour that fulfils the prescription of the leader role (and, therefore violates the gender role) when the behaviour is performed by a woman rather than a man (Eagly, 2004; Eagly & Diekmann, 2005). Role congruity theory argues that individuals develop descriptive and prescriptive gender role expectations of others' behaviours based on evolutionary gender-based division of labor (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014), which has typically seen men in the more dominant, leadership role. Born out of the descriptive norms is prejudice toward potential role occupants (e.g., hiring decisions) as group members are assumed to possess the stereotypic characteristics of their group, which can prevent them from being considered well suited for a given role (Eagly, 2004; Eagly & Diekmann, 2005; Koenig, 2007). Prescriptive stereotypes mainly contribute to prejudice for current role occupants. To the extent that a person has violated prescriptive stereotypes by fulfilling an incongruent role, role occupants receive negative reactions for their violation (Koenig, 2007; Eagly, 2004; Eagly & Diekmann, 2005). For female leaders, prejudice follows from the perceived incongruity between the characteristics of the female gender role and the requirements of the leadership role. Numerous studies have confirmed the existence of sex role conflict among women entering traditional male occupations (Berg & Budnick 1986; Padavic, 1991).

A review of the literature reveals support for the theory that women tend to be perceived less favorably as potential candidates for leadership roles and are judged less favorably when performing these roles (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Ragins & Winkel, 2011). By fulfilling expectations around the leader role, women may violate the appropriate behaviour associated with the gender role. In doing so, they open themselves to prejudiced reactions that may include biased performance evaluations and negative preconceptions about future performance (Eagly, et al., 1995).

Eagly, Makhijani, and Klonsky (1995) tested the hypotheses of role congruity theory by conducting a meta-analysis of studies that examined the effectiveness of male and female leaders. The researchers analyzed true experiments, in that the characteristics of leaders other than their gender were held constant and the gender of the leader was a manipulated variable. As such, the researchers contended that any differences in evaluations of women and men could be ascribed to the subject's biased perceptions. As hypothesized, they found that evaluations were less favorable for female leaders than male leaders, although as a whole, the findings were weak. However, under specific circumstances the more negative evaluation of women increased. The tendency for men to be more favorably evaluated than women increased when the roles were occupied mainly by men. For example, men were more favorably evaluated than women in the college athletic context, followed by the business and manufacturing and military contexts, which is consistent with the population of men in that position at the time (Eagly et al., 1995). Female leaders were somewhat favored in other settings such as education and government/social service (Eagly et al., 1995). There was also a stronger tendency to devalue female leaders when the subordinates were men rather than women. This finding is consistent with the general in-group bias that social psychologists have previously demonstrated (Brewer,

1979; Brewer & Kramer, 1985). Additionally, these findings are supported by prior research (Heilman, Block, Martell, & Simon, 1989; Russell, Rush, & Herd, 1988), and are consistent with the concept of gender roll spillover, which states that people's expectations about the appropriate behaviours for leaders more closely match the expectations for the male gender role than the female role (Heilman et al., 1989; Schein, 1973). Gender role spillover has negative consequences for women, in that by fulfilling people's expectations around leadership roles, they violate conventions around gender roles and will be regarded more negatively than their male counterparts (Bayes & Newton, 1978; Kruse & Wintermantel, 1986; Ragins & Sundstrom, 1989).

The findings that women are devalued more strongly when occupying a male dominated role has been corroborated by additional research (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Kark, Waismel-Manor, & Shamir, 2012; Lyness & Heilman, 2006; Lyness & Thompson, 1997; Ragins & Sundstrom, 1989). For instance, in 2005, Catalyst conducted a survey of 296 corporate leaders (128 men, 168 women) of whom 34 percent were Chief Executive Officers. The study asked executives to independently rate the effectiveness of women and men in senior positions. The study found that men and women stereotype senior leaders in similar ways that reflect perceptions of those senior leader's behaviours. In particular, men considered women to be less adept at problem solving, one of the qualities seen as necessary for high-ranking positions. Both male and female respondents cast women as better at "care taking skills" and men better at "taking charge skills".

In addition to being evaluated more negatively when occupying a male dominated role, research supports the hypothesis that women are evaluated negatively when they exhibit masculine leadership styles. In particular, women are evaluated negatively when they exhibit autocratic and directive tendencies (Eagly et al. 1995; Eagly et al., 1992; Heilman & Chen,

2005; Rudman & Glick, 2001; Rudman et al., 2012). When women defy feminized stereotypes by acting more dominant or expressing less interpersonal orientation, they are more likely to receive negative evaluations of their leadership. These finding suggests that even if a woman is highly successful as a leader, in leading autocratically she is likely to fail to fulfil the injunctive requirements of the female role, leading to a less effective evaluation.

### **Summary**

This chapter provided a brief introduction to transformational and transactional leadership styles. Contemporary theorists have demonstrated confluence surrounding the dominant leadership styles that promote success strategies in organizations today. A review of the literature on gender and leadership reveals the gendered nature of leadership styles, with male leadership styles defined as transactional and task-oriented and female leadership styles defined as transformational and interpersonally oriented. The finding that women experience prejudice, in that they are evaluated differently than men when exhibiting certain leadership behaviours that fulfill the leader role, makes a strong case that there is still prejudice against women in leadership positions, particularly in roles that are deemed masculine. While there is contention around the evidence in support of gender differences in leadership styles, there may be a tendency for women to lead in a transformational manner. Additionally, there is some evidence that when leading in male dominated organizations and male-typed roles, women abandon the stereotypic leadership style (Eagly & Johnson, 1990; van Engen et al. (2001).

Social identity theory supports this evidence by asserting that organizations exert strong pressures on members to conform to standards dictated by those in power. Individuals strongly identify with characteristics of their work group, and seek to categorize themselves as members of that group. As such, women leading in male dominated organizations would feel pressure to

conform to the standards dictated by a male dominated ethic, and seek to adopt the identity of the group including acting in ways that they perceive members of the group to act. However, in their meta-analysis, Eagly and Johnson (1990) note that their sample contained relatively few studies on female leadership in male dominated environments, indicating a gap in the research. It is the aim of this research to offer additional empirical evidence in relation to these findings. The following chapter will outline the methodology of how this research builds upon the previous work noted above and provides practical implications for male dominated organizations.

### **Chapter 3. Research Methods**

#### **Introduction**

This section presents the methods and procedures that were used to conduct this research. The chapter is organized into five major sections. The first section discusses the research design, the second section presents information on the participants; the third section describes the instrumentation used in the assessing of variables; the fourth section contains the procedures used in data collection and describes the data analysis; and the fifth section outlines the protection for participants.

#### **Research Design**

Research strategies should be selected based on the extent to which a given method can accomplish several objectives including: (1) the ability to maximize generalizability with respect to populations; (2) the precision in control and measurement of variables related to behaviors of interest, and (3) the ability to provide authenticity of context for the observed behaviors (McGrath, 1982, 1995). This study utilized a non-experimental mixed methods research design that combined quantitative cross-sectional survey research with follow-up qualitative interviews. Mixed methods research is the class of research where the researcher mixes or combines quantitative and qualitative research techniques, methods, approaches, concepts or language into a single study (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Researchers have noted that individually, all research strategies and methods are flawed (Creswell, 2009; McGrath, 1982); however, when combined, the use of multiple methods that do not share the same failings can enhance what is known about a given research question. Mixed methods research is based on the idea of heightened understanding through methodological triangulation (Jick, 1979; Turner et al. 2017). Triangulation, a basic concept in the social sciences, refers to using multiple, different

approaches to generate a better, broad understanding of a given theory or phenomenon (Singleton & Straits, 1999). Although triangulation is possible within a given methodology, mixed methods research focuses on triangulation that spans multiple methodologies (Singleton & Straits, 1999).

Traditional practice in leadership research has been analysis of quantitative data, with surveys and experiments being the most favored methods (Parry et al., 2014). Quantitative research design provides the ability to quantify relationships between variables using effect statistics, such as correlations, relative frequencies, or relationships between means (Creswell, 2009). Additionally, quantitative research provides for the ability to make inferences about larger groups (Creswell & Clarke, 2007). However, since the 1980's there has been growing interest in qualitative analysis in the field of leadership. Because leadership involves multiple levels of phenomena and has a dynamic character and symbolic component, researchers have argued that quantitative methods are insufficient to theorize successfully about its nature (Parry et al. 2014). Leadership is a function of the leader, the follower, and the existing contextual factors (Avoilo, 2005) and taken alone, quantitative data cannot fully address these components (Creswell & Plano-Clark, 2007). The advantages of doing qualitative research on leadership include the flexibility to follow unexpected ideas during research, sensitivity to contextual factors, and increased opportunities to develop empirically supported new ideas and theories (Parry et al. 2014).

Qualitative methods such as interviews can be viewed as an opportunity to explore the meaning of the topic for the respondent (Qu & Dumay, 2011). Semi-structured interviews allow for a conversation between two people on a specific topic that consists of questioning and listening (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998). One of the challenges with the interview lies in the

researcher's interviewing technique and the ability to formulate appropriate questions. One way to resolve this is by carrying out a pilot project or preliminary study prior to the main research. For the purpose of this research, the researcher conducted a focus group in October of 2016, with a sample of four senior female leaders in operational roles within the CBSA (two former Vice-President of Operations, the current Vice-President of Operations, and another senior level leader in Operations). The senior leaders were provided questions in advance and follow-up questions were asked by the researcher and other participants. Based on the results of the focus group, which indicated that discussion is an important part of getting to the participant's beliefs and attitudes, the semi-structured interview was utilized, which allowed for greater flexibility and the introduction of questions depending upon the respondents answer.

Scholars have found that the use of mixed methods research is still rare in the organizational sciences (Scandura & Williams, 2000; Turner et al. 2017). As an explanation for its relatively limited use, authors have referred to the limited guidance available for organizational scholars regarding research design in mixed methods studies, as well as the time-consuming nature of the work, the need to assemble researcher expertise across different methodological areas, and the demands associated with publishing mixed methods research (Turner et al. 2017). In consideration of other research designs, qualitative and quantitative research studies were reviewed, including those that were specific to the subject of female leadership in male dominated fields (Barrett et al. 2014; Meister, Sinclair, & Jehn 2017; Weitz, 2016; Yu, 2015) as well those that specifically employed the MLQ 5x-Short (Porter, 2009; Rieckmann, 2016). The research indicates that quantitative studies are the predominant method of choice. However, researchers using qualitative interviews with women working in male dominated industries have noted that the data obtained can provide ideas and themes for future,



more externally valid and widely applicable research (Meister, Sinclair, & Jehn 2017). Thus, the mixed methods research design was found appropriate for gathering quantitative data on leadership styles in male dominated organizations and qualitative data on the key themes and ideas associated with the way that women perceive they are evaluated when occupying these leadership positions. By combining quantitative and qualitative research methods and using a mixed methods strategy, a more comprehensive view of a particular phenomenon can be achieved (Turner et al. 2017).

### **Description of Site**

This research focused on the leadership styles of male and female leaders that were employed with the Canada Border Services Agency (CBSA). This site was selected as the researcher was a member of the organization, and senior management at the time of the study was supportive. The CBSA is the agency under the Public Safety Portfolio that is responsible for providing border security. The mandate of the CBSA is to provide integrated border services that support national security and public safety priorities and facilitate the free flow of persons and goods, including animals and plants that meet all requirements under the program legislation (CBSA, 2018). The CBSA has a workforce of close to 15000 employees, including approximately 6,470 uniformed officers who provide services at 1200 points across Canada and at 39 international locations. As a whole, the CBSA is gender balanced in terms of representation, employing 7,582 men and 7, 515 women. However, at the time of the study women occupied only 37% of the operational or line roles, and only 35% of the executive cadre. In addition to the operational roles being male dominated in terms of gender representation, they are also male dominated in terms of the nature of the work.

Law enforcement occupations are masculine by nature, as they are typically associated with aggressive behaviour, physical strength, and camaraderie (Yu, 2017; Kurtz, Linneman, & Williams, 2012). While the CBSA has a higher composition of women than other traditional law enforcement agencies in Canada (i.e. approximately 21%, (Conor, 2018) it is likely that many of the same masculine norms typically identified within law enforcement (Kakar, 2002; Rabe-Hemp, 2009) are demonstrated within the uniformed, operational sector. Further, the majority of the operational positions that provide services to the public, (the 6,470 uniformed personnel) are operational or line position, and those management positions that support that personnel. Many of the remaining roles are non-uniformed and more administrative in that they work to support those operational functions, whether through guidance to the operations, additional services to clients, or human resources or communications functions.

The CBSA has a hierarchical ranking structure, with executives responsible for a particular geographic region or branch. The President reports directly to the Minister of Public Safety (see Table 1).

Table 1

*CBSA Senior Leadership Structure 2017*

Headquarters Senior Management	
	President
	Executive Vice President
	Vice-President, Operations Branch
	Vice-President, Programs Branch
	Vice-President, Comptrollership Branch
	Vice-President, Information, Science and Technology Branch
	Vice-President, Corporate Affairs Branch
	Vice-President Internal Audit and Program Evaluation
	Vice-President, Human Resources Branch
Regional Senior Management	
	Director General, Border Operations Directorate*
	Director General, Atlantic Region
	Director General, Quebec Region
	Director General, Northern Ontario Region
	Director General, Greater Toronto Area Region
	Director General, Southern Ontario Region

Director General, Prairie Region  
Director General, Pacific Region

---

*Note. The Director General of the Border Operations Directorate is a Headquarters position and reports directly to the Vice-President of Operations.*

Similar to several other federal government agencies the CBSA has four different levels of executives:

- EX1 Director;
- EX2 Executive Director;
- EX3 Director General or Regional Director General;
- EX4 Associate Vice-President; and
- EX5 Vice-President.

The majority of the leaders were located in Ottawa, as the CBSA headquarters administration is located there. Ottawa has the largest concentration of federal public service employees, with 32 percent of federal government employees working in Ottawa-Gatineau (Statistics Canada, 2012). However, there were participants from across the regional offices, which include the Atlantic region (ATL), Quebec region (QUE), Northern Ontario region (NOR), Greater Toronto Area (GTA), Southern Ontario region (SOR), Prairie region (PRA) and the Pacific region (PAC). At the time of the study, the researcher was an employee of the CBSA, working in Ottawa, and had access to the employee directory and organizational charts.

### **Population and Sample**

The population surveyed was a purposive sample, which can be described as a sample selected with a purpose in mind, where the researcher makes a deliberate attempt to include specific subjects from identified groups to provide guaranteed representatives in the sample (Johnson and Turner, 2003). The population for the study consisted of male and female selected leaders employed by the CBSA. The selected leaders were those appointed to executive level leadership positions, which represent upper management, and more specifically those at the Executive 1 (EX1) level to the Executive 5 (EX5) level. This population is consistent with the definition of leader previously discussed, which infers decision-making authority and the ability

to influence others' pay or promotions (Eagly & Carli, 2003). Above the EX5 level is the President of the Agency, which is a Governor in Council appointment. Due to the nature of the Governor in Council appointment, this level is outside the scope of this research. Below the EX1 level is considered to be a middle management position in the public service, which does not have the authority to independently determine pay and promotions, and thus, was not considered.

The employees invited to participate were both male and female to allow for a comparative analysis. Additionally, the population consisted of leaders from both operational and administrative roles, which allowed for analysis of potential differences in leadership styles that may be due to the nature of the work, rather than personal choice. The researcher identified three demographic variables of interest for the purpose of the research: gender, branch or type of work (operational or administrative), and executive level. Demographic information of the participants is crucial in any study as this data can provide a broader view about the participating subjects. Information on the distribution of the demographic characteristics of the subjects can help to determine how closely the sample replicates the population, and assess the strengths and limitations of sample such as sufficiency. In addition, the sample demographic data can help to differentiate between different sub-groups.

### **Sample.**

***Part one: Quantitative survey.*** The sample for Part One was all of the EX 1 to EX5 leaders within the CBSA. This sample was chosen as it was consistent with the definition of leader, which infers the authority to make decisions and influence pay and promotional opportunities (Eagly & Carli, 2003). Both male and female leaders were included to allow for a comparative analysis. The primary concern of survey researchers is to obtain a sample that represents the population of interest and is large enough to support analytical comparisons

(Bartlett, Kotrlik & Higgins, 2001). The size and representativeness of samples are influenced by the adequacy of the sampling frame and the refusal to participate (Bartlett et al, 2001). The sampling frame for this study was the CBSA organizational charts, an executive distribution list, and the Government Electronic Directory (GED), which gave the researcher access to all of the EX1 to EX5 positions within the CBSA. The CBSA organizational charts are updated regularly to reflect the occupant of the position. These organizational charts can then be cross-referenced for accuracy with the GED and the internal electronic mailing system.

At the time of the study, there were a total of 164 executives employed by the CBSA at the EX1 to EX5 level. Of the 164 executives sent the survey, 58 were women, and 106 were men. The demographics for the participants in Part One are shown in Table 2. Fifty participants responded to the survey, which represents 30.4 percent of the total sample population.

Statisticians have shown that a sample size of 30 or more will usually result in a sampling distribution for the mean that is very close to a normal distribution. Stutely (2003) advises that a minimum number of 30 for statistical analyses provides a useful rule of thumb for the smallest number in each category within an overall sample. The present research conducted statistical analysis on the sample size  $n=50$ .

Of the survey respondents, 52 percent were women, 48 percent were men. Participation of those that identified as being in administrative positions was 58 percent, versus 42 percent of those that identified as in an operational position. The hierarchical position of the executives ranged across the five different levels. Twenty-five participants identified at the EX1 level, eleven identified at the EX2 level, ten identified at the EX3 level, two identified at the EX4 level, and two identified at the EX5 level. Respondents were deemed to be representative of the target group with women slightly overrepresented at 52%.

Table 2

*Demographics of Quantitative Survey Participants*

	Operational	Administrative	Total	Percentage
Women	8	18	26	52%
Men	13	11	24	48%
Branch Participation	42%	58%		
Total Participants			50	30%

*Note.* Branch participation was calculated on the sample size n=50

**Part two: Qualitative interview.** The sample for Part Two consisted of participants who had completed the electronic survey (Part One). Survey respondents were asked to self-select for participation in a follow-up interview. In qualitative research, the sampling is generally purposeful so that the participants chosen have experience with the central phenomenon being studied (Creswell, 2009). For phenomenological studies, Creswell (1998) recommends a sample size of 5 – 25 and Morse (1994) suggests at least six. Ideally, the sample for Part Two would have consisted of seven men and seven women, which would have represented almost 30 percent of the sample from Part One (Part One achieved a participation rate of 30 percent). The researcher received twelve responses for follow-up interviews. However, when the researcher scheduled the interviews, only ten participants responded and arranged a time to meet (20% of respondents from Part One). There were four women in total (two in operational positions, and two in administrative positions), and six men (four in operational positions and two in administrative positions). The researcher contacted the two other participants on two separate occasions; however, no further response was received. The demographics of the ten interview participants are shown in Table 3.

Table 3

*Demographics of Qualitative Interview Participants*

	Operational	Administrative	Total
Women	2	2	4
Men	4	2	6
Branch Participation	60%	40%	
Total Participants			10

The hierarchical position of the executives that participated in the qualitative interviews ranged across four of the five different levels. Six of the participants identified at the EX1 level, one identified at the EX2 level, two identified at the EX3 level, and one identified at the EX4 level.

**Research Instrument**

For the quantitative portion of this study, the researcher employed an electronic version of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire 5X Short (MLQ 5X Short), which is one of the most influential and published tools used in recent literature (Avolio & Howell, 1992; Yammarino & Bass, 1990). The MLQ, which is based on Burns (1978) theory of transformational leadership, is a validated instrument that has been used in numerous research studies, doctoral dissertations, and in practitioner research to assess a wide range of leadership behaviours among nursing populations, military personnel, and health care employees.

In 1998 the MLQ 5X Short was developed in response to criticisms of the earlier version (the MLQ, Form 5R). Critics claimed that the previous version had inadequate discriminant validity among the factors comprising the survey, that it included behavioural and impact items in the same survey scales, and that the factor structure initially proposed by Bass (1985) sometimes failed to be replicated in subsequent empirical research (Hunt, 1991; Smith & Peterson, 1988; Yukl, 1994; 1999). Bass and Avolio (1993) responded to critiques of the MLQ

survey by calling for additional research on a broader range of leadership styles and orientations using a revised version of the MLQ survey. The MLQ 5X Short was developed in response to these substantive criticisms of the MLQ 5R survey, and researchers have confirmed that this version of the model should be utilized in future research (Tejeda, Scandura & Pillai, 2001). Critics also indicated that the factor structure of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire was not invariant across gender. However, Avolio and Bass (2004) tested the equivalence of factor structures across men and women raters and found that the constructs of Inspiring, Intellectually Stimulating, Contingent Reward and Active Management-by-Exception were invariant across genders. These results led them to conclude that the instrument can be expected to function similarly for both genders, at least in the context of the United States.

The MLQ 5X Short is designed to assess leader's behaviours and evaluate three different leadership styles: transformational, transactional and passive-avoidant. However, the focus of this research will be in comparing transactional and transformational leader behaviours. The MLQ 5X Short uses 45 items to pinpoint leadership behaviour (styles) and their relationship to leadership effectiveness, followers' satisfaction, and followers' extra effort. The instrument consists of two versions: 1) the leaders' survey, which describes behaviour as perceived by the leader and 2) the followers' version which is used to evaluate the leaders' behaviours as perceived by the follower. For the present study, only the leader's survey was employed. Individuals measured how they perceived themselves with regard to specific leadership behaviours using a 5-point Likert type scale as follows:

- 0- Not at all
- 1- Once in a while
- 2- Sometimes



3- Fairly Often

4- Frequently, if not always.

The questionnaire assesses nine leadership characteristics and the subscales measure leadership styles. There are five constructs ascribed to transformational leadership:

- 1) Idealized influence (attributed)
- 2) Idealized influence (behavioural)
- 3) Inspirational motivation
- 4) Intellectual stimulation
- 5) Individualized consideration

The two behavioural constructs of transactional leadership are: Contingent reward and Management-by-exception (active).

Given the above, the MLQ 5X Short was determined to be the most appropriate instrument for Part One of this research. Additionally, this instrument was selected because it is efficient and can be completed by participants in approximately 15 minutes. The length of the survey is important, as the shorter the survey, the higher the rate of response. In Fan and Yan's (2010) conceptual model of the online survey process, the results indicated that the response rate is significantly influenced by various factors such as length.

### **Research Procedures**

The researcher purchased the right to use an electronic version of the MLQ 5X Short leader survey constructed and copyrighted by Bass and Avolio (1995) through Mind Garden ([www.mindgarden.com](http://www.mindgarden.com)). The researcher requested that Mind Garden add the following demographic data to the survey: gender, branch, and executive level. This allowed the researcher to identify the type of role, whether support or operational, as well as the gender of the

participant. This demographic data was necessary to conduct an analysis of the type of leadership style employed in the different role types. An email was sent with an “Invitation to Participate” (Appendix A) that explained the purpose of the survey, confidentiality expectations, and provided a link to the website where participants could complete the questionnaire to all of the executive level leaders in the Canada Border Services Agency using the internal email secure email system. Prior to doing so, the researcher obtained support from senior management to conduct the research and utilize resources within the organization. Participants were informed that they could choose at any time not to participate in the study and no incentives for participating were offered. The questionnaire remained open for a period of three weeks. Participants were notified of the voluntary nature of their participation. A reminder email was sent at the two-week point. Additionally, the email requested that those willing to participate in a follow-up interview email the researcher directly. The data obtained using the MLQ 5X Short was provided to the researcher by the third party website, Mind Garden, and was downloaded using the Microsoft Excel software.

Following the collection and analysis of quantitative data, follow-up interviews (Part Two) with the leaders were conducted to add context and depth to the participant’s survey responses, and to provide information on how leaders perceive they are evaluated. The researcher received twelve responses for follow-up interviews. Yet, when the researcher scheduled the interviews, only ten participants responded and arranged a time to meet. There were four women in total (two in operational positions, and two in administrative positions), and six men (four in operational positions and two in administrative positions). The researcher conducted the interviews in-person wherever possible; however, given geographic restrictions, three interviews were conducted over the telephone. The researcher audio recorded each of the

interviews, which ranged from 45 to 120 minutes. The researcher began the interviews by discussing the survey results and asking the participants to walk through their career histories. Follow up questions included asking participants how they believed they are/were perceived by their colleagues, whether they felt other's perceptions of them were accurate, and how they responded to these experiences (for the interview guide see Appendix B). The researcher analyzed the data from the qualitative interviews using thematic analysis. The key themes that emerged were "Effective leadership styles" and "Evaluation of leadership styles". These themes are discussed in detail in Chapter 4.

### **Data Analysis**

**Part one: Quantitative survey.** According to Avolio and Bass (2004), transformational leaders need to score in the 90th percentile in the subscales idealized influence (attributed and behaviour), inspirational motivation (IM), intellectual stimulation (IS), and individual consideration (IC). However, the MLQ 5X Short is not designed to encourage the labeling of a leader as Transformational or Transactional. Rather, it is more appropriate to identify a leader or group of leaders as (for example) "more transformational than the norm" or "less transactional than the norm" through a comparison with norm tables issued as part of the instrumentation of the MLQ. To conduct an analysis of the quantitative data obtained using the MLQ 5X Short the researcher used Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), Version 24 to obtain descriptive statistics and test for statistically significant relationships between gender and operational and administrative groups.

**Part two: Qualitative interviews.** The researcher approached the analysis of qualitative from an inductive exploratory perspective. Thematic network analysis approach determined to be appropriate for semi-structured interviews as it allows for new impressions to shape the interpretation of data in different and unexpected directions (Attride-Stirling, 2001). Attride-Stirling (2001) proposed that thematic analyses can be usefully aided by and presented as thematic networks: web-like illustrations (networks) that summarize the main themes constituting a piece of text. Thematic networks systematize the extraction of lowest-order premises evident in the text, categories of basic themes to summarize abstract principals, and super-ordinate themes encapsulating the principal metaphors in the text as a whole (Attride-Stirling, 2001). Thematic networks organize the data into basic themes, organizing themes, and global themes. Basic themes are simple premises characteristic of the data that when isolated say little about the text. The organizing themes are the middle-order themes that organize the basic themes. When clustered, they summarize the principal assumptions of a group of basic themes (Attride-Stirling, 2001). The global themes are super-ordinate themes that encompass the principal metaphors in the data and can be considered the final tenet that tells what the text as a whole is about (Attride-Stirling, 2001).

The trustworthiness of data begins with the quality of the transcriptions (Poland, 2003). Poland (2003), argued that there are four challenges to transcription quality, which include problems with sentence structure, the use of quotation marks, omissions, and mistaking words or phrases for others. He further notes that as verbal language does not always follow grammatical formats, the transcriber determines where and when to determine sentence structure. This could lead to an alteration of the meaning of the sentence. Additionally, recordings do not distinguish when the responder is speaking from their personal perspective or quoting someone else thus the

transcriber may erroneously attribute the quote to the respondent. Finally, the transcriber may neglect to include a word or phrase when reviewing the tape or may mistakenly hear the wrong word.

To address these issues, the researcher reviewed the field notes to provide reminders of the details of the interview in an effort to assist the researcher in interpreting the tape accurately. Additionally, the researcher listened to the audio recordings a minimum of three times, when transcribing the text. Further, when using direct quotes, the researcher went back to the recordings to listen again for the meaning of the text. While the audio recordings were extremely clear, there were times when, even with these measures a brief interruption in the recording prevented phrases from being fully distinguishable. In those instances, the researcher noted in the transcription that a word or phrase was indistinguishable. Fortunately, this only happened during one interview, and the majority of the interview was clearly audible.

### **Researcher Positionality**

An important distinction between qualitative and quantitative research is the role that the researcher plays. Social scientists utilizing qualitative interviews as a methodology now recognize that the results of the interview cannot be taken out of the contexts in which they were gathered and claimed as objective data with no strings attached (Qu & Dumay, 2011). It is clear that the primary instrument for gathering qualitative interview data is the researcher and as such it is imperative for researchers to consider their own biases, limitations, and perspective throughout the process of data collection, analysis, interpretation and reporting. When conducting qualitative research, it is anticipated that the researcher's biases will impact the outcomes (Merriam, 1998), however these biases may also be considered as a unique and distinct contribution (Peshkin, 1988).

In order to enable the audience to evaluate the validity of conclusions extrapolated from the data, the researcher should neutralize or bracket their biases by stating them to the full extent possible. In the interest of disclosure and of guarding against unethical or unintentional influences on my interpretation of data collected, the following discussion outlines my professional and personal experiences with respect to this study. At the time of the research, the researcher was employed with the Canada Border Services Agency. The researcher worked within the agency for seventeen years, including six years as a Border Services Officer in the Operations Branch in rural Ontario and over ten years working in Headquarters in Ottawa in various program support, policy development and management positions. In October of 2018, the researcher left the organization for a position in another department. The experience gained working within the CBSA has given the researcher a unique perspective on how the Agency operates in both the regions and in Headquarters, as well as in operational and administrative functions. However, having worked only for the CBSA for most of her adult life, including throughout the research and data analysis portion of this study, the researcher's ability to detect specific nuances in organizational culture may be limited.

It should also be noted that the researcher did not have any influence or exert a position of authority over any of the participants in this study. In addition to professional experience, the researcher's personal experience and background may also bias the methodological approach. Being female could impact the way that both male and female leaders respond to questions around gender. In addition, the researcher's education background has been situated around male dominated studies (i.e., an undergraduate degree in Criminology and Criminal Justice, and a Master's degree at the Royal Military College of Kingston). Finally, as the researcher has spent her entire life, (with recreational travel) living and working within a few hundred kilometres of

the Eastern Ontario and the National Capital region, and has limited experience with respect to the seven different regions in which the CBSA operates, this may constitute another bias.

### **Protection of Study Participants**

All information was sent to participants via the secure email within the organization. Only the researcher had access to the data. Essential Mind Garden staff had limited access to the database. Information gained through the use of the MLQ 5X Short was encrypted by offsite secure servers using Secure Sockets Layer encryption. After the final disposition, all records will be shredded. Information in the Mind Garden database will be destroyed one year after the survey was conducted.

### **Informed Consent**

Each participant received a consent form (Appendix A) indicating that participation in the study was voluntary. If a participant chose not to participate, or to withdraw, as two participants did prior to the interview, he or she was free to do so without penalty or loss of benefit. The consent form also advised the participant that personal anonymity would be guaranteed should the results of the study be published. Reviewing the informed consent form provided the participant's an opportunity to ask any questions before participating in the study. Participants were emailed the link to the questionnaire with the consent form via email. Explicit consent via email and participation in the survey was accepted in order to facilitate ease of response for the participant and encourage participation. For Part Two of the study, the participants self-identified as willing to participate. At the beginning of each interview, the researcher reminded the participants that participant was voluntary, and that at any time they could end the interview and withdraw from the research without consequence.

### **Confidentiality**

The researcher is the only individual with knowledge of the full list of participants selected for the questionnaire. The list of participants remained on the researcher's home computer in a Microsoft Excel file that was password protected. The names of the participants have since been deleted. To encourage honesty in responding to the MLQ 5X Short, confidentiality of responses was ensured. Participants received and reviewed the confidentiality statement as part of the informed consent process (Appendix A) before participating in the study. The confidentiality statement informed participants of their voluntary participation, provided a guarantee of anonymity, and stated that the dissertation or other reports will not reflect individual responses. The completed questionnaires will be retained for a period of seven years and then deleted.

### **Summary**

This chapter outlined the justification of the research design and methodology, which used both a quantitative approach and a qualitative approach (mixed method) to address the research questions. The research target sample was executives in the Canada Border Services Agency, a male dominated public service organization. The sample size for the survey was 164 executives and the researcher also interviewed ten of these executives. This research investigated transformational and transactional leadership styles of men and women used within the target sample. The researcher used the MLQ 5X-Short questionnaire and in-depth interviews to collect data from the participants. In addition, the qualitative portion of the study explored how leaders experience and think about their leadership practice, so thematic analysis was used. All interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed by the researcher, who then reviewed each transcription, in their entirety several times, seeking general themes. Although the questions



were developed to address the differences in transactional and transformational leadership styles, the transcriptions were reviewed so as to let the themes emerge, regardless of whether or not they matched the transactional and transformational component. In addition, the goal of this study was to provide a description of the phenomenon so that readers may better understand female leadership practices in male dominated organizations. The next chapter presents the study results and analysis.

## **Chapter 4. Data Analysis and Results**

### **Overview**

This chapter presents the survey results and the data analysis for the research study as laid out in Chapter 3. The purpose was to examine the differences in leadership styles of men and women in male dominated organizations and specifically, to determine if women tend to lead in a more transactional manner when leading in roles typically considered masculine (operational or line roles) versus roles traditionally depicted as feminine (administrative or staff roles).

Additionally, this research sought to determine if women perceive they are evaluated differently in these leadership roles. The first section of the chapter provides analysis of the quantitative data for both the participants that completed the MLQ 5X Short (Part One) as well as for those who participated in the follow-up interviews (Part Two). This is followed by an analysis of the qualitative data obtained through the qualitative interviews (Part Two).

### **Quantitative Data Analysis**

Hypothesis one was:

H1: Female and male leaders are more likely to adopt a transactional style of leadership in male dominated organizations.

As previously noted, the MLQ 5X Short uses a five-point scale from 0-4. An aggregate score is calculated by the provider of the MLQ 5X Short and represents an average of the five transformational leadership factors. According to Avolio and Bass (2004), transformational leaders need to score in the 90th percentile in the subscales idealized influence (attributed and behaviour), inspirational motivation (IM), intellectual stimulation (IS), and individual consideration (IC). Individuals are found to be within the range of transformational leadership if this score is between the range of 3 and 4 (Avolio and Bass, 2004). The MLQ 5X Short measures

transactional behaviour by the associated constructive and corrective transactions. The constructive style is labelled contingent reward and the ideal range is between 2 and 3. The corrective style is management-by-exception and the ideal ranges is 1-2. In Table 4, descriptive statistics were used to show the leadership styles, the mean, and standard deviation for participants that completed the MLQ 5X Short. The researcher used Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 24 to conduct this analysis. As noted in Table 4 below, the leaders were within the ideal range for transformational leadership. The leaders were not within the ideal range for Contingent Reward, but were within the ideal range for Management by Exception, which suggests that leaders overall were more closely aligned with the transformational rather than the transactional leadership style.

Table 4

*Descriptive Statistics of Quantitative Survey Participants*

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Gender	50	1.52	.505
Branch	50	1.58	.499
Executive level	50	1.90	1.11
Aggregate Score of Transformational Leadership	50	3.34	.323
Contingent Reward	50	3.21	.507
Management By Exception	50	1.27	.770
Valid N (listwise)	50		

*Note.*

Gender: 1=male, 2=female, 3=prefer not to answer.

Branch: 1=Operational, 2=Administration (e.g. HR, Corporate Affairs, Programs, ISTB)

Executive level: 1=1, 2=2, 3=3, 4=4, 5=5, 6=prefer not to answer.

The Aggregate Score of Transformational Leadership is an aggregate of the five transformational leadership factors.

To address H1, the collected data were further analyzed and sorted by leadership styles and gender. The transformational Female Leadership mean was 3.31 (SD = 0.32) and the transformational Male Leadership mean was 3.39 (SD = 0.33) (see Table 5). The researcher conducted a t-test to compare the difference in mean scores and determined that the difference was not statistically significant as the p-value was greater than 0.05 significance level. Contrary

to expectations, the results reveal that both male and female leaders were more likely to adopt a transformational rather than a transactional leadership style; therefore, hypothesis one was not supported.

Table 5

*Leadership Mean Scores, by Gender*

Gender	Transformational Mean	Standard Deviation	Contingent Reward Mean	Standard Deviation	Management By Exception Mean	Standard Deviation
Female	3.31	0.32	3.18	0.60	1.23	0.77
Male	3.39	0.33	3.26	0.38	1.42	0.42

Hypothesis two was:

H2: Female and male leaders are more likely to shift to a transformational leadership style in administrative versus operational functions.

To address H2, the researcher conducted a t-test on the differences in transformational leadership styles for leaders (both male and female) that identified as administrative verses operational. The results indicate that there is no statistically significant difference between the operational and administrative groups as the p-value was greater than 0.05 significance level. The Transformational Operational Leadership Styles mean was 3.40 (SD = 0.25), and the Transformational Administrative Leadership Styles mean was 3.31 (SD = 0.40).

Table 6 provides further breakdown of the mean scores for both transformational and transactional scores by gender and by role type. The researcher also independently calculated the averages of the transformational leadership factors and the transactional leadership factors (which were consistent with the composite score as calculated by the third party provider of the MLQ 5X Short). As previously noted, the participants were not within the ideal range of Contingent reward behavior on the transactional scale. A t-test was conducted on the Contingent

Reward behavior for Operational Women and Administrative Women and the results indicate there was no statistically significant difference between the groups.

Table 6

*Individual Factor Scores of Transformational and Transactional Leadership*

	N	Operational Men	Administrative Men	Operational Women	Administrative Women
<b>Transformational Leadership Items</b>					
Idealized Influence	50	2.98	3.29	3.00	3.22
Idealized Behaviours	50	3.56	3.34	3.38	3.32
Inspirational Motivation	50	3.52	3.48	3.38	3.24
Intellectual Stimulation	50	3.42	3.07	3.28	3.24
Individualized Consideration	50	3.56	3.32	3.44	3.47
Aggregate Score		3.4	3.3	3.3	3.3
<b>Transactional Leadership Items</b>					
Contingent Reward	50	3.27	3.23	3.28	3.14
Management by Exception	50	1.27	1.30	1.19	1.21

Additional t-tests confirmed that there was no statistically significant difference between the transformational leadership scores in operational roles and administrative roles, or the Contingent Reward scores for those in operational and administrative roles. In other words, the data indicates that male and female leaders were more closely aligned with the transformational leadership style in both operational and administrative roles. Therefore, hypothesis two was not supported.

The MLQ 5X Short data for the interview participants was also analyzed (see Table 7). The mean of the aggregate transformational score for the interview participants was 3.55. The leaders with the highest composite transformational score were two male leaders in administrative positions that did not have prior operational experience and one operational male leader who had significant leadership training prior to joining the CBSA.

Table 7

*Transformational Leadership Scores of Qualitative Interview Participants*

Leader	Gender	Current Branch	Previous Operational Experience	Mean
Leader 1	Female	Operational	Yes	3.3
Leader 2	Female	Administrative	No	3.3
Leader 3	Male	Operational	Yes	3.3
Leader 4	Male	Administrative	No	3.8
Leader 5	Male	Administrative	Yes	3.5
Leader 6	Female	Operational	Yes	3.6
Leader 7	Male	Administrative	No	3.8
Leader 8	Male	Operational	Yes	3.4
Leader 9	Male	Operational	Yes	3.8
Leader 10	Female	Administrative	Yes	3.7
Total Mean				3.55

**Qualitative Data Analysis**

Part Two of this study consisted of qualitative semi-structured, face-to-face interviews with ten of the executives who self-identified in Part One as willing to participate. The interviews were conducted to add context and depth to the results of the MLQ. The leader assigned a number for each interview from 1-10. The leaders identified in Part One as either in an operational or administrative position, and through the course of each interview, the researcher learned if the leader had prior experience in an operational, frontline position. The demographics of the leaders are illustrated in Table 8.

Table 8

*Demographics of Qualitative Interview Participants*

Leader	Gender	Current Branch	Previous Operational Experience	Code
Leader 1	Female	Operational	Yes	F1
Leader 2	Female	Administrative	No	F2
Leader 3	Male	Operational	Yes	M1
Leader 4	Male	Administrative	No	M2
Leader 5	Male	Administrative	Yes	M3
Leader 6	Female	Operational	Yes	F3
Leader 7	Male	Administrative	No	M4
Leader 8	Male	Operational	Yes	M5
Leader 9	Male	Operational	Yes	M6
Leader 10	Female	Administrative	Yes	F4

---

*Note.* Previous operational experience is defined as experience in a uniformed, frontline position.

The interviews were recorded, and averaged 50.08 minutes in length with a range between 25.06 minutes and 105.49 minutes. The interview transcriptions were comprehensive, with interviewees willing to divulge, in some cases, very personal experiences of their time in leadership and in varying positions in the operational positions (A copy of the Interview Guide is presented in Appendix B). The researcher noted that some of the questions were challenging and respondents took time to think and reflect on their leadership styles, in both the past and the present, and the leadership styles of their colleagues.

The researcher utilized thematic network analysis to analyze the qualitative data. The data obtained through the interviews were transcribed by the researcher into Microsoft Word files, excluding non-meaningful utterances such as uh, uhm, etc. The researcher then organized the data into a priori codes by reviewing the recorded transcripts, making notes and dissecting text segments. As a second step, the researcher reviewed the data, searching for patterns or themes in the data and used the spreadsheet processor Microsoft Excel to organize and move the data into basic themes. A theme can be identified as capturing something important in the data that is related to the research questions and represents a patterned response or meaning in the dataset (Braun & Clark, 2006). Braun and Clark (2006) note that pattern is not a quantifiable measure to be determined by the frequency, but rather by researcher judgement in that it is captures something that is key to the research question (Braun & Clarke, 2006). As a third step, the researcher used Microsoft PowerPoint as well as Microsoft Excel to create thematic networks using the basic themes. The researcher then went through the iterative process of arranging and rearranging basic themes into organizing themes, deducing global themes, and verifying and

refining the network. Using the data text obtained through the qualitative interviews, the researcher identified 96 basic themes (for the full list of basic themes in alphabetical order see Appendix C). These basic themes were then clustered into five organizing themes, from which two global themes were deduced. The organizing themes and global themes are summarized in Table 9.

Table 9

*Emergent Themes*

Organizing Themes		Global Themes
Differences Between Male and Female Leadership	→	Effective Leadership Styles
Leader Traits		
Social Factors that Influence Leadership Styles		
Adapting Leadership Styles to Nature of Work		
Organizational Impacts on Leadership Styles		
Hierarchy and Level of Leadership		
Perceived Behaviours	→	Evaluation of Leadership Styles

The themes, which emerged from the data analysis phase, have been sub categorised into themes and related to the research questions (See Appendix D). The first global theme, “Effective leadership styles” (section 1), relates to research question one and two, while the second global theme “Evaluation of leadership styles” (section 2) is related to research question three.

**Effective leadership styles.** Through their answers and descriptions of experiences, the leaders offered a variety of themes when describing their leadership style and what they feel is an effective leadership style. This section will present the main topics discussed along with the significant extracts of interviews. The key topics highlighted by the leaders that are related to effective leadership styles are related to the differences between male and female leadership, individual leader traits, social aspects of leadership, and adapting leadership styles to the nature of work and the organizational influences that dictate that flexibility.



***Differences between male and female leadership.*** In discussing leadership styles, the majority of participants expressed perceptions of differences between male and female leadership. Both male and female leaders noted there are differences in leadership styles between men and women; however, the explanations of why were different. Female leaders tended to attribute the differences to their leadership style, and related their actions to being seen as effective. For example, F10 stated that she uses a different way to communicate to men than she does with women in that she is more direct and assertive because she feels the nuances of what she is saying might be lost. F3 noted that women in an operational role women tend to take on how they think a man would lead in order to be seen as effective in those positions, stating they often become “overly aggressive”.

The male leaders interviewed tended to attribute differences in leadership style to personality traits or “playing the game” rather than gender. M3 noted that “Women have to play a game, and present themselves as people would like to see them” in order to be seen as effective. M6 stated: *Women have an advantage because they start from a relational place. But we also need to look at the personality lens. Don’t just assign it to gender.*

M2 and M4, both leaders in administrative roles with no operational experience, echoed this sentiment. M2 stated that he relates more to women than to men in his leadership style but noted “I’m not sure it’s gender, so much as personality type”. These responses indicate that both male and female leaders are aware of differences in leadership styles between men and women. However, while the women discussed how their leader behaviours differ, the majority of the male leaders attributed differences to personality traits.

**Leadership traits.** The majority of the leaders acknowledge having changed approaches to leadership throughout their career, in part due to improvement of skills, training, and practical experience. However, almost all noted the importance of being genuine and/or authentic. Female leaders tended to discuss their leadership style as a reflection of themselves. For example, when asked if her leadership style had changed from early on in her career, F2 reflected that she had lost her way with respect to her leadership style for a few years. She stated that when she started with the Public Service, she had advanced in her career so she started at the managerial level. While she was not with the CBSA at that time, the team that she was responsible for was in the region and was an all male team. She noted that this was when she lost her way as she tried to figure out the expectations of managing in the government. She reflected:

*“It’s taken me a long time to realize that that was the right way to go [speaking about her leadership style prior to managing her first team in the government] and that was when I was listening, I was much more focussed on facilitating- and true leadership.”*

This reflection reveals that she altered her leadership style when managing an all male team. Now that she has returned to her innate leadership style, which is focussed on listening and facilitation, she feels that she is a more effective leader. F4 also noted, “I lead with a sense of who I am”. She explained that this means she follows her values and principals and doesn’t care if some people don’t like it because it’s who she is. This is particularly interesting because she also stated that when she was in an operational role she put on a different persona as a woman in uniform.

The male leaders tended to discuss their leadership styles as a reflection of what others expectations are for them. As an example, M1 stated that he doesn’t think about a specific leadership style but rather tries to live up to certain patterns of behaviour in day to day activities

and how he interacts with others. M4 also referred to leadership in terms of what others expected noting that “It’s common sense. You have to treat people as your equal.”

***Social factors that impact leadership style.*** Several of the leaders discussed how having relationships is an important part of leadership. Almost all of the leaders spoke about the importance of treating people kindly, encouraging and empowering others. Creating positive working relationships is an important part of transformational leadership because having engaged and supported employees could create a competitive advantage for organizations. In speaking about the relational aspect of leadership, M6 suggested that transformational leadership is particularly important in a regional community setting because individuals are more likely to have stronger social relationships. F4 noted that leaders are only as good as the people around them and that she thanks them a lot and makes sure they receive credit where credit is due. Several of the leaders also felt that leadership is about bringing people along in their careers and creating opportunities for them. M4 prided himself on being able to hire the same people as he changed jobs and the fact that these individuals followed him throughout his career because they liked working for him so much. He noted:

*“Where I feel I’ve had the most success is having people who want to work for me and have been loyal.”*

***Adapting leadership styles for nature of work.*** All of the leaders were cognizant of the fact that the organizational contexts in which they work can influence the leadership style they use. The leaders identified organizational factors that influenced their leadership style, including hierarchy and level of leadership, and the type of leadership role. Several of the leaders noted that their position in the hierarchy impacted their leadership style. For F1, moving into the

executive cadre influenced the way she led as it was the first time she had to manage managers and help them manage employees. She stated:

*Going from manager to director is a big difference in leadership style- you want to be more transformational, coaching, supportive-you need that in order to keep people in jobs.*

Similarly, M1 felt that as he moved up the hierarchy and further away from the frontline operations, he had more capacity to be transformational in that there was not the same pressure associated with frontline service that required a more transactional nature. Several leaders also indicated that the type of leadership role and the circumstances of the role can impact the leadership style they use, including whether the role is operational or administrative. When discussing her time as the only female at the management table in a regional, operational position F1 noted, “I probably try to adapt my style to with the different types of position. I find myself - in the region, in the operational world- maybe a bit more transactional based just because of the type of work. Especially when it was male dominated.” She went on to note that she had to step up her credibility and “...know what you are talking about to get in that boy’s club”. She stated: “With those types of situations I had to be a bit more assertive and confident.” F3 reflected on her time in an operational role in the region and noted that “being in the region does harden you a bit”, meaning that the operational nature of the work and the fact that there are frontline service commitments meant that she did not have the time or patience to focus on the relational aspects of leadership. When asked if he changes his leadership style depending upon the nature of the work M8 noted “100 percent!”, and went on to give an example of how he became more transformational when he switched from an operational position to an administrative role. M4 noted that he is directive when he wants something to change, stating “I’m directive to stop

people from doing things”. He then encourages them to come back with a proposal for how to do things differently.

Additionally, the participants underlined specific environmental constraints or organizational influences that impacted their leadership approaches. For example, stress could dictate a more directive style. F2 felt that when she was under pressure she became more directive and transactional. M5, who had recently changed from an operational role to an administrative role, noted that during a period of transition for employees he focussed on the relational aspect of leading which was in tune with the needs of the employees. The depth and breadth of responsibilities was also identified as an influence on leadership style. M6 suggested that leaders in operational roles are more likely to be transformational than those in administrative roles because the depth and breadth of the operational roles in the region require leaders to trust and empower their team members. Similarly, F4 noted that because of the vast depth and breadth of the scope of her responsibilities, which include both administrative and operational responsibilities, she has to empower and trust in her employees to be able to achieve objectives.

The information garnered from the qualitative interviews indicates that men and women shift their leadership behaviours depending upon the nature of the work and specific organizational or environmental factors. However, where the men talked about voluntarily shifting their leadership style to address certain circumstances at work, the context gathered from the female leaders indicated that they did not necessarily want to shift their leadership style but felt that they had to in order to be seen as more effective.

**Evaluation of leadership styles.** Hypothesis three was:

H3: Female leaders will perceive they are evaluated more negatively in line roles than staff roles.

***Perceived behaviours.*** During the interviews, all of the female leaders reported behaviours that support the indication that women are evaluated less favorably when adopting a transformational leadership style. This was determined by coding the basic themes that indicated perception using key words and text phrases such as “I had to be”, “you had to be”, “you had to put on” “what they thought”, “take on characteristics”, “they are described as”, and “I act differently”. F1 stated:

*In an operational role, in the male dominated management environment, I had to be more assertive, exhibit confidence, not show stress- stress was a weakness.*

In discussing the way that women are perceived when leading in an operational role F3 noted:

*The sexism (of a specific region I worked) was perpetuated by women at the management table that didn't use their voice- they were taking on what they thought a woman in uniform should be...being overly aggressive, taking on what you would think a male would be like in that role.*

She went on to provide interesting insight into the different roles that women take on in a male dominated, operational environment in order to be seen as effective. She explained that she had experienced pockets of workplace environments where women take on either an “ultra-assertive” role, or a passive role depending upon other characteristics of their personality.

*100 percent women take on male characteristics because that's what's acceptable or what they have to do to succeed...and those that may be "weaker" will take on a meek role of nothingness.*

F4 asserted a relationship between transactional women and effectiveness:

*I can think of many women that are super transactional and nasty...and yet they are described as "she's not very nice but she's effective". We need a culture change because how we get results matters, and should be considered.*

She further explained that when women are more democratic, they are likely to be seen as weaker:

*If women let transformational take over, their style is seen as too weak, too nice, too mothering. Female leaders tend to be more likely to compromise- whereas some of the males [leaders] dig their heels in and say 'this is my position' and that tends to get rewarded more.*

The context of this situation indicates that women can be more effective when they are not focussed on the relational aspects of leadership. Additionally, some of the male leaders reported behaviours that indicate women may be judged differently. M3 stated:

*For the same behaviour, (a woman acting aggressively), the outcome is not the same. There is a double standard.*

M1 provided an interesting perspective on the characteristics he admired in a female leader. When speaking about this particular leader he noted:

*She was very balanced in terms of her ability to make decisions. She could make good decisions under pressure- tactical and strategic decisions.*

These comments reveal an admiration for the stereotypical male leader characteristics of rational logic, analytic thinking, and the ability to take decisive action. The experiences and observations of the leaders indicate the influence of gender and leader stereotypes on leadership styles and perceived effectiveness in leadership roles. While the sample size for the qualitative interviews was small and there are limitations because of that, the results noted above generally provide support for H3 as they indicate that female leaders perceived that they were evaluated negatively in more traditionally male dominated roles unless they exhibited different behaviours. For example, F2 felt that she acted differently in male dominated meetings, becoming much more serious, being much more prepared, and not using humour as she normally would have in a more balanced or female dominated meeting. Additionally, she noted that she would not interject, provide comments or ask questions where she normally would for fear of not knowing the files. Based on these comments, it appears the leader perceives that she will be evaluated negatively when operating in a male dominated environment. F4 discussed how she had to put on a completely different persona in the uniform as opposed to that she used in her administrative role, which suggests that in order to be seen as effective in the operational male dominated role she had to lead differently. F1 also discussed how she felt she was perceived when working in male dominated operational role, noting that she had to be tougher, and not exhibit signs of stress or weakness. These statements support the assertion that women perceive they will be evaluated more negatively in male dominated roles. This has practical implications which will be discussed in the next chapter.

### **Summary**

This chapter provided an overview of the results of this study. Part One consisted of a quantitative analysis of leadership styles in a male dominated organization. Out of a population



of 164, 50 executives participated in a self-reported survey of leadership styles. T-tests conducted on the results revealed that there was not a significant difference in leadership styles of men verses women, or of individuals in operational verses administrative roles.

Part Two consisted of qualitative interviews with four females and six male leaders that self-identified as participants. Two overarching themes emerged from the study: (1) Effective leadership styles (2) Evaluation of leadership styles. While the leaders noted differences between the way that men and women lead, four out of the ten also indicated that these differences could be attributed to personality differences not just gender. It is worth noting that these four were all male leaders. All of the leaders discussed their leadership traits, which included being authentic, leading with a sense of self, and leading by example. Several of the leaders indicated that they adapt their leadership style depending upon the nature of the work and that being further away from the front-line operations and higher up the hierarchy allowed them to be more transformational. All of the female leaders discussed the challenges of leading in a male dominated organization and the perceptions that both leaders and followers have when leading in these roles. Chapter 5 will provide interpretations and conclusions drawn from the data as well as recommendations for future studies.

## **Chapter 5. Discussion**

### **Review**

Leadership is a complex process that results from the interaction among a leader, followers, and the situation, and we must be aware of how the process of leadership and our images and expectations of effective leaders, changes along with organizational, social, and cultural evolutions. This study focused on transformational leadership and transactional leadership. These leadership styles, in particular transformational leadership, have been of considerable interest in the leadership literature over the past several years (Avolio and Bass 2004). A leader can be both transformational and transactional; however, in general the transformational style has been seen as more effective (Gardner & Stough 2002).

Transformational leadership is a compilation of characteristics which promote, encourage and empower individuals to work together toward a common, understood goal (Warrick, 2011).

Researchers such as Huczynski and Buchanan (2007) corroborate Burns (1978) and Bass (1997, 1998) in their assertion that transformational leadership theory has proven to be adaptable to the requirements of modern organizational life. These researchers have argued that the rapidly changing competitive organizational environments of today require a participative, visionary, and inspirational approach to leadership.

This study contributes to the empirical research literature through an exploration of male and female leadership styles in the context of a male dominated organization. The information gained from this study has practical implications for female and male leaders in male dominated organizations in ascertaining the perceived effectiveness of approaches to leadership, which may help men and women better understand leadership expectations. Further, organizations and institutions have realized the importance of leadership and are seeking to maximize leadership

potential with the aim of gaining an increased and sustainable competitive edge. The benefits of discovering leadership styles used by executives across varying positions provides invaluable information to an organization, including how best to support their leaders

### **Restatement of Purpose**

Resources provided in the literature review of this study indicate there is debate as to whether or not men and women lead differently on the basis of gender. Additionally, research suggests that a relationship exists between female leaders and transformational leadership, with the possibility that this relationship is negated when the organizational context is male dominated. The goal of this research was to examine the differences in leadership styles of men and women in male dominated organizations and determine if women tend to lead in a more transactional manner when leading in roles typically considered masculine (operational or line roles) versus roles traditionally depicted as feminine (administrative or staff roles). Additionally, this research sought to determine if women perceive they are evaluated differently in these leadership roles. Role congruity and social identity theory provided a useful foundation for the discussion of the research questions. These theories were selected as they provide insight into prejudice that arises from an incongruity between a group stereotype and social role characteristics as well as how and why individuals adopt the identity of a group in a workplace and act in ways that they perceive members of that group to act.

This chapter presents key findings and places them in a larger context using extant literature. The limitations of the study are discussed and recommendations and implications for theory and practice are offered.

### **Interpretation of Key Findings**

Through analysis of the data provided by the MLQ 5X Short and analysis of the leaders' responses in the qualitative interviews, the global themes of effective leadership styles and evaluation of leadership styles emerged. Although the results achieved through the MLQ 5X Short were not as anticipated, this data served the purpose of providing an overall picture of the leadership styles across executives in the CBSA and allowed the researcher to place in context and interpret the data gained in the qualitative interviews. The below is a summary of the findings organized by global theme.

**Effective leadership styles.** The quantitative data reveal that as a whole, the participants, both men and women perceived themselves as transformational leaders. The overall mean score for participants was 3.34, which is in the ideal range of 3-4 for transformational leadership. These results were unexpected. It was anticipated that the majority of the leaders would utilize a transactional leadership style, given that the CBSA is a law enforcement agency with a rules-based environment. It was also expected that women would use a more transformational leadership style in roles that were not male dominated, however no differences were found. These findings likely indicate that there is a well-established and common approach to leadership at the Executive level within the CBSA. The Public Service places an emphasis on key leadership competencies, which are often reinforced through executive level training. All of the leaders had progressed in their career and the majority acknowledged having changed approaches to leadership throughout their career, in part due to improvement of skills, training, and practical experience. The MLQ 5X Short data shows mid-range levels (55<sup>th</sup> percentile) in the transactional behaviour of Contingent Reward, which is consistent with the Public Service leadership competency emphasis on achieving results. Thus, despite the fact that the CBSA is

male dominated in operational roles (in terms of representation as well as culture) senior leaders are still closely aligned with the broader Government of Canada expectations identified in the Blueprint 2020 Initiative which include the key competencies of mobilizing people, promoting innovation and guiding change, and creating vision and strategy (Treasury Board of Canada, 2016).

A contributing factor to the lack of statistically significant difference in mean MLQ scores of leadership styles between male and female leaders could be the executive level position itself. Several of the leaders noted that their position in the hierarchy provided them with the opportunity to be more transformational. As an executive, the leaders are required to manage managers, which for F1 introduced an element of coaching to her leadership style. Additionally, some leaders identified that being further away from the frontline operations allowed them to be more transformational, indicating that the level of leadership role may impact leadership style.

The finding that there was no statistically significant difference in leadership styles between male and female leaders could also indicate a strong organizational culture and accepted ways of doing things within the organization. As an example, F3 noted that women in a particular operational setting took on characteristics of what they would think a male would be like in that role, becoming more aggressive and more assertive. Researchers have found that role requirements and guidelines about conduct of behaviour are factors that influence leadership styles (Robinson & Lipman-Blumen, 2003). Fierman (1990) argued that managers of both sexes are a self-selecting population and those who choose a managerial career share a great deal in common. Eagly and Johnson's (1990) meta-analysis also supports this in that out of the three categories of research studies identified (i.e., laboratory experiments, assessment studies, and organizational studies), only in organizational studies were women not found to be slightly

gender stereotypic. Social identity theory also provides support for this assertion in that individual members belonging to the same group are likely to adopt the identity of the group in which they categorize themselves (Tajfel & Turner, 1986). The above-noted assertion by F3 further provides support for role congruity theory, indicating that even women ascribe masculine stereotypes to leader roles.

In the present study, male leaders tended to interpret differences in leadership styles to personality, with four of the male leaders specifically stating that they feel that leadership style is attributable to personality. However, one of these same leaders, M2, noted that he relates “more to women than to men” in his leadership style, which suggests a recognition of difference based on gender. The female leaders tended to share how their leadership style differs. Female participants were cognizant of how they lead in certain contexts. In particular, women tended to analyze their behaviour more, especially when they were leading in an operational role. Three out of the four female participants had worked in operational positions and all three indicated that, to some extent, they knowingly acted differently in an operational role. One leader acknowledged that her leadership style was more assertive in the operational role. Another noted that she had to put on a completely different persona as a woman in a uniform than she would in an office setting. These statements are consistent with the literature on role congruity theory, which suggests that women may have to modify their preferred behaviour in order to maintain legitimacy as a leader, particularly in a male dominated setting that is incongruent with their gender expectations (Eagly, 2005; Eagly et al. 1995).

In Part One of the study, participants were asked to identify whether they worked in an operational position or in an administrative position to determine if any differences in leadership style may be attributable to the nature of work rather than any gender differences. The hypothesis

was that leaders would be more transformational in administrative or staff positions. The functions of line managers (operational managers) and staff managers may reflect very different perspectives on working in organizations (Church & Wacławski, 2001). It was expected that staff professionals in human resources or organizational development positions would have to be more facilitative and process-oriented in their approach to working with others than would managers with bottom-line authority and responsibility (Church & Wacławski, 2001). However, this hypothesis was not supported. A potential explanation was offered by M6 in Part Two of the study. He suggested that leaders in operational roles have to be transformational leaders because the depth and breadth of the operational roles in the region require leaders to trust and empower their team members. F4 echoed this sentiment noting that the depth and breadth of her responsibilities impacted her leadership approach in that she had to learn to trust in her employees. Further research into the different perspectives of operational managers and administrative managers might provide interesting results.

**Evaluation of leadership styles.** Research on role congruity theory illustrates how leader roles that are highly male dominated or culturally masculine are challenging for women because of their incompatibility with gender role expectations (Eagly, 2007). This can lead to negative evaluations of effectiveness, which then impacts access to leadership roles (Eagly, et al. 1995). Studies that measure effectiveness of male and female leaders have tended to either relate organizations effectiveness to the percentages of women among their executives, or assess the effectiveness of individual male and female leaders (Eagly, 2007). The researcher noted that some of the questions were challenging and respondents took time to think and reflect on their leadership styles, in both the past and the present, and the leadership styles of their colleagues.

The qualitative data suggest that women perceive they are evaluated differently in roles traditionally considered masculine. As an example, F2 noted that she acted much differently when in a meeting that was male dominated. She felt that she had to be much more serious, much more prepared, and that she would not use humour as she normally would in a more balanced or female dominated meeting. Additionally, she noted that she would not interject, provide comments or ask questions where she normally would. Further, F4 noted that some women in the organization are described as “not very nice” but “effective”, implying that these women do not lead with the relational, nurturing qualities that are specific to the female stereotype, and they are perceived as “effective” in the organization. She further alluded to the fact that this stereotype is endemic to the organization as she noted that a shift in culture is required because it is not only the results that matter but how the organization gets results as well. F4 also discussed how she had to put on a completely different persona in the uniform than in her administrative role, which suggests that in order to be seen as effective, she had to lead differently. Likewise, F3 felt very strongly that women take on what they perceive to be masculine qualities in an operational leadership role because that is what is acceptable in order for them to succeed.

The findings from the qualitative study also suggest that the expectations placed on female leaders are not always the same as those placed on male leaders. For example, F3, a female leader in an operational position noted that if women let their transformational style take over in an operational role then they are seen as too weak. Similarly, M3, a male leader in an operational position noted that women have to play a game and present themselves as others would like to see them. This may have implications for female leaders given the emphasis leaders in this study placed on leading authentically. Almost all of the leaders stated the importance of being authentic and to leading according to a sense of self and personal values.



F4 stated that she leads with a sense of self, and further noted that in general people respond positively when you are authentic. F2 recalled a time when she lost her way with respect to her leadership style, and interestingly, this occurred when she began managing a male dominated team. She noted that she moved away from her innate leadership style of listening and facilitation (her authentic leadership style) as she tried to figure out what the expectations for her were at that time. She has since found that she has come back to this leadership style, and that it is the leadership style in which she feels most effective.

In recent leadership literature there has been a growing body of work on authentic leadership. Researchers, scholars and practitioners have noted a need for a more authentic leadership development strategy for organizations to meet desirable outcomes in challenging and turbulent times (Luthans & Avolio, 2003; Seligman, 2002). The term authenticity here refers to owning one's personal experiences, be they thoughts, emotions, needs, wants, preferences, or beliefs, and it further implies that the leader acts in accordance with the true self, expressing oneself in ways that are consistent with inner thoughts and feelings (Avolio & Gardner, 2005). Walumbwa, et al., (2008) define authentic leadership as a pattern of leader behaviour that draws upon and promotes positive psychological capacities and a positive ethical climate to foster greater self-awareness, an internalized moral perspective, balanced processing of information, and relational transparency on the part of leaders working with followers. Key components of authentic leadership include a positive moral perspective, leader self-awareness, leader self-regulation, leader behaviours, follower development and organizational context. Authentic leaders have confidence, hope and optimism that stems from their strong beliefs in themselves and they make clear to associates exactly what they need from them in order to achieve

sustainable growth and performance at individual, team, and/or organizational levels (Avolio & Gardner 2005).

If female leaders are altering their behaviours they may not be leading authentically, and may be seen as disingenuous. Additionally, if women are acting based on how they think a man would act in a particular role (i.e. more aggressive, assertive) as F3 suggests, they may be contributing to a more negative evaluation of their effectiveness and potentially limiting their access to leadership roles. Research supports the hypothesis that women are evaluated negatively when they exhibit masculine leadership styles (Eagly et al. 1995; Eagly *et al.*, 1992; Rudman and Glick, 2001; Rudman *et al.*, 2012; Heilman and Chen, 2005). When women defy feminized stereotypes by acting more dominant or expressing less interpersonal orientation, they are more likely to receive negative evaluations of their leadership. In sum, the need to lead in a manner true to oneself and the need to meet leader expectations can present challenges for women in male dominated organizations in that they may be perceived negatively when their behaviours do not align with the leader role stereotypes.

### **Implications for Theory and Practice**

This study offers several important contributions to the existing literature on gender and leadership style. First, to the best of the researcher's knowledge this study is one of few, if any, empirical studies to explore the differences in leadership style by gender and functional role in law enforcement in Canada. Without research and action around how women are marginalized, the costs to female leaders personally and professionally as well as to institutions will remain unchallenged. Second, the results of this study find continued support for social identity theory and role congruity theory in that some women adapt their behaviors to be more consistent with male and leader stereotypes when operating in a male dominated environment. The finding that

at least some women altered their leadership style to be more consistent with male and leader stereotypes when operating in a male dominated environment is significant because patterns of discrimination and stereotype may account for the low number of female leaders in senior leadership positions. Thus, it is important for male dominated organizations to understand the implications to ensure that women can achieve higher levels of leadership. While these results suggest that some of the key assumptions around the ways in which gender roles were constructed are still relevant (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Eagly, Karau, & Johnson 1992; Heilman, 1983; Rudman & Glick, 2001), the finding that male leaders were just as likely to be as transformational as women indicates that some of these assumptions may have changed. Finally, this study finds support for the importance that leaders place on authentic leadership, which is a growing area of study within academic research.

From a practical perspective, this study offers several important points of interest. First, the finding that the majority of the leaders are using a transformational leadership style could reflect an overall adherence to the Public Service competencies. This is of value as it indicates that senior leaders are closely aligned with the broader Government of Canada leader expectations. Second, the lack of a statistically significant difference across both male and female leaders and administrative and operational leader roles may suggest a strong culture and accepted way of doing things in the organization at the Executive level. Third, the data obtained during the qualitative interviews indicates that at least some women feel pressure to conform to masculine leader role stereotypes in operational contexts, which indicates that there is still a male dominated ethic in these roles. This may have implications for the perceived effectiveness of women in these positions. Finally, the findings of this study suggest that leaders are cognizant of a requirement to shift leadership style at different times due to the nature of the work

(operational dictated more transactional style) and level of hierarchy which included formal training and having increased responsibility (required more transformational leadership style). This may indicate that in some instances transactional leadership is appropriate, or expected. It is possible that coaching and mentoring activities could assist leaders in making this transition at appropriate times. Additionally, middle management training programs could encourage development of transformational leadership at varying levels in the organization.

### **Limitations**

This study has several limitations worth noting. First, only one organization was examined. When a sampling frame consists of employees of one organization, the findings can only be generalised to employees of that organisation (Saunders et al., 2009). It should also be noted that the study population was limited to executives in the Canada Border Services Agency, a Public Service organization which has clear leadership expectations, particularly at the executive level, meaning that the results might have been different had more junior levels of leadership been included. Second, the sample size was small. This can be problematic for quantitative analysis, as a larger sample size will lower the likely error in generalizing the findings (Saunders et al., 2009). Additionally, the larger the absolute size of a sample, the more closely its distribution will be to the normal distribution and thus the more robust it will be (Saunders et al., 2009). However, the sample size for the quantitative study is within the recommended threshold. Researchers Corder and Foreman (2009) suggest that the minimum sample size for using a parametric test (such as a t-test) varies among texts. For instance, they cite both Pett (1997) and Salkind (2004), who noted that most researchers suggest  $n > 30$ , whereas Warner (2008) encouraged  $n > 20$  as a minimum. The qualitative study consisted of ten interview participants. While the sample size is below the recommended threshold, the data still have

practical implications. Additionally, the researcher was a part of the organization under study at the time and knew some of the participants (although the researcher was not a part of a reporting relationship with any of the participants) which may have introduced biases. Finally, all of the data were collected through self-report, meaning there is the possibility of perception errors and bias on the part of the respondents. Managers self-ratings of leadership behaviour tend to be inflated and differences exist between self-reported leadership behaviour and actual leadership behaviour as observed by subordinates and peers. However, this study intended to examine individual perceptions of leadership style, not an assessment of the type of leadership styles found at the executive level within the CBSA, therefore the data gathered still has valuable practical implications.

### **Recommendations for Future Study**

This section outlines recommendations for further research, including examining and addressing gender equality in public service organizations, research design for further research, and further research on leadership styles and effectiveness in male dominated organizations.

**1. Examining gender equality in different functional roles.** Examining gender equality issues in public service organizations needs to incorporate more than simple cross-agency comparisons of the status of women and focus on women's share of total employment. It is recognized that the Canadian Public Service has a high percentage of female employees at all levels. As a whole the CBSA, a public service law enforcement agency, has equal representation of males and females except in the operational positions where women are underrepresented. The results of this study support the need for gender equity analysis to include the types of positions and the associated functions (i.e. whether operational or administrative) that women hold to determine if leadership styles are consistent across both male dominated and more gender-equal

organizations. There are few empirical studies that provide comparisons between functions and perspectives of operational manager's verses staff managers in the workplace. Further analysis into the leadership styles across these groups may create opportunities to enhance effectiveness within the organization.

**2. Research on effectiveness of leadership styles.** Further study is required on the effectiveness of leadership styles in male dominated organizations. Part One of the present study utilized the MLQ 5X Short to measure the transformational and transactional leadership styles in an organization. The quantitative portion of the study did not incorporate the rater feedback portion of the MLQ 5X Short due in part to the fact that participation would have been difficult to obtain. As noted in the limitations section, managers' self-ratings of leadership behaviour can be inflated and research has shown differences exist between self-reported leadership behaviour and actual leadership behaviour as observed by subordinates and peers. Analysis of data obtained through the qualitative interviews indicate that female leaders have altered their behaviours in order to be seen as effective in operational positions. One leader acknowledged that her leadership style was more assertive in the operational role, while another noted that she had to put on a different person, and yet another indicated that women sometimes take on an aggressive leadership style that they feel would be similar to what a man would take on in that role. While these comments are revealing, feedback from subordinates is needed in order to determine if the leader's behaviour was perceived as more or less effective.

**3. Authentic leadership and male dominated roles.** The results of the qualitative portion of the study indicate that further research in the areas of authentic leadership and female leadership in male dominated roles is necessary. In the qualitative interview, all of the female leaders indicated that they adjusted their leadership style when operating in male dominated

roles. This becomes problematic in light of the findings in this study around authentic leadership. Almost all of the leaders noted the importance of being authentic in their leadership style, which can present challenges for women in male dominated roles. Eagly (2005) uses role incongruity analysis to answer the question of why authenticity can be difficult to achieve as a female leader. She notes that in many organizational contexts, people are often unaccustomed to women possessing substantial authority. Individuals often doubt that women possess the appropriate competencies, and may also resent the overturning of the expected relations between the sexes. Eagly (2005) recommends that employees participate in training programs that focus on developing and valuing interpersonal relationships, with the hope that by changing the focus of the organization to value relationships, women and other outsiders would find success. This recommendation echoes a point raised in the qualitative interviews of the present research that a culture change is needed to emphasize how the organization gets results, not just the results. As noted in the implications, close examination of institutional culture should be considered.

**4. Further research on leadership styles in executive and managerial roles.** Finally, further study on leadership styles in the varying roles and levels of operational leaders and administrative leaders could provide valuable results for male dominated organizations. The results of the qualitative interview indicate that context of leadership is important. It was anticipated that female leaders in traditionally feminine leadership roles would utilize a more transformational leadership style than male or female leaders in traditionally masculine roles. However, the results indicate that the majority of the leaders were using a transformational leadership style. Several leaders provided context for this finding by indicating that they could be more transformational when they didn't have the pressures associated with frontline service that required a more transactional nature. Additionally, all of the leaders had progressed in their

careers and most had completed executive level training. A comparison of more junior levels of leadership styles with executive leadership styles could provide insight into leadership style requirements for the nature of work as well as identify possible training needs.

### **Conclusions**

This research focussed on the leadership styles of male and female executives within the Canada Border Services Agency, a federal public service organization. The research was conducted in two parts. Part One of the study consisted of a quantitative survey, using the MLQ 5X Short to establish what type of leadership style, whether transactional or transformational, leaders in the organization were using. Following the collection and analysis of this data, the researcher conducted follow-up interviews with ten voluntary participants to provide context and insight into the findings of the qualitative data. The research emphasized role congruity theory and social identity theory when examining the literature and the findings. It is clear from this study that the leaders who participated place a great deal of importance on the way they lead and the impact that their leadership styles have within the organization. This study indicates that majority of the leaders in the organization are using a transformational leadership style, which emphasizes employee empowerment, building trust, and heightening personal development. The findings suggest that further research on gender and leadership styles, including authentic leadership styles, as they interact with functional roles and managerial level would significantly contribute to the current literature.



### References

- Adair, J. (1983). *Effective leadership: A self-development manual*. Aldershot, UK: Gower.
- Amabile, T., Schatzel, E., Moneta, G., & Kramer, S. (2004). Leader behaviors and the work environment for creativity: Perceived leader support. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 15(1), 5-32.
- Antonakis, J., & Day, D.V. (2003). *The nature of leadership*. Los Angeles, CA: Sage Publications.
- Antonakis, J., Avolio, B.J., & Sivasubramaniam, N. (2003). Context and leadership: An examination of the nine-factor full range leadership theory using the Multi Leadership Questionnaire. *Leadership Quarterly*, 14(3), 261-295.
- Archer, J., & Lloyd, B. (2002). *Sex and gender* (2nd ed.). New York, NY, US: Cambridge University Press.
- Ashforth, B., & Mael, F. (1989). Social identity theory and the organization. *Academy of Management*, 14(1), 20-39.
- Avolio, B. J., & Bass, B. M. (2004). *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. Manual and Sampler Set* (3rd ed.). Redwood City, CA: Mindgarden.
- Avolio, B. J., Bass, B. M., & Jung, D. I. (1999). Re-examining the components of transformational and transactional leadership using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 72(4), 441-462.  
<https://doi.org/10.1348/096317999166789>
- Avolio, Bruce., & Gardner, William. (2005). Authentic leadership development: Getting to the root of positive forms of leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 16 (3), 315-338.

Avolio, B., & Howell, J. (1992). The ethics of charismatic leadership: Submission or liberation? *The Academy of Management*, 6(2), 43-54.

Bartol, K.M., & Butterfield, D.A. (1976). Sex effects in evaluating leaders. *Journal of Applied Psychology*. 61(4), 446-454. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.61.4.446>

Bass, B.M. (1985). *Leadership and performance beyond expectations*. New York: Free Press.

Bass, B.M. (1990). From transactional to transformational leadership: Learning to share the vision. *Organizational Dynamics*, 18(3), 19-3. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0090-2616\(90\)90061-S](https://doi.org/10.1016/0090-2616(90)90061-S)

Bernard M. Bass., & Avolio, Bruce J. (1990). Developing transformational leadership: 1992 and beyond. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 14(5).  
<https://doi.org/10.1108/03090599010135122>.

Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1994). Improving organizational effectiveness through transformational leadership. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Bass, B.M., & Avolio, B.J. (1995). "Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire". Mind Garden. Palo Alto CA.

Bass, B.M., Avoilio, B.J. & Atwater. (1996). The transformational and transactional leadership of men and women. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 45, 5-34.

Bass, B.M., & Stogdill, R. (1990). Bass & Stogdill's handbook of leadership: Theory, research, and managerial applications. (3rd ed.). New York: The Free press.

Bass, B.M., & Bass, R. (2008). The Bass Handbook of Leadership: Theory, research, and managerial applications. 4th edition. Free Press.

Bass, B.M., & Riggio, R. (2006). Transformational leadership. (2<sup>nd</sup> Ed.). Psychology Press. New Jersey.

- Barreto, M., Ryan, M. K., & Schmitt, M. T. (2009). The glass ceiling in the 21st century: Understanding barriers to gender equality. *Psychology of women book series*. Washington, DC, US: American Psychological Association.
- Bartlett II, J. E., Kotrlik, J., & Higgins, C. C. (2001). Organizational research: determining appropriate sample size in survey research. *Information Technology, Learning, and Performance Journal*, 19(1).
- Bayes, M., & Newton, P.M. (1978). Women in authority: A sociopsychological analysis. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 14(1), 7-25.
- Bensimon, R., Neumann, A., & Birnbaum, E. (1989). Leadership in higher education: A multi-dimensional approach to research. *The Review of Higher Education*, 12(2), 101-105.
- Berg, B. L., & Budnick, K. J. (1986). Defeminization of women in law enforcement: A new twist in the traditional police personality. *Journal of Police Science & Administration*, 14(4), 314-319.
- Berkery, E., Morley, M., & Tiernan, S. (2013). Beyond gender role stereotypes and requisite managerial characteristics: from communal to androgynous, the changing views of women. *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, 28(5), 278-298.  
[doi.org/10.1108/GM-12-2012-0098](https://doi.org/10.1108/GM-12-2012-0098)
- Berson, Y., & Linton, J. D. (2005). An examination of the relationships between leadership style, quality and employee satisfaction in R&D verses administrative environments. *R&D Management*, 35(1), 51-60. [doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9310.2005.00371.x](https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9310.2005.00371.x)
- Bierema, LL. (2009). Critiquing human resource development's dominant masculine rationality and evaluating its impact. *Human Resource Development Review*, 8(1), 68-96.  
[doi.org/aupac.lib.athabascau.ca/10.1177/1534484308330020](https://doi.org/aupac.lib.athabascau.ca/10.1177/1534484308330020)

- Butterfield, D.A., & Powell, G.N. (1981). Effects of group performance, leader sex, and rater sex on ratings of leader behaviour. *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, 28(1) 129-141.
- Burke, R.J. (1997). *Women directors: Selection, acceptance, and benefits of board membership*. York University. Canada.
- Burns, J.M. (1978) *Leadership*. New York. Harper & Row Inc.
- Braun, V., & Clark, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 3(2), 77-101. doi: 10.1191/1478088706qp063oa
- Brewer, M. B. (1979). In-group bias in the minimal intergroup situation: A cognitive-motivational analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 86(2), 307-324.
- Brewer, M., & Gardner, W. (1996). Who is this “we”? Levels of collective identity and self-representations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 71(1), 83-93.
- Brewer, M.B., & Kramer, R.M. (1985). The psychology of intergroup attitudes and behaviour. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 36(1), 219-244.  
Doi:10.1146/annurev.ps.36.020185.001251.
- Bryman, A. (2004). Qualitative research on leadership: A critical but appreciative review. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 15(6), 729–769.
- Bryman, A. (2008), *Social research methods*. 3rd Edition, Oxford University Press.
- Cann, A., & Siegfried, W. D. (1990). Gender stereotypes and dimensions of effective leader behavior. *Sex Roles: A Journal of Research*, 23(7-8), 413-419.
- Cannella, A., & Rowe, G. (1995). Leader capabilities, succession, and competitive context: A study of professional baseball teams. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 6(1), 69-88.

Carli, L. L. (1989). Gender differences in interaction style and influence. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*. 56(4), 565-576.

Cauchon, D. (2009). Women gain in historic job shift. USA Today. September 03: 1.

Catalyst (2015). Women in the workforce: Canada

<http://www.catalyst.org/knowledge/women-workforce-canada>

Catalyst (2016). Women in the workforce: United States.

<http://www.catalyst.org/knowledge/women-workforce-united-states>

CBC Business. (2015). Women now hold 8.5% of Canada's top jobs.

<http://www.cbc.ca/news/business/women-now-hold-8-5-of-canada-s-top-jobs-1.3001744>

Cejka, M., & Eagly, A. H. (1999). Gender stereotypic images of occupations correspond to the sex segregation of employment. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 25, p. 413–23.

Church, A., & Waclawski, J. (2001). Hold the line: An examination of line vs. staff differences.

*Human Resources Management*, 40(1), 21-35. doi: 10.1002/hrm.4013

Coder, L., & Spiller, M.S. (2013). Leadership education and gender roles: Think manager think male?". *Academy of Educational Leadership Journal*, 17(2), 21-51.

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2011). *Research methods in education*. Routledge. New York and London.

Conger, J. A. (1999). Charismatic and transformational leadership in organizations: An insider's perspective on these developing streams of research. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 10(2), 145-170. doi: 10.1016/S1048-9843(99)00012-0

Corder, Gregory., & Foreman, Dale. (2009). Nonparametric statistics for non-statisticians: A step-by-step approach. John Wiley & Sons Inc. NJ.

- Creswell, J.W. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. (3<sup>rd</sup> Ed). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Creswell, J., Plano Clark, V., Gutmann, M., & Hansen, W. (2003). "Advanced mixed methods research designs" in the *Handbook of mixed methods in social and behavioral research*. Sage Publications Inc.
- Daily, C., Certo, S.Trevis., & Dalton, D.R. (1999). A decade of corporate women: some progress in the boardroom, *none* in the executive suite. *Strategic Management Journal*, 20(1), 92-100.
- Daily, Catherine., & Dalton, Dan (2003). Are director equity policies exclusionary? *Business Ethics Quarterly*, 13(4), 415-432.
- Rubin, D.B (1976). Inference and missing data. *Biometrika*, 63(3), 581-592.
- Denzin, N., & Lincoln, Y. (2000). *Handbook of qualitative research*. (2<sup>nd</sup> Ed). Sage. Thousand Oaks.
- De Vaus, D. (2002). *Surveys in social research*. Allen & Unwin. Sydney, Australia.
- Dobbins, G., & Platz, S. J. (1986). Sex differences in leadership: How real are they? *The Academy of Management Review*. 11(1), 118-127.
- Eble, K.E. (1978). *The art of administration*. Jossey-Bass. San Francisco, CA.
- Eagly, A.H. (2007). Female leadership advantage and disadvantage: resolving the contradictions. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 31, 1-12.
- Eagly, A.H. (2003). The female leadership advantage: an evaluation of the evidence. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 14(6), 807-834.
- Eagly, A.H., & Carli L.L. (2007) Women and the labyrinth of leadership. *Harvard Business Review*. 85, 62-71.

- Eagly, A. H., & Diekmann, A. B. (2005). What is the problem? Prejudice as an attitude-in-context. In Dovidio, J. F., Glick, P., Rudman, L. A. (Eds.), *On the nature of prejudice: Fifty years after Allport* (pp. 19–35). Malden, MA: Blackwell
- Eagly A.H., & Johnson (1990). Gender and leadership style: a meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 108 (2), 233-257. doi: 10.1037/0033-2909.108.2.233
- Eagly, A.H. & Karau, Steven. (2002) Role congruity theory of prejudice toward female leaders. *Psychological Review*, 109(3) 573-599.
- Eagly, A.H., Karau, S., & Makhijani, M. (1995). Gender and the effectiveness of leaders: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 117(1), p. 125-145.
- Eagly, A.H. & Johannessen-Schmidt, Mary C. (2001) The leadership styles of men and women. *Journal of Social Issues*, 57(4), p.781-797.
- Eagly, A.H., Johannesen-Schmidt, M.C., & van Engen, M.L. (2003). Transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles: A meta-analysis comparing women and men. *Psychological Bulletin*, 129(4), 569-593.
- Eagly, A. H., Makhijani, M., & Klonsky, B. G. (1992). "Gender and the evaluation of leaders: A meta-analysis": Correction to Eagly et al. *Psychological Bulletin*, 112(3), 557. doi.org/10.1037/h0090375
- Eagly, A. H., Wood, W., & Diekmann, A. B. (2000). Social role theory of sex differences and similarities: A current appraisal. In T. Eckes, & H. M. Trautner (Eds.), *The developmental social psychology of gender* (pp. 123-174). Mahwah, New Jersey: Erlbaum.

- Ely, Robin., & Myerson, Debra. (2000) Advancing gender equity in organizations: The challenge of maintaining a gender narrative. *Organizations*, 7 (4).  
[doi.org/10.1177/135050840074005](https://doi.org/10.1177/135050840074005)
- Fishbach, A., Lichenthaler, P., & Horstmann, N. (2015) Leadership and gender stereotyping of emotions. Think manager-think male? *American Psychological Association*. Special Issue: Gender Influences on Career Development.
- Fan, W., & Yan, Z. (2010). Factors affecting response rates of the web survey: A systematic review. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 26.
- Fierman, J. (1990). Do women manage differently? *Fortune*. 115-118.
- Flood, P., Smith, K., Turner, T., West, M., & Dawson, J. (2000). Chief executive leadership style, consensus decision making, and top management team effectiveness. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 9(3), 401-420.
- Fontana, A., & Frey, J. H. (1998). Interviewing: The Art of Science. In N. K. Denzin, & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Collecting and Interpreting Qualitative Materials* (pp. 47-78). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Fowler, F., J. (1995). Improving survey questions: Design and evaluation. Applied Social Research Methods Series. Vol 38. Boston MA. Sage Publications Inc.
- Fiske, S. T., & Stevens, L. E. (1993). What's so special about sex? Gender stereotyping and discrimination. In S. Oskamp & M. Costanzo (Eds.), *Claremont Symposium on Applied Social Psychology, Gender issues in contemporary society*, 6, 173-196. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.



Gall, M. D., Borg, W. R., & Gall, J. P. (1996). *Educational research: An introduction* (6th ed.).

White Plains, NY, England: Longman Publishing.

Garcia-Retamero, R., & Lopez-Zafra, E. (2006). Prejudice against women in male-congenial environments: Perceptions of gender role congruity in leadership. *Sex Roles & Women's Issues*, 55(1), 51-61.

Gardner, J. W. (1990). *On leadership*. New York. Free Press.

Gardiner, M., & Tiggemann, M. (1999). Gender differences in leadership style, job stress and mental health in male- and female-dominated industries. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 72, 301-315.

Gardner, L., & Stough, C. (2002). Examining the relationship between leadership and emotional intelligence in senior level managers. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 23(2), 68-78.

Germain, M-L., Herzog, M. J. R., & Hamilton, P. R. (2012). Women employed in male dominated industries: lessons learned from female aircraft pilots, pilots in training, and mixed gender flight instructors. *Human Resource Development International*, 15(4), 435-453.

Glick, P., & Fiske, S. T. (1996). The Ambivalent Sexism Inventory: Differentiating hostile and benevolent sexism. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 70(3), 491-512.  
[doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.60.5.656](https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.60.5.656)

Goldman, A E., & McDonald, S. S. (1987). *The group depth interview: Principles and practice*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ. Prentice Hall Inc.

Gomez-Mejia, L., McCann, J., & Page, R. (1985). The structure of managerial behaviours and rewards. *Industrial Relations, A Journal of Economy and Society*, 24(1), 147-154.

Government of Canada (2016). Blueprint 2020 and public service renewal.

<https://www.canada.ca/en/privy-council/topics/blueprint-2020-public-service-renewal.html>

Graeff, C. L. (1997). Evolution of situational leadership theory: A critical review. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 8(2), 153-170. doi.org/10.1016/S1048-9843(97)90014-X

Grant, J. (1988). Women as managers: what can they offer to organizations? *Organizational Dynamics*, 16(1), 56-63.

Haslam, S. A., & Ryan, M. (2008). Glass cliffs are not so easily scaled: On the precariousness of female CEOs' positions. *British Journal of Management*, 20(1), 13-16.  
doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8551.2008.00598.x

Heilman, M.E. (2001). Description and prescription: How gender stereotypes prevent women's ascent up the organizational ladder. *Journal of Social Issues*, 57(4), 657-674. doi.org/10.1111/0022-4537.00234

Heilman, M. E., Block, C. J., Martell, R. F., & Simon, M. (1989). Has anything changed? Current characterizations of men, women, and managers. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 74(6), 935-942. doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.74.6.935

Heilman, M. E., Block, C. J., & Martell, R. F. (1995). Sex stereotypes: Do they influence perceptions of managers? *Journal of Social Behaviour and Personality*, 10 (4), 237.

Heilman, M.E., & Chen, J.J. (2005). Same behaviour, different consequences: Reactions to men's and women's altruistic citizenship behaviour. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90(3), 431-442.

Helgesen, S. (1990). *The feminine advantage*. New York. Doubleday.

- Heraty, N. & Morley, M. (1995) Line managers and human resource development. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 19(10), 31-37.
- Hersey, P., & Blanchard, K. (1969). *Management of Organizational Behavior: Utilizing human resources*. Prentice-Hall.
- Hollander, E.P. (1992). The essential interdependence of leadership and followership. *Directions in Psychological Science*, 1, 71-75.
- House, R. (1976). *Theory of charismatic leadership*. Working Paper Series 76-06. Toronto Univ. (Ontario)
- Huddy, L., & Terkildsen, N. (1993). Gender stereotypes and the perception of male and female candidates. *American Journal of Political Science*, 37(1), 119-147.
- Hunt, J.G. (1991). *Leadership: A new synthesis*. Newbury Park, CA. Sage.
- Hyde, Janet Shibley. (2005). The gender similarities hypothesis. *American Psychologist*, 60(6), 581-592.
- Jones, D., & Rudd, R. (2008). Transactional, transformational, or laissez faire leadership: An assessment of college of agriculture academic program leaders (Deans) leadership styles. *Journal of Agricultural Education*, 49(2), 88-97.
- Johns, H., & Moser, H. R. (1989). From trait to transformation: The evolution of leadership theories. *Education*, 110(1), 115-122.
- Johnson, B., R., & Onwuegbuzie, A. (2004). Mixed methods research: A research paradigm whose time has come. *The Educational Researcher* 33(7), 14.
- Johnson, B., & Turner, L. A. (2003). Data collection strategies in mixed methods research. In A. Tashakkori, and C. Teddlie (Eds.), *Handbook of mixed methods in social and behavioral research* (pp. 297-319). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

- Judge, T., & Piccolo, R. (2004). Transformational and transactional leadership: A meta-analytic test of their relative validity. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89(5), 755-768.
- J.W. Graham., & J.L. Schafer (1999). On the performance of multiple imputation for multivariate data with small sample size. *Statistical Strategies for Small Sample Research*, R. Hoyle, ed., Sage, Thousand Oaks, CA, 1–29.
- Kakar, S. (2002). Gender and police officers' perceptions of their job performance: An analysis of the relationship between gender and perceptions of job performance. *Criminal Justice Policy Review*, 13(3), 238-256.
- Kark, R., & Eagly, A. H. (2010). Gender and leadership: Negotiating the labyrinth: Volume 2: Gender Reserach in Social and Applied Ps. In J. C. Chrisler, & D. R. McCreary (Eds.), *Handbook of gender research in psychology: Volume 2: Gender Research in Social and Applied Ps* (pp. 443-468). New York: Springer.
- Kark, R., Waismel-Manor, R., & Shamir, B. (2012). Does valuing androgyny and femininity lead to a female advantage? The relationship between gender-role, transformational leadership and identification. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 23 (3) 620-641.
- Klenke, K. (1996). *Women and leadership: A contextual perspective*. Springer Publishing Company.
- Keverline S. (2003). *Women's persistence in nontraditional occupations: A study of federal law enforcement* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). The George Washington University, Washington, DC

Koenig, A. (2007). Testing and extending role congruity theory of prejudice.

Northwestern University. ProQuest Dissertations Publishing.

Koenig, A.M., Eagly, A.H., Mitchell, Abigail., & Ristikari, Tiina. (2011). Are leader stereotypes masculine? A meta-analysis of three research paradigms.

*Psychological Bulletin*, 137(4), 616-642.

Korac-Kakabadse, A., Korac-Kakabadse, N., & Myers, A. (1998) Demographics and leadership philosophy: Exploring gender differences. *Journal of Management Development*, 17(5), 351-388.

Kotter, J.P. (1990). *Force for change: How leadership differs from management*. The Free Press.

Kruse, L., & Wintermantel, M. (1986). Leadership Ms.-Qualified: The Gender Bias in Everyday and Scientific Thinking, in C.F. Graumann and S. Moscovici (eds) *Changing Conceptions of Leadership*. pp. 171–197. New York and Heidelberg. Springer.

Kurtz, D. L., Linnemann, T., & Williams, L. S. (2012). Reinventing the matron: The continued importance of gendered images and division of labor in modern policing. *Women & Criminal Justice*, 22(3), 239–263.

Kushell, E., & Newton, R. (1986). Gender, leadership style, and subordinate satisfaction: An experiment. *Sex Roles*, 14(3-4), 203-309.

Kvale, S. (2007). *Doing interviews*. Sage Publications Ltd.

Lee, D., & Alvares, K. (1977). Effects of sex on descriptions and evaluations of supervisory behaviour in a simulated industrial setting. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 62(4), 405-410.

- Lippa, R. A. (2006). The gender reality hypothesis. *American Psychologist*, 61(6), 639-640.
- Luthans., F. & Avolio, B.J. (2003). Authentic leadership: A positive developmental approach. In: Cameron, K.S., Dutton, J.E. and Quinn, R.E., Eds., *Positive Organizational Scholarship*, Barrett-Koehler, San Francisco, 241-261.
- Lyness, K., & Heilman, M. (2006). When fit if fundamental. Performance evaluations and promotions of upper level female and male managers. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91(4), 777–785.
- Lyness, K., & Thompson, D. (1997). Above the glass ceiling? A comparison of matched samples of female and male executives. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 82, 359-375.
- Lyness, K., & Thompson, D. (2000). Climbing the corporate ladder: do female and male executives follow the same route? *American Psychological Association*, 85(1), 86-101.
- Maher, K. (1997). Gender-related stereotypes of transformational and transactional leadership. *Sex Roles*, 37(3-4) 209-225.
- Madanchian, M., Hussein, N. Noordin, F., & Taherdoost, H. (2016). Leadership effectiveness measurement and its effect on organizational outcomes. *Procedia Engineering*, 181, 1043-1048. doi.org/10.1016/j.proeng.2017.02.505
- Mann, R. (1959). A review of the relationships between personality and performance in small groups. *Psychological Bulletin*, 56(4), 241-270.
- Martin, J. (2017). Perceptions of transformational leadership in academic libraries. *Journal of Library Administration*, 56(3), 266-284.

- Mastracci, S., & Bowman, L. (2013). *Public agencies, gendered organizations: The future of gender studies in public management*. Taylor and Francis.
- May, K. (2015). Women make up more than 50% of public service, but the senior positions they're taking have lost clout. National Post.  
<http://news.nationalpost.com/news/canada/women-make-up-more-than-50-of-public-service-but-the-senior-positions-theyre-taking-have-lost-clout>
- McKinsey & Company (2018). *Women in the Workplace 2018*.
- McCleskey, J. A. (2014). Situational, transformational, and transactional leadership and leadership development. *Journal of Business Studies Quarterly*. Antioch 5 (4) 117-130.
- McGrath, J. E. (1982). Dilemmatics: The study of research choices and dilemmas. *American Behavioural Scientist*, 25(2), 179-210.  
[doi.org/10.1177/000276428102500205](https://doi.org/10.1177/000276428102500205)
- McLaughlin, D. (2015). Leveraging the female leadership advantage. *Business NH Magazine*, 32(10), 45-47.
- McNeish, D. (2017). Missing data methods for arbitrary missingness with small samples. *Journal of Applied Statistics*, 44(1), 24-39.
- Meister, A., Sinclair, A., & Jehn, K. A. (2017). Identities under scrutiny: How women leaders navigate feeling misidentified at work. *Leadership Quarterly*, 28,(5) 672-690. [doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2017.01.009](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2017.01.009)
- Merriam, S. (1998). *Qualitative research and case study applications in education*. San Francisco. (USA): Jossey-Bass.

- Miller, L., Neathey, F., Pollard, E., & Hill, D. (2004). *Occupational segregation, gender gaps, and skill gaps*. Institute for Employment Studies.
- Nahavandi, A. (2002). *The art and science of leadership* (3rd ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: PrenticeHall.
- Neuman, W.L. (2006). *Social research methods: Qualitative and quantitative approaches*. Pearson. Toronto.
- Nicholls, J.R. (1985). A new approach to situational leadership. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 6(4), 2-7.
- Noland, M., Moran, T., & Kotschwar, B. (2016). *Is gender diversity profitable? Evidence from a global survey*. Peterson Institute for International Economics, 16(3).
- Oakley, J.G. (2000). Gender-based barriers to senior management positions: Understanding the scarcity of female CEO's. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 27(4), 321-334.
- Padavic, I. (1991). The re-creation of gender in a male workplace. *Symbolic Interaction*, 14(3), 279-294. doi.org/10.1525/si.1991.14.3.279
- Parry, K., Mumford, M.D., Bower, I.M., & Watts, L.L. (2014). Qualitative and historiometric methods in leadership research: A review of the first 25 years of The Leadership Quarterly. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 25(1), 132-151.
- Paustian-Underdahl, S., Slaterry Walker, L., & Woehr, D. (2014). Gender and perceptions of leadership effectiveness: A meta-analysis of contextual moderators. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 99(6), 1129-1145.
- Pett, Marjorie A. (1997). Nonparametric statistics for health care research: Statistics for small samples and unusual distributions. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications Inc.
- Peshkin, A. (1988). In search of subjectivity – one's own. *Educational Researcher*, 17(7), 17-21.



- Podsakoff, P., MacKenzie S., Moorman, R., & Fetter, R. (1990). Transformational leader behaviours and their effects on followers trust in leader, satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behaviours. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 1(2), 107-142.
- Powell, Gary. (2011). The gender and leadership wars. *Organizational Dynamics*. 40 (1), 1-9.  
doi: 10.1016/j.orgdyn.2010.10.009
- Powell, G., & Butterfield, A. (1979). The “good manager”: Masculine or androgynous? The *Academy of Management Journal*, 22(2), 395-403.
- Powell, G., & Butterfield, A. (1989). The “good manager”: Did androgyny fare better in the 1980s? *Group and Organization Studies*, 14(2), 216-233.
- Powell, G., & Butterfield, A. (1994). Investigating the “glass ceiling” phenomenon: An empirical study of actual promotions to top management. *Academy of Management Journal*, 37, 68-86.
- Powell, Gary., & Butterfield, Anthony (2003). Gender, gender identity and aspirations to top management. *Women in Management Review*. Vol.18, Issue 1(2), 88-96.
- Powell, G., & Butterfield, A. (2015). The glass ceiling: What have we learned 20 years on? *Journal of Organizational Effectiveness: People and Performance*, 2(4), 306-326.
- Powell, G., Butterfield, A., & Parent, J. (2002). Gender and managerial stereotypes: Have the times changed? *Journal of Management*, 28(2), 177-193.
- Qu, S., & Dumay, J. (2011). The qualitative research interview. *Qualitative Research in Accounting & Management*, 8(3), 238-264.
- Rabe-Hemp, C. (2009). POLICEwomen or policeWOMEN?: Doing gender and police work. *Feminist Criminology*, 4(114), 114-129.

- Raggins, B. R., & Sundstrum, E. (1989). Gender and power in organizations: A longitudinal study. *Academy of Management*, 105(1), 51-88.
- Ragins, B. R., & Winkel, D. (2011). Gender, emotion and power in work relationships. *Human Resource Management Review*, 21(4). doi: 10.1016/j.hrmr.2011.05.001
- Rice, R., W., & Kastenbaum, D., R. (1983). The contingency model of leadership: Some current issues. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology*, 4(4), 373-392.
- Rieckmann, K. R. (2016). Self-perceived leadership styles of male and female superintendents in Wisconsin public schools. Edgewood College, ProQuest Dissertations Publishing.
- Ritter, B., & Yoder, J. (2004). Gender differences in leader emergence persist even for dominant women: An updated confirmation of role congruity theory. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 28(3), 187-194.
- Ridgeway, C. (2001). Gender, status, and leadership. *Journal of Social Issues*, 57(4), 637-656.
- Rodrigues, A., & Ferreira, M. C. (2015). The impact of transactional and transformational leadership style on organizational citizenship behaviors. *Psico-USF, Bragança Paulista*, 20(3), 493-504.
- Rosen, B., & Jerdee, T. H. (1974). Influence of sex role stereotypes on personnel decisions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 59(1), 9-14.
- Rudman, L., & Glick, P. (2001). Prescriptive gender stereotypes and backlash toward agentic women. *Journal of Social Issues*, 57(4), 743-762.
- Rudman, L., Moss-Racusin, C.A., Phelan, J. E., & Nauts, S. (2012). Status incongruity and backlash effects: Defending the gender hierarchy motivates prejudice against female

- leaders. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 48(1), 165-179.  
doi:10.1016/j.jesp.2011.10.008
- Russell, J., Rush, M., & Herd, A. (1988). An exploration of women's expectations of effective male and female leadership. *Sex Roles*, 18 (5-6), 279-287.
- Salkind, Neil. (2004). Statistics for people (who think they) hate statistics. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc.
- Scandura, T. A., & Williams, E. A. (2003). Research methodology in management: Current practices, trends, and implications for future research. *Academy of Management Journal*, 43(6), 1248-1264.
- Schein, V. E., & Davidson, M. J. (1993). Think manager, think male. *Management Development Review*, 6(3), 675-689.
- Schein, V. E. (1973). The relationship between sex role stereotypes and requisite management characteristics. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 57(2), 95-100.
- Schein, V. E. (1975). Relationships between sex role stereotypes and requisite management characteristics among female managers. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 60(3), 340-344.
- Seligman, M. (2002). *Authentic happiness: Using the new positive psychology to realize your potential for lasting fulfillment*. New York, New York. Free Press.
- Seltzer, J., & Bass, B. M. (1990). Transformational leadership: Beyond initiation and consideration. *Journal of Management*, 16(4), 693-703.  
doi.org/10.1177/014920639001600403
- Singleton, R., & Straits, B. C. (1999). *Approaches to social research*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Smith, C. (2009). "No doubts: Women are better managers". New York Times.

<http://www.nytimes.com/2009/07/26/business/26corner.html>

Smith, P., & Bell, L. (2011). Transactional and transformational leadership in schools in challenging circumstances: A policy paradox. *Management in Education*, 25(2), 59-61.

Smith Porter, Deborah Denise. (2009). A study of the perceptions of female leaders qualifications, leadership style, and effectiveness among elective and selective leaders. Atlanta University Center ETD Collection for AUC Robert W. Woodruff Library.

Solowiej, K.E. (2014). A case study of career success: Male employees in two public sector, female-dominated occupations. University of Worcester.

Statistics Canada. (2012) Canada Yearbook 2012. <https://www.statcan.gc.ca/pub/11-402-x/11-402-x2012000-eng.htm>

Statistics Canada. (2011) Portrait of Canada's Labour Force.

<https://www12.statcan.gc.ca/nhs-enm/2011/as-sa/99-012-x/99-012-x2011002-eng.cfm>

Stogdill, R. M. (1948). Personal factors associated with leadership: A survey of the literature. *The Journal of Psychology, Interdisciplinary and Applied*, 25(1) 35-71.

Stogdill, R. M. (1950). Leadership, membership and organization. *Psychological Bulletin*, 47(1), 1-14.

Turner, S.F., Cardinal, L.B., & Burton, R.M. (2017). Research design for mixed-methods: A triangulation-based framework and roadmap. *Organizational Research Methods* 2017, 20(2), 243-267.

Turner, J. C., & Tajfel, H. (1986). The social identity theory of intergroup behavior. *Psychology of intergroup relations*, 7(24), 276-293. doi.org/10.4324/9780203505984-16

Treasury Board of Canada (2016). Key leadership competency profile and examples of effective and ineffective behaviors. [https://www.canada.ca/en/treasury-board-](https://www.canada.ca/en/treasury-board-secretariat/services/professional-development/key-leadership-competency-profile/examples-effective-ineffective-behaviours.html)

[secretariat/services/professional-development/key-leadership-competency-profile/examples-effective-ineffective-behaviours.html](https://www.canada.ca/en/treasury-board-secretariat/services/professional-development/key-leadership-competency-profile/examples-effective-ineffective-behaviours.html)

Van Engen, M.L., van der Leeden, R., & Willemsen, T. (2001) Gender, context and leadership styles: A field study. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 74 (5), 581-598.

Van Engen, M. Van Knippenberg, A., & Willemsen, T. M. (1996). Sex, status and the use of strategies: A field study on influence in meetings.

Vecchio, R.P. (2002). Leadership and gender advantage. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 13, 643-671.

Vinkenbunrg, C.J., van Engen.Marloes., Eagly, A.H., & Johannesen-Schmidt, M.C. (2011). An exploration of stereotypical beliefs about leadership styles: Is transformational leadership a route to women's promotion? *Leadership Quarterly*, 22(1), 10-21.

Yammarino, F.J. & Bass, B.M. (1990). Transformational leadership and multiple levels of analysis. *Human Relations*, 43(10), 975-995.

Yu, H. (2015). An examination of women in federal law enforcement: An exploratory analysis of the challenges they face in the work environment. *Feminist Criminology*, 10(3), 259-278.

Yu, H. (2017). Post-Executive Order 13583: A Reexamination of Occupational Barriers in Federal Law Enforcement. *Women & Criminal Justice*, 27(4), 205-218.

doi: 10.1080/08974454.2016.1256253

- Yukl, G. (2008). How leaders influence organizational effectiveness. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 19(6), 708-722.
- Yukl, G. (2012). Effective leadership behavior: What we know and what questions need more attention. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 26(4), 66-85.
- Warner, J. (2014). Fact sheet: The women's leadership gap. Centre for American Progress. <https://www.americanprogress.org/issues/women/reports/2014/03/07/85457/fact-sheet-the-womens-leadership-gap/>
- Weitz, L. (2016). Examining the underrepresentation of women leadership within the securities brokerage industry. Northcentral University. ProQuest Dissertations Publishing, 2016.
- Whisenant, W., Lee, D., & Dees, W. (2014). Role congruity theory: Perceptions of fairness and sexism in sport management. *Public Organization Review*. 15(4), 475-485.
- Williams, J.E. & Best, D.L. (1990a). *Measuring sex stereotypes: A multination study*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Wilson, J. (2014). *Essentials of business research: A guide to doing your research project*. Sage Publications.
- Watkins Baskerville, M., & Smith, A. N. (2014). Importance of women's political skill in male-dominated organizations. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 29(2), 206-222. doi.org/10.1108/JMP-06-2012-0106.
- Wren, D.A. (1979). *The evolution of management thought*. New York. John Wiley and Sons.
- Zaleznik, A. (1997). Managers and leaders: Are they different? *Harvard Business Review*. <https://hbr.org/2004/01/managers-and-leaders-are-they-different>

Zenger, J., & Folkman, J. (2012). Are women better leaders than men? Harvard Business Review. <https://hbr.org/2012/03/a-study-in-leadership-women-do>

Zikmund, W.G. (2000). *Business research methods*. 6th edn, Dryden, Fort Worth.

**Appendix A: Invitation to Participate  
and  
Consent to Participate in a Study of Leadership Styles in the Canada Border Services  
Agency**

Good Morning,

I am a student at the University of Athabasca working on a Doctorate of Business Administration. I am also an employee of the Canada Border Service Agency currently working in the Enforcement and Intelligence Programs Directorate as a Senior Policy Analyst. I am conducting a research study entitled: Gender, Leadership Styles and Performance in Law Enforcement: A mixed-methods study.

The purpose of this study is to examine leadership styles in both operational roles and support roles in the Canada Border Services Agency. Your participation will involve completing an online questionnaire which is in the attached link. Additionally, should you be willing to participate in a follow-up interview, please contact Stephanie Mangan directly.

Your participation in this study is voluntary. If you choose not to participate or choose to withdraw at any time in the study, you can do so without penalty or loss of benefit to you. The results of the research study may be published but your name, job title or any identifying information will not be used and your results will be maintained in confidence. In this research, there are no foreseeable risks to you. Although there may be no direct benefit to you, the possible benefit of your participation is the new information obtained from this study may be helpful to the CBSA and to other organizational leaders in the field of law enforcement.

By signing this form I acknowledge that I understand the nature of the study, the potential risks to me as a participant, and the means by which my identity will be kept confidential. My signature on this form also indicates that I am 18 years or older and that I give my permission to voluntarily serve as a participant in the study described.

Signature: \_\_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_\_\_

If you have any questions concerning the research study, please call me at (613)882-7162.



**Appendix B: Interview Guide**

<b>Question Number</b>	<b>Question</b>	<b>Measurement</b>
<b>1</b>	Tell me about your career, and the different types of positions you have held.	Experiences and Nature of Work
<b>2</b>	Have you worked in an operational position?	Experiences and Nature of Work
<b>3</b>	Are you aware of the leadership style that you use?	Leadership techniques (Avolio and Bass 2004)
<b>4</b>	Do you change your leadership style depending on the position you are in?	Leadership techniques (Avolio and Bass 2004)
<b>5</b>	Do you change your leadership style if you are leading a majority of men or a majority of women?	Leadership styles (Avolio and Bass 2004)
<b>6</b>	How did you feel your leadership style was perceived by colleagues?	Leadership styles (Avolio and Bass 2004)
<b>7</b>	How do you feel you responded to these experiences?	Leadership styles (Avolio and Bass 2004)

### Appendix C: Alphabetical List of Basic Themes

The data texts were coded into 96 first order themes.

·	A woman exhibiting same assertive behaviour as a man will not have same outcome
·	Ability to evolve and adapt
·	Accountability is important
·	Act differently
·	Act more seriously with men
·	Action-oriented
·	Adapts style
·	Assertive
·	Authentic leadership style
·	Aware of gender differences
·	Awareness of strengths and weaknesses
·	Balance between working together and giving orders
·	Bureaucracy and hierarchy are stifling
·	Being in the region does harden you. But I hug everyone.
·	Change leadership style with men and women
·	Change management is part of leadership
·	changing your mind is leadership strength
·	Coaching role
·	Combat being a woman
·	Command a male dominated room because she earned respect
·	community leaders are less directive
·	Credibility with old boys club
·	Crisis of identity
·	Develop people
·	Didn't want to show weakness
·	Differences are not based on sex but personality
·	Directive to stop people doing things
·	dominant directive leadership style has come from women
·	Don't want to look stupid in front of men
·	Empowerment gave different outlook on abilities
·	executive table is male dominated
·	Exhibit confidence
·	Fair
·	Feel like being judged with men
·	female leaders are more likely to compromise
·	Female managers used to be 50-50, now recruits are 95% male
·	Firm
·	Functional specialities are more transactional
·	Genuine
·	Genuine leadership

## LEADERSHIP STYLES IN MALE DOMINATED ORGANIZATIONS

·	Growth plan for leadership
·	Had to become self-aware
·	Hierarchy changed leadership style
·	humble
·	I am a better listener as an executive
-	I can think of many women that are super transactional and nasty, and yet they are described as “she’s not very nice but she’s effective”. We need a culture change because how we get results matters, and should be considered. The focus is not just on achieving the objective, it’s the journey
·	I lead with a sense of who I am.
·	In my second year as a director, I have a good sense of my leadership style and I don’t care if people don’t like it
·	Instincts
·	Integrity is everything
·	Leadership
·	leadership training
·	Male and female balanced each other
·	male employees respond better to direct style
·	Male dominated organization
·	Management wants a change
·	Men just have the confidence
·	missing women at senior leadership
·	Mobilizing people
·	More prepared with men
·	More transformational away from day to day business
·	Motivating without authority
·	Moving from manager -to- director
·	my leadership style doesn’t change with men, but how I communicate does
·	No accountability
·	Not everyone is introspective
·	Original leadership style was most effective
·	Passive woman not looked up to
·	Pattern of behaviour on day-to-day basis is leadership
·	People manager
·	Prepare
·	Relationships in the region are more important
·	Role-model
·	She cared about people
·	Social cohesion impacts leadership style
·	Some women opt out of careers
·	Stress is a weakness
-	The females at a (particular management table) were so competitive with each other, but they would not compete against the men. Women are part of the issue in that we are not supportive of other women. We also think the men should be the ones in leadership roles. We buy in to that male stereotype.

## LEADERSHIP STYLES IN MALE DOMINATED ORGANIZATIONS

-	The further away from day-to-day business you are, the more room you have to be transformational if you want to be.”
-	The sexism (of a specific region I worked) was perpetuated by women at the management table that didn’t use their voice- they were taking on what they thought a woman in uniform should be. Being overly aggressive, taking on what you would think a male would be like in that role.
·	Too much leadership
·	transformational women can be seen as weak, too mothering
·	True to self
·	Trust in a team is key
·	Vision
·	What does “too nice” even mean? They still delivered.
·	Women are harder on themselves
·	Women are not afraid to care
·	Women have to play a game
·	Women have to present themselves as people want to see them
·	Women in region had to put on persona, I haven’t had to do that since I left the uniform
·	Women set higher expectations for themselves
·	Women start as more relational
·	Working in the region women had to be different
-	100 percent I tailor my leadership style to the nature of the work. For example I’m in...an area completely foreign to me. I do not know the business... and I’m coming into an environment where this is going to be the most drastic change people will see in the past 15 years...so for me this entire time, it’s all about transformational leadership. I want to build emotional capital with my team.
-	100 percent women take on male characteristics because that’s what’s acceptable or what they have to do to succeed. And those that may be “weaker” will take on a meek role of nothingness.

**Appendix D: First, Second and Third Order Themes**

RQ1: Is there a difference in leadership styles adopted by men and women in male dominated organizations?		
First Order Cluster	Organizing Themes	Major Theme
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Differences are not based on sex but personality</li> <li>• Dominant directive leadership style has come from women</li> <li>• Female leaders are more likely to compromise</li> <li>• Growth plan for leadership</li> <li>• Male and female balanced each other</li> <li>• Male employees respond better to direct style</li> <li>• Male dominated organization</li> <li>• Management wants a change</li> <li>• Men just have the confidence</li> <li>• Women set higher expectations for themselves</li> <li>• Women start as more relational</li> <li>• Working in the region women had to be different</li> <li>• Women prepare more with men</li> <li>• My leadership style doesn't change with men, but how I communicate does</li> <li>• Not everyone is introspective</li> <li>• Passive woman not looked up to</li> <li>• Some women opt out of careers</li> <li>• Women are not afraid to care</li> <li>• Act more seriously with men</li> <li>• Aware of gender differences</li> <li>• The females at a (particular management table) were so competitive with each other, but they would not compete against the men. Women are part of the issue in that we are not supportive of other women. We also think the men should be the ones in leadership roles. We buy in to that male stereotype.</li> </ul>	Differences Between Male and Female Leadership Styles	Effective Leadership
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Ability to evolve and adapt</li> <li>• Accountability is important</li> <li>• Action-oriented</li> <li>• Assertive</li> <li>• Authentic leadership style</li> <li>• Change management is part of leadership</li> <li>• Changing your mind is leadership strength</li> <li>• Coaching role</li> <li>• Command a male dominated room because she earned respect</li> <li>• Develop people</li> <li>• Empowerment gave different outlook on abilities</li> <li>• Fair</li> <li>• Firm</li> <li>• Genuine</li> <li>• Genuine leadership</li> <li>• Had to become self-aware</li> <li>• Humble</li> <li>• I lead with a sense of who I am</li> <li>• Instincts</li> <li>• Integrity is everything</li> <li>• Mobilizing people</li> <li>• Motivating without authority</li> </ul>	Leadership Traits	

## LEADERSHIP STYLES IN MALE DOMINATED ORGANIZATIONS

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Original leadership style was the most effective</li> <li>• Pattern of behaviour on day-to-day basis is leadership</li> <li>• People manager</li> <li>• Prepare</li> <li>• Role-model</li> <li>• She cared about people</li> <li>• True to self</li> <li>• Vision</li> <li>• Awareness of strengths and weaknesses</li> <li>• I can think of many women that are super transactional and nasty, and yet they are described as “she’s not very nice but she’s effective”. We need a culture change because how we get results matters, and should be considered. The focus is not just on achieving the objective, it’s the journey.</li> </ul>		
RQ2: Do men and women shift their leadership style based on the nature of the role; whether an operational (line) role, or an administrative (staff) role?		
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Act differently</li> <li>• Relationships in the region are more important</li> <li>• Adapts style</li> <li>• Balance between working together and giving orders</li> <li>• Change leadership style with men and women</li> <li>• Community leaders are less directive</li> <li>• Directive to stop people doing things</li> <li>• Functional specialities are more transactional</li> <li>• I am a better listener as an executive</li> <li>• More transformational away from day to day business</li> <li>• Moving from manager -to- director more transformational</li> <li>• The BSO position is a transactional job- then we say be a leaders and don’t be transactional, we need to understand that transition more.</li> <li>• 100% I tailor my leadership style to the nature of the work. For example I’m in...an area completely foreign to me. I do not know the business... and I’m coming into an environment where this is going to be the most drastic change people will see in the past 15 years...so for me this entire time, it’s all about transformational leadership. I want to build emotional capital with my team.</li> </ul>	Adapting Leadership Style for Nature of Work	
RQ3: Do women perceive that they are evaluated less favorably if they adopt a transformational leadership style?		
First Order Cluster	Organizing Themes	Global Theme
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Woman exhibiting same assertive behaviour as a man will not have same outcome</li> <li>• Combat being a woman</li> <li>• Credibility with old boys club</li> <li>• Didn’t want to show weakness</li> <li>• Don’t want to look stupid in front of men</li> <li>• Exhibit confidence</li> <li>• Feel like being judged with men</li> <li>• Stress is seen as a weakness</li> <li>• Transformational women can be seen as weak, too mothering</li> <li>• What does “too nice” even mean? They still delivered.</li> <li>• Women are harder on themselves</li> <li>• Women have to play a game</li> <li>• Women have to present themselves as people want to see them</li> </ul>	Behaviours	Evaluation of Leadership

## LEADERSHIP STYLES IN MALE DOMINATED ORGANIZATIONS

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Women in region had to put on persona, I haven't had to do that since I left the uniform.</li> <li>• The sexism (of a specific region I worked) was perpetuated by women at the management table that didn't use their voice- they were taking on what they thought a woman in uniform should be. Being overly aggressive, taking on what you would think a male would be like in that role.</li> <li>• 100 percent women take on male characteristics because that's what's acceptable or what they have to do to succeed. And those that may be "weaker" will take on a meek role of nothingness.</li> <li>• Working in the region, you had to be different. You know how it is in the region, very rank and file, I followed orders. You had to put on a completely different persona as a woman in a uniform than you would in an office. I haven't had to do that since I left the uniform</li> </ul>		
Additional Information		
First Order Cluster	Organizing Themes	Global Theme
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Bureaucracy and hierarchy are stifling</li> <li>• Hierarchy changed leadership style</li> <li>• Missing women at senior leadership</li> <li>• The further away from day-to-day business you are, the more room you have to be transformational if you want to be."</li> <li>• In my second year as a director, I have a good sense of my leadership style and I don't care if people don't like it</li> </ul>	Hierarchy and Level of Leadership	Organizational Impacts on Leadership
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Crisis of identity</li> <li>• Executive table is male dominated</li> <li>• Being in the region does harden you. But I hug everyone.</li> <li>• Female managers used to be 50-50, now recruits are 95% male</li> <li>• No accountability</li> <li>• Too much leadership</li> <li>• Social cohesion impacts leadership style</li> <li>• Trust in a team is key</li> </ul>	Social Factors	

## Appendix E: Certification of Ethical Approval for Pilot Project



### CERTIFICATION OF ETHICAL APPROVAL

The Athabasca University Research Ethics Board (AUREB) has reviewed and approved the research project noted below. The AUREB is constituted and operates in accordance with the current version of the Tri-Council Policy Statement: Ethical Conduct for Research Involving Humans (TCPS) and Athabasca University Policy and Procedures.

**Ethics File No.:** 22330

**Principal Investigator:**

Ms. Stephanie Mangan, Graduate Student  
Faculty of Business\Doctorate in Business Administration

**Supervisor:**

Dr. Kay Devine (Supervisor)

**Project Title:**

Information Gathering Pilot Project: Discussion Panel on Considerations Facing Female Leaders in Law Enforcement.

**Effective Date:** October 14, 2016

**Expiry Date:** October 13, 2017

**Restrictions:**

Any modification or amendment to the approved research must be submitted to the AUREB for approval.

Ethical approval is valid *for a period of one year*. An annual request for renewal must be submitted and approved by the above expiry date if a project is ongoing beyond one year.

A Project Completion (Final) Report must be submitted when the research is complete (*i.e. all participant contact and data collection is concluded, no follow-up with participants is anticipated and findings have been made available/provided to participants (if applicable)*) or the research is terminated.

**Approved by:**

**Date:** October 14, 2016

Fathi Elloumi, Chair  
Faculty of Business, Departmental Ethics Review Committee



## Appendix F: Certification of Ethical Approval for Research Project



### CERTIFICATION OF ETHICAL APPROVAL

The Athabasca University Research Ethics Board (AUREB) has reviewed and approved the research project noted below. The AUREB is constituted and operates in accordance with the current version of the Tri-Council Policy Statement: Ethical Conduct for Research Involving Humans (TCPS) and Athabasca University Policy and Procedures.

**Ethics File No.:** 22924

**Principal Investigator:**

Ms. Stephanie Mangan, Graduate Student  
Faculty of Business\Doctorate in Business Administration

**Supervisor:**

Dr. Angela Workman-Stark (Supervisor)

**Project Title:**

Leadership Styles in Male-Dominated Organizations: A mixed methods study

**Effective Date:** April 10, 2018

**Expiry Date:** April 09, 2019

**Restrictions:**

Any modification or amendment to the approved research must be submitted to the AUREB for approval.

Ethical approval is valid *for a period of one year*. An annual request for renewal must be submitted and approved by the above expiry date if a project is ongoing beyond one year.

A Project Completion (Final) Report must be submitted when the research is complete (*i.e. all participant contact and data collection is concluded, no follow-up with participants is anticipated and findings have been made available/provided to participants (if applicable)*) or the research is terminated.

**Approved by:**

**Date:** April 10, 2018

Hussein Al-Zyoud, Chair  
Faculty of Business, Departmental Ethics Review Committee

---

Athabasca University Research Ethics Board  
University Research Services, Research Centre  
1 University Drive, Athabasca AB Canada T9S 3A3  
E-mail rebsec@athabascau.ca  
Telephone: 780.675.6718