

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN GENDER AND TRANSFORMATIONAL  
LEADERSHIP PRACTICES: A STUDY OF SELF REPORTS OF MALE AND  
FEMALE GRADUATE STUDENTS

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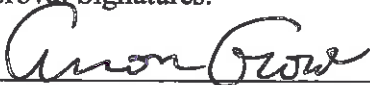


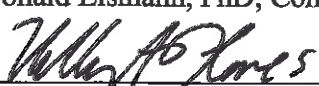
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## **ABSTRACT**

Women continue to be underrepresented in top level management roles in spite of their progress in the labor market and educational attainment (Eagly & Carli, 2007). The gender gap in leadership is true in most of the developed and developing world. When assessed under early leadership models, leadership self-efficacy is usually lower among women than men (Schein, 1973; Schein, 1975). This has been used to support the notion that leadership is predominantly a practice for men (Chemers, 2000). However, recently developed leadership models under transformational leadership theory represent opportunities to study leadership and gender without much of the cultural bias that has been part of the earlier models (Eagly & Carli, 2007). To solidify the study of the relationship between gender and transformational leadership self-efficacy, this study was developed using data gathered through the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) from a purposive sample of 153 MBA students (73 male and 80 female). Independent-samples t-tests were used to determine whether there were statistically significant differences in mean scores between male and female participants on leadership behaviors measured by the LPI. The results indicated that there are no statistically significant differences between the two groups in the sample, which further suggest that the reasons behind the underrepresentation of female leaders cannot be attributed to leadership self-efficacy. The study took place in Mexico, where female underrepresentation in top management roles is a well-documented problem, and where research on transformational leadership is scarce. The study may be used to support initiatives on the part of aspiring female

leaders, educational leaders, and organizational decision-makers to help close the gender gap in leadership roles in the country. They may do this by reviewing the findings of this study and others conducted under transformational leadership theory that suggest that the practice of leadership is not inherently male, so there is ample opportunity for women to succeed in top management roles without conforming to traditional male patterns of behavior. Future researchers may build on this study by evaluating transformational leadership behaviors in different segments of the population of males and females and by using observer data rather than self-reports.

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## CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

Researchers agree that there is a positive relationship between economic development and female educational attainment, birth control, and integration into the labor force (Oztunc, Zar Chi, & Serin, 2015; Turanli, Turanli, & Akdal, 2015). In Mexico, women claimed their place as economic and political actors, and left behind outdated ideas regarding their role in society. Currently in the country, women are having fewer children, perform better in school than their male cohorts, and are well represented in the labor market (Kral, Covarrubias, & Iturribarría, 2012; Moctezuma Navarro, Narro Robles, & Orozco Hernández, 2014).

While progress has been made, gender equity is not yet a reality. The labor market is, perhaps, the most notable context in which inequity is still perceived (Moctezuma Navarro et al., 2014). Women in Mexico have integrated into the labor force, but there are considerable salary gaps between males and females who hold similar occupations, and women are more likely to work in the informal sector, which can prevent them from achieving the same legal, organizational, and social status as males (Moctezuma Navarro et al.).

According to the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) (2013), female workers in Mexico who achieve post-secondary education earn 80.1% in salary what their male counterparts earn. The World Factbook (2015) reported that the 25-54 age group in Mexico is evenly distributed between males and females in the country, with about the same percentages in educational attainment. Yet, women

account for 32.1% of all managers in Mexico (International Labour Organization, 2015), and according to the World Bank (WB, 2016), only 15% of the firms in Mexico are operated by female top managers.

The causes for the underrepresentation of women in leadership roles seem to include gender discrimination in the workplace (Eagly & Carli, 2007; Braun, Peus, & Frey, 2012), differences in leadership self-efficacy between males and females (Schein, 1973; Schein, 1975; Burns, 2010), and sustained gender stereotypes that associate female leadership behaviors with poor performance compared to male leaders (Crites, Dickson, & Lorenz, 2015). These causes are not mutually exclusive, and they will be further described in Chapter 2. The focus of this study rests on leadership self-efficacy.

This problem is common in different parts of the world (Wan Ismail & Al-Tae, 2012), even though educational attainment and integration into the labor force have been consistent on the part of women throughout many countries, including Mexico (OECD, 2014). In spite of progress made by women, as a group, in Mexico, they are still less likely than their male cohorts to receive opportunities to work in top management positions (Núñez, 2011). Therefore, Garcia (2011) argued that future research should be conducted on the reasons behind the gender gap in leadership and other aspects of the labor and political contexts in the Mexico. Given the demographics of the population and of the labor force, this becomes a key issue that affects the social and economic development of the country (Moctezuma Navarro et al., 2014).

Men and women are equally satisfied with their work (Baeza & Wang, 2014), and there is no reason to believe female workers are less ambitious than their male cohorts when it comes to seeking opportunities for advancement (Eagly & Carli, 2007). The contrary seems to be true. Research conducted by Tajlili (2014) yielded results that suggest that female college graduates have every intention of exploiting their potential to achieve success in their personal and professional lives.

The interest on the part of both males and females to obtain favorable opportunities in the labor market can be inferred from their motivation to pursue post-secondary degrees (García-Aracil, 2015). Research conducted with male and female graduate students suggests that gender does not account for differences in motivation levels when pursuing an advanced degree (Epstein, Clinton, Gabrovska, & Petrenko, 2013). There are differences between males and females in terms of motivation at the start of their graduate programs, but these differences start to decrease after the first year (Epstein et al., 2013).

Brumley (2014) probed into the aspirations of frontline female workers and middle managers in one large Mexican company. Her study concluded with the assertion that women and men in the company believed that men were more likely to reach upper level management positions because of the male-centered mentality that was apparent in the organization. Brumley (2014) noted that the women in the study were interested in growing inside the company, but that they were aware that leadership roles usually went to men who were willing to place the needs of the organization above and beyond their

personal or family lives. This type of employee has been referred to as "the ideal worker" (Sallee, 2012).

Brumley's (2014) study reflected a situation that is consistent with Eagly and Carli's (2007) argument regarding the existence of organizational barriers that inhibit the development of aspiring female leaders. According to Brumley, these barriers hurt female leaders, but they also represent a challenge to organizations that need to have access to a wider talent pool. Therefore, closing the gender gap can have more benefits beyond those that concern aspiring female leaders.

The present study was conducted with the purpose of helping to address this situation. The survey research method was used to collect data from a sample of 73 male and 80 female MBA students in the city of Tijuana, Baja California, Mexico, to identify possible correlations between gender and transformational leadership self-efficacy. The data were gathered with the use of the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) Self, which was developed by Kouzes and Posner (2012). Findings in the present study may help aspiring female leaders, academic program administrators, and organizational leaders find ways to partially address some of the causes behind the gender gap in leadership positions in Mexico.

### **Study Background/Foundation**

Previous studies have been conducted that apply personality and behavior leadership models to compare leadership self-efficacy between males and females (Schein, 1973; Schein, 1975; Heilman, Simon, & Repper, 1987; Flanagan, 2015). The

results tend to suggest that men have higher levels of leadership self-efficacy than women. Works conducted under transformational leadership models (Bass, Avolio, & Atwater, 1996; Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, & van Engen, 2003; Garrett-Staib & Burkman, 2015) challenged the notion that men have higher levels of leadership self-efficacy than women, and even suggested that women tend to be more transformational than men. A full discussion on leadership theory and gender is included in Chapter 2.

Clearly, research on gender and leadership has taken place, but most of the works conducted on this topic have been developed to study developed societies (Minkov & Blagoev, 2012). Since gender roles are influenced by culture, it is important to develop future studies in societies where leadership research is scarce (Čarter, Lang, & Szabo, 2013). Mexico is a good example of a country where there is still a research gap in leadership and gender (Garcia, 2011; Brumley, 2014; Zabludovsky Kuper, 2015).

### **Current State of the Field in which the Problem Exists**

Gender discrimination primarily hurts aspiring female leaders who have worked to develop the necessary competencies to deserve consideration for top level management positions within organizations only to be rejected based on their gender (Weinberger, 2011). Eagly and Carli (2007) noted that the times when women simply did not advance to top level management roles have long passed, but they also warned that those who succeed in their leadership roles have to go through a variety of obstacles not normally faced by men. One of these obstacles is the notion that the practice of leadership is often believed to be associated with being male (Koenig, Eagly, Mitchell, & Ristikari, 2011).

Through training, women have been known to raise their levels of leadership self-efficacy (Momsen & Carlson, 2013), as long as they learn to appreciate those improvements to take advantage.

One purpose of this study was to address this lack of appreciation by comparing measures of leadership self-efficacy between males and females who are in the process of obtaining their MBA degrees. The female participants in the study were prime subjects to experience gender discrimination given their gender and post-secondary training. The data obtained from these participants can help to better understand whether comparably trained individuals show differences in leadership self-efficacy due in part to their gender.

### **Historical Background**

The underrepresentation of women in leadership roles can still be perceived across different industries and in different parts of the world (Salas-Lopez, Deitrick, Mahady, Gertner, & Sabino, 2011; Park & Westphal, 2013; Holst & Schimeta, 2013). While some researchers disagree with the statistics put forth by scholars involved with the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness Research (GLOBE) project, there is little doubt that gender inequity is a major concern across societies (Minkov & Blagoev, 2012). Sensitive to this issue, since the 1970s, organizations have responded by establishing corrective hiring practices to protect against discrimination of women (Selva Olidi, Pallarès Parejo & Sahagún Padilla, 2013). With time, women have

made progress in the labor force and have reduced the influence of gender stereotypes on their choice of profession (Gati & Perez, 2014; Castillo-Mayén, & Montes-Berges, 2014).

In spite of progress made by women in the labor force, there continues to be a gender gap in leadership roles which may no longer be explained by hiring practices alone. Therefore, researchers have turned their attention to leadership self-efficacy to determine its impact on female leader underrepresentation (Schein, 1973; Schein, 1975; Heilman et al., 1987; Flanagan, 2015). Others have gone further to study the impact of training and education to help close the gender gap (Momsen & Carlson, 2013).

While these efforts are valuable in helping educators, organizational leaders, and individuals learn about the gender gap in leadership roles, and effective approaches to address it, there is still a need to study the matter in Mexico. In this country, more information is needed regarding the causes for female underrepresentation (Garcia, 2011; Brumley, 2014; Zabludovsky Kuper, 2015). This study may help address the gap on gender and leadership research.

Since early leadership theories largely ignored the phenomenon of female leadership (Chemers, 2000), a situation that will be explained in detail in Chapter 2. This study was designed under the more recent and gender neutral transformational leadership approach (Eagly & Carli, 2007). Specifically, this study was developed under the five practices of exemplary leadership model (Kouzes & Posner, 2012).

### **Deficiencies in the Evidence**

In Mexico, García (2011) noted that the problem of female underrepresentation in leadership roles has not been adequately addressed. Studies conducted using transformational leadership models to address the issue are especially scarce. After a review of the literature, there were no studies found that measured leadership self-efficacy moderated by gender under the transformational leadership approach.

There was, however, one study upon which this research could build (Pedraza Melo, Lavín Verástegui, Delgado Rivas, & Bernal González, 2015). Pedraza Melo et al. (2015) used the LPI Self to assess leadership practices in managers in the state of Tamaulipas, Mexico. Although they did not intend to address the problem of underrepresentation of women in leadership roles, and their sample was decidedly more male than female, their findings suggest similarities in leadership-self efficacy between male and female managers.

The present study was the first to be designed to learn about a potential cause of female underrepresentation in Mexico by looking at leadership self-efficacy in female MBA students under the transformational leadership approach. The information developed through the study can be used by educators, organizational decision-makers and individuals to help close the gender gap in leadership in the country. The application of the findings will be discussed in detail in Chapter 5.

### **Problem Statement**

The general problem concerning the present study is the underrepresentation of women in leadership roles and lack of empowerment in Mexico. This problem has been documented by the World Bank (2016), International Labour Organization (2015), Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (2014), and the World Economic Forum (WEF) (2013). Societies that have embraced the full participation of women in the workforce, education and community issues have benefited in terms of economic development and are on their way to overcoming economic and social stagnation (Vasquez, 2011; Moctezuma Navarro et al., 2014; Oztunc et al., 2015; Turanli et al., 2015). This makes increasing the efforts to study female leadership and leadership development in Mexico a matter of social justice, organizational performance, and economic development.

### **Audience**

The present study has yielded results that may serve current and aspiring female leaders. It can be particularly useful for women who have achieved success in obtaining a post-secondary degree in Mexico, but who continue to be under-valued in comparison to their male cohorts (OECD, 2013). Moreover, educational and organizational leaders can find use in the information presented here to make informed decisions regarding academic program curricula, training seminars, and coaching programs for graduate students and executives. These actions could lead to the creation of more diverse and creative work environments supported by more knowledgeable and progressive

organizational decision-makers. A full discussion of the application of the findings from the present study and the three audiences noted above is provided in Chapter 5.

### **Specific Leadership Problem**

Specifically, this study addressed possible differences in leadership self-efficacy between male and female MBA students, which previous studies have suggested may contribute to the underrepresentation of women in leadership roles (Schein, 1973; Schein, 1975; Heilman et al., 1987; Flanagan, 2015). Javidan, Bullough, and Dibble (2016) noted that men and women show differences in terms of leadership efficacy on several dimensions, and that these differences help make the argument for the value of diversity in management teams. Identifying differences in male and female MBA students' transformational leadership self-efficacy can help reduce the gender gap in leadership roles in Mexico. This can be done by identifying potential strengths and weaknesses that can be used to develop training programs designed to overcome differences in leadership self-efficacy or by motivating organizations to create diverse management teams where individuals can complement one another.

Furthermore, by addressing the specific leadership problem, aspiring female leaders, educators, and organizational decision-makers can help remove gender bias associated with the notion that the practice of leadership is aligned with male-centered assumptions and is inconsistent with female characteristics and behaviors. Decreasing the prevalence of these types of misconceptions may help reduce the gender gap in

leadership roles. Transformational leadership models provide a good framework for this kind of study (Eagly & Carli, 2007).

### **Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this study was to compare mean scores in the LPI Self from male and female MBA students in the city of Tijuana, Baja California, Mexico, to identify possible differences between males and females on transformational leadership self-efficacy. The comparisons were made for each of the five leadership dimensions measures through the LPI. This provided specific data that may serve the audience for this study to plan and develop recruiting, hiring, promoting or training practices.

The results of the study helped address the problem of female underrepresentation in Mexico by informing aspiring female leaders, educational leaders, and organizational decision-makers that leadership self-efficacy is not moderated by gender. This finding can support the development of more diverse work environments where women do not need to adapt their behaviors to fit stereotypical masculine ways of conduct. The study may serve to facilitate the hiring and promoting practices at organizations that need to have a wider talent pool for their leadership positions.

### **Methodology Overview**

The data-gathering and analysis processes were implemented based on the research questions and hypotheses listed in Table 1. By responding to these questions, it was possible to compare transformational leadership self-efficacy between males and

females in the study. The comparisons were made for every dimension measured through the LPI.

### **Research Method**

This quantitative study was conducted by using the survey research method (Fowler, 2014; Parylo, 2012) to gather data from 73 male and 80 female MBA students in the city of Tijuana, Baja California, Mexico. The study was cross-sectional. The gathering phase took place during the month of May 2016 after Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval was obtained (Appendix A).

The independent variable for this study was the gender of the participants. The dependent variables were each one of the dimensions in the five practices of exemplary leadership model, a prominent transformational leadership model developed by Kouzes and Posner (2012). The five practices of exemplary leadership are described in detail in Chapter 3.

### **Research Design**

The following steps were taken to achieve the purpose of the study and address the research problem:

1. Obtain IRB approval for the study in May 2016 (Appendix A).
2. Approach six MBA program administrators with an invitation to participate in the study (one program administrator for each school in Tijuana currently running an MBA program). After the initial invitation, three program administrators agreed

to participate in the study, two were not eligible due to the reduced number of students in the program, and one declined.

3. Ask the program administrators who agreed to participate in the study to sign an organizational consent form (Appendix B). Once these forms were signed, they were sent to the IRB and dissertation chair.
4. Schedule a mutually convenient time and place with each program administrator to administer the LPI Self to the MBA students. In all three cases, the students were approached during class time under the supervision of the corresponding program administrator and/or faculty members.
5. Provide participants with an informed consent form (Appendix C) and require that they read, sign, and return it before taking the survey.
6. Provide participants with specific instructions for responding to the items in questionnaire and require that they read them before taking the survey.
7. Enter the LPI Self scores on the SPSS spreadsheet for analysis.
8. Run descriptive statistics and independent samples t-tests for every measure of the LPI Self.
9. Use the results to respond to the research questions listed in Table 1 and test the hypotheses.
10. Share the study, once approved, with the program administrators who participated in the data-gathering phase, and with Wiley, the LPI publisher. Wiley provided permission to use the LPI to gather data for this study (Appendix D).

**Sample**

Data were collected through survey research from a sample of 73 male and 80 female students who were enrolled in an MBA program in the city of Tijuana, Baja California, Mexico. The schools that were invited to participate in the study were identified through the Asociación Nacional de Universidades e Instituciones de Educación Superior (ANUIES) (2015), which is the official directory for institutions of higher education in Mexico. ANUIES published the directory on its website.

The individuals who responded to the LPI Self were approached during class with the consent and supervision of their program administrators and/or faculty. Those who decided to participate in the study did so willingly and without the promise of a financial reward or any other type of incentive. They were asked to sign an informed consent form before they were given the questionnaire.

**Instrument**

The LPI Self and Observer were developed by Kouzes and Posner (2013) as part of their five practices of exemplary leadership model. Kouzes and Posner developed the LPI to conduct research into the behaviors they describe in their leadership model (Northouse, 2016). The five practices measured through the LPI Self and their corresponding items are described in detail in Chapter 3. The LPI Self is measured using a 10-point Likert scale for participants to score their leadership behaviors in terms of each of the 30 items in the instrument. The higher the level indicated on the scale, the more frequently the respondents engage in the behavior described in the corresponding item.

Since the development of the LPI, it has been used to conduct research on transformational leadership, and it has been validated in different contexts (Vito & Higgins, 2010; Pugh, Fillingim, Blackbourn, & Thomas, 2011; Quin, Deris, Bischoff, & Johnson, 2015). In this particular case, reliability was estimated using Cronbach's coefficient alpha. The reliability coefficient for the five practices measured by the LPI Self was .907.

### **Data Gathering Process**

Participants, while in their classrooms, received (1) an informed consent form, (2) instructions to complete and return the questionnaire, and (3) the LPI Self (Spanish version) (Appendix E), which included an item for the participants to indicate their gender and another one for them to indicate the name of their school. The subjects were approached in their classrooms through their program administrators. It was made clear to them that responding to the LPI Self did not constitute a class assignment, and that they were not obligated to participate in the study. The students who decided to participate in the study were given whatever time they needed to read and sign the informed consent form and complete the LPI Self.

### **Data Analysis**

Once the data were gathered, the analysis was conducted through descriptive statistics and independent-samples t-tests to determine whether mean score differences by gender were statistically significant. This process was assisted by the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Steps were taken to make sure the participants were

protected from any type of harm (physical, psychological, economic, and organizational). Specifically, participants were provided written and verbal information regarding the nature of the study and the steps taken to ensure confidentiality and data protection. Further detail on this matter will be provided in Chapter 3.

### **Research Questions/Hypotheses**

The research questions and hypotheses for this survey research study are stated in Table 1. They have been framed based on Kouzes and Posner's (2012) five practices of exemplary leadership model. Every question involves an independent variable (gender) and a dependent variable (the corresponding leadership practices).

The results of the study represent a well-defined segment of the population: MBA students in the city of Tijuana, Baja California, Mexico. However, the data gathered from this sample may be transferable to groups in cities that are similar to the one chosen to conduct the study. Suggestions for future use of the information provided in the present study and potential areas for further research will be discussed with appropriate detail in Chapter 5.

Table 1

*Research Questions and Hypotheses*

Research questions	Hypotheses
Q1. Do male and female participants differ in LPI Self scores for the variable Model the Way?	<p>H<sub>0</sub>: There will be no statistically significant differences in LPI Self scores between male and female participants in the variable Model the Way.</p> <p>H<sub>1</sub>: There will be statistically significant differences in LPI Self scores between male and female participants in the variable Model the Way.</p>
Q2. Do male and female participants differ in LPI Self scores for the variable Inspire a Shared Vision?	<p>H<sub>0</sub>: There will be no statistically significant differences in LPI Self scores between male and female participants in the variable Inspire a Shared Vision.</p> <p>H<sub>2</sub>: There will be statistically significant differences in LPI Self scores between male and female participants in the variable Inspire a Shared Vision.</p>
Q3. Do male and female participants differ in LPI Self scores for the variable Challenge the Process?	<p>H<sub>0</sub>: There will be no statistically significant differences in LPI Self scores between male and female participants in the variable Challenge the Process.</p> <p>H<sub>3</sub>: There will be statistically significant differences in LPI Self scores between male and female participants in the variable Challenge the Process.</p>
Q4. Do male and female participants differ in LPI Self scores for the variable Enable Others to Act?	<p>H<sub>0</sub>: There will be no statistically significant differences in LPI Self scores between male and female participants in the variable Enable Others to Act.</p> <p>H<sub>4</sub>: There will be statistically significant differences in LPI Self scores between male and female participants in the variable Enable Others to Act.</p>
Q5. Do male and female participants differ in LPI Self scores for the variable Encourage the Heart?	<p>H<sub>0</sub>: There will be no statistically significant differences in LPI Self scores between male and female participants in the variable Encourage the Heart.</p> <p>H<sub>5</sub>: There will be statistically significant differences in LPI Self scores between male and female participants in the variable Encourage the Heart.</p>

### **Study Limitations**

There were six schools running MBA programs in the city of Tijuana, Baja California, Mexico at the time the study was conducted (ANUIES, 2015). Two of them were not viable options to conduct the study given the size and format of their programs, so the corresponding program administrators simply declined the invitation. It was surprising that what became one of the most challenging limitation to conduct the study was following IRB protocol.

Two of the four remaining program administrators expressed concerns with signing an organizational consent form. Since this was not negotiable, one of the program administrators chose not to participate. The issue was that the IRB protocol that guided the data gathering process in conducting this study is not familiar to individuals working in institutions of higher education in Mexico.

The lack of availability of ethics or research committees in universities located in Mexico made it a challenge to ask people to sign over a document confirming participation. Even though organizational consent forms are common in the United States, their use is not widespread in Mexico, which led to confusion at the time the request was made. This confusion took place even though efforts were made to explain that organizations consent forms served to protect the institutions that participated in the study.

Another limitation, collecting data using self-reports, may invite the potential for bias (Lopez-Zafra, Garcia-Retamero & Berrios Martos, 2012; Chakrabarty, 2014). However, it was needed to compare self-perceptions because the study itself was developed to measure self-efficacy under the transformational leadership approach. This limitation was noted on Chapter 5, along with one suggestion to overcome its effects on future studies.

### **Definitions of Key Terms**

The following terms were used throughout this study due to their relevance to the subject matter. These terms are defined in this section only. Other definitions, not included in this section, will be defined as needed.

1. *Leadership*: Northouse (2016) analyzed several leadership definitions that were popular at different points in time. He came up with the following working definition: "a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal" (p. 6).
2. *Followers*: Northouse (2016) defined followers as "those toward whom leadership is directed"(p. 7). This general definition applies to all cases in which the term is used throughout the study.
3. *Self-efficacy*: This term refers to "the individual's sense of competence in performing tasks and achieving goals" (Fincham, Roomaney, & Kagee, 2015, p. 511). The study was developed to study female leadership self-efficacy.

4. *Stereotypes*: Eagly and Carli (2007) stated that stereotypes "include expectations about what members of a group are actually like (descriptive beliefs) and what they should be like (perspective beliefs) (p.84)." This term was used within the context of gender.
5. *MBA students*: These include every individual enrolled in a Master of Business program at the time the LPI Self was administered. No distinction was made among concentrations (marketing, finance, logistics, international business, management, human resources management).
6. *Gender equity in leadership*: This refers to the belief that gender does not moderate the ability to influence others or hold positions of power (Eagly & Carli, 2007).

### **Summary**

This study was performed, in part, to address the problem of underrepresentation of women by surveying 73 male and 80 female MBA students in the city of Tijuana, Baja California, Mexico; and reporting the findings in a way that aspiring female leaders, educational leaders, and organizational decision-makers can make informed changes regarding leadership development, if considered appropriate. The survey research method was employed to collect data using Kouzes and Posner's (2012) five practices of exemplary leadership model. Chapter 2 of this study provided justification for selecting transformational leadership theory as a general framework to conduct the study. Chapter

2 also served to better understand the need to address leadership self-efficacy among women.

## **CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW**

### **Introduction**

This study was centered on possible differences between male and female leadership self-efficacy. Currently, there is relatively little information on the subject that could help explain the underrepresentation of women in leadership roles, especially outside the United States and other developed countries. This claim will be supported by the following review of the literature.

The first part of the review provides a background of the study of women in the labor force and in leadership roles in particular. The focus will rest on the independent variable, gender. The data show that much of the evidence developed through quantitative research supports the notion that there is in fact a gender gap in leadership roles, while qualitative studies have focused on the life experiences of individuals who have managed to overcome gender-based barriers in organizations. The works cited in the review serve to justify the need to take gender into consideration when addressing leadership practice.

The second part of the review builds on the notion that women have to face greater obstacles than comparatively qualified men to break into leadership roles. Since several reasons have been provided in the literature to explain this situation, this section focuses on the main leadership theories and how studies conducted under each one have approached the problem of underrepresentation. By reviewing the personality, behavioral, contingency and transformational leadership theories, the argument can be made in favor

of basing this study under the transformational approach, which is better aligned with the needs of modern day organizations, and the increasingly diverse management teams running them. This literature review helped justify the dependent variable for the study (each of the five practices in the five practices of exemplary leadership model).

Each of these leadership theories were explained in terms of their basic premises, landmark studies and models, criticisms, and relevance to the study of gender. The end result of the second part of the review was the development of a clearer picture of the evolution of leadership thought in terms of the emerging role of women. The third part of the review of the literature cites landmark studies on male and female leadership self-efficacy differences conducted under early leadership models and transformational leadership theory. It serves as a justification for conducting this study using Kouzes and Posner's (2012) five practices of exemplary leadership model through the application of the LPI Self on a sample of male and female MBA students in the city of Tijuana, Baja California, Mexico.

### **Background on Gender and Management Roles**

Early work on the subject of women entering the labor force was conducted by Mary van Kleeck, who subscribed to Frederick Taylor's classical management theory and believed in the value of science as part of the practice of management (Hyland & Heenan, 2004). She was one of the first to notice that women started to participate more actively in the labor market in the United States and worried that these women faced different obstacles than their male colleagues. Mary van Kleeck's work in the early 1900s served

to document the added pressure endured by female workers by way of their domestic responsibilities (Hyland & Heenan, 2004). Her contributions to the study of management and gender led to the passing of the 48-hour bill designed to prevent employers from requiring female employees to work unusually long hours (McGuire, 2011), and it may have inspired future policies designed to protect women in the labor force (Peterson, 2011).

Although her work helped women to break through barriers preventing them from entering the labor force, van Kleeck did not align with feminists who supported equal rights for men and women (Hyland & Heenan, 2004). While the feminists wanted equality, van Kleeck and other representatives of the scientific management school believed that laws designed to address gender differences were important for the advancement of women (Hyland & Heenan, 2004). Legislation protecting women's rights to work helps foster the gender diverse labor market that is apparent in many parts of the world, but they are not enough (Peterson, 2011). While the law may protect women's jobs from harassment and other forms of gender discrimination, it is less effective in protecting their chances of being promoted to leadership positions (Peterson, 2011).

#### **Quantitative documentation of the gender gap in leadership roles.**

Quantitative data developed by the World Bank (2016) World Economic Forum (2013), the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (2014), and the International Labour Organization (2015) point to the long-standing gender gap in leadership roles in Mexico and in most parts of the world. The data are usually presented

in terms of percentage of management positions represented by each gender or in terms of differences in compensation. For instance, the World Bank (2016) reported that only 15% of firms operating in Mexico are managed by female top leaders. In addition to reports provided by official sources, researchers and academics have created a wealth of studies that documented gender differences found in leadership roles.

In the United States, Leskinen, Rabelo, and Cortina (2015) used survey research to gather self-reported data from a sample of 425 working women climbing the corporate ladder. The results suggested that individuals in the sample tended to develop a tolerance for gender harassment. The researchers noted that women continue to face two undesirable alternatives: accept that chances for promotion to leadership roles are limited due to the failure to act in a manner consistent with masculine leader behaviors, or adopt a more traditionally accepted masculine approach to leadership and be harassed for failing to conform to gender-based expectations.

The Leskinen et al. (2015) study represented an argument in support of the theory that female leaders will have to face more obstacles than their male colleagues to establish themselves in their organizations as part of the management team. These obstacles may not necessarily be due exclusively to the actions of men. Women are often responsible for failing to support aspiring or actual female leaders (Jones & Palmer, 2011).

Jones and Palmer's (2011) mixed-methods design study involving a sample of 934 female staff working in the educational services industry in the United States yielded

survey results that were consistent with the notion that women supported the advancement of female workers. However, the qualitative results of the study may be interpreted to suggest that women in the sample tended to be competitive among themselves, which led female supervisors to be less supportive of their subordinates than the survey data suggested (Jones & Palmer, 2011).

Data developed by the World Bank (2016) have been useful in understanding that there is a problem concerning the underrepresentation of women in leadership roles in Mexico. However, as the Jones and Palmer (2011) study suggested, there are issues within the overall problem that have warranted some attention on the part of researchers. Therefore, narratives, case studies and phenomenology, traditionally used approaches under the qualitative paradigm (Creswell, 2014), can serve to address several social issues like the one that concerns this study.

#### **Qualitative documentation of the gender gap in leadership roles.**

The literature has been enriched by qualitative studies that addressed some of the issues regarding female underrepresentation in leadership positions. Davis and Maldonado (2015) conducted a phenomenological study to show how gender and race played a part in the job prospects of minorities. They conducted their work by studying the lived experiences of African American female leaders working in higher education in the United States. The researchers concluded that women minorities face the added pressure of having to constantly prove themselves to gain the confidence of their constituents.

The findings of Davis and Maldonado (2015) were consistent with the work of Koenig et al. (2011). Koenig et al. (2011) examined several contributions to the study of gender and leadership and concluded that leadership is associated with being male, which makes it harder for women to break into leadership roles. They also suggested that women who managed to secure leadership positions may be subjected to biased appraisals of their performance because the expectations for male and female leaders are different.

There are, however, some aspects that males and females seem to have in common when it comes to leadership emergence. In the education services industry, Parylo, Zepeda, and Bengtson (2013) examined the narratives of male and female principals to identify some of the factors that allowed them to achieve success in their profession. They concluded that individuals from both genders benefit from experience and the support of mentors and role models. This type of personal detail regarding the importance of a support system for leaders is consistent with the strategies used to gather data through qualitative studies (Creswell, 2014).

To place greater focus on the geographic emphasis of this study, it is worth noting the work of Barragan, Mills, and Runte (2010) who studied the narratives of female top managers in Mexico. They found that this group of individuals often act as advocates for equal opportunities between men and women and tend to exhibit a sense of responsibility for paving the way for women in organizational roles. These narratives also suggest that

female top managers often have to make trade-offs between professional and personal goals (Barragan et al., 2010).

### **Gender and leadership metaphors.**

The quantitative and qualitative studies cited so far (Barragan et al., 2010; Jones & Palmer, 2011; Koenig et al., 2011; Parylo et al., 2013; Leskinen et al., 2015; Davis & Maldonado, 2015) suggested that there is a gender gap in leadership roles, and that women who aspire to management positions or those who succeeded in this goal have had to face added pressures not typically endured by their male colleagues. This information can partially explain why women continue to be underrepresented in leadership roles. Researchers who have studied this problem (Eagly & Carli, 2007; Hunt-Earle, 2012; Rosser & Mamiseishvili, 2014) often refer to one or more of the following four metaphors to describe the experience of female leaders: the *concrete wall*, the *glass ceiling*, the *glass cliff*, and the *leadership labyrinth*.

Eagly and Carli (2007) used the concrete wall, glass ceiling, and the labyrinth metaphors to explain the challenges that women faced to break into leadership positions across time. According to these researchers, the concrete wall refers to explicit rules preventing women from being allowed to participate in activities that could help improve their standing in society like voting, having access to institutions of higher education, and being taken seriously as candidates to manage in corporations. In many parts of the world, through much of history, women have had to work hard to move pass the concrete wall (Eagly & Carli, 2007).

While it may be safe to say that the concrete wall metaphor no longer applies (Eagly & Carli, 2007), Rosser and Mamiseishvili (2014) noted that glass-ceiling effects affect women by limiting their advancement possibilities and salary potential without justification other than their gender. Moreover, the glass ceiling is a symptom of the wider issue of discrimination, and its effects are manifested in women and minorities in terms of gaps in positions of authority and pay (Jackson, O'Callaghan, & Adserias, 2014). One example of the glass ceiling can be found in the United Kingdom, where male board members make considerably more in income and bonuses than their female counterparts (Kulich, Trojanowski, Ryan, Alexander Haslam, & Renneboog, 2011). The fact that there are female board members in several organizations in this country is indicative of progress made in terms of gender equity; however, the pay gap is reflective of a male-centered organizational culture that affects female leaders.

Weinberger (2011) suggested that women in high-level organizational positions, who often hold graduate degrees, are more likely to suffer the effects of the glass-ceiling than women working in low-mid level positions. Although it may be intuitive to think that the individuals most affected by this form of discrimination are those in the most disadvantaged economic segments of the population, this is not the case. Female workers with higher earning potential are more likely to enter or remain in the labor market than women with lower income potential (Arceo-Gómez & Campos-Vázquez, 2014), so they are the ones who will most likely suffer the discrimination associated with women trying to climb the corporate ladder.

The other form of discrimination that affects women and minorities, the glass-cliff effect, is perceived when women or minorities are assigned to top level management roles when an organization is about to experience failure (Hunt-Earle, 2012). Once this happens, it is typically a white male manager who is appointed to lead the recovery of the organization (Cook & Glass, 2014). Mulcahy and Linehan (2014) cautioned that increases in gender diversity in board rooms are not necessarily indicative of progress made by female executives due to the disproportionate amount of female leaders being appointed to top seats in failing organizations.

Furthermore, the leadership labyrinth (Eagly & Carli, 2007) provides a more accurate framework to understand the path on which women often embark to reach their leadership aspirations. The labyrinth suggests that women face several types of challenges throughout their careers that differ from those faced by men. The labyrinth is filled with potentially career-destabilizing challenges like domestic demands, lack of promotion opportunities, biased appraisals, stereotypes, and perceived lack of effectiveness due to leadership styles (Eagly & Carli, 2007).

These types of situations may even prompt qualified women to leave their jobs. Carnes and Radojevich-Kelley (2011) suggested that the glass ceiling effects may be self-imposed. They argued that women may realize that their prospects for advancement may be limited, so they decide to abandon their careers in corporations to pursue entrepreneurial activities, thus leaving organizations with fewer qualified women leaders.

Once scholars and members of the press started publishing articles on the effects of invisible barriers that prevented female and minority executives from rising to leadership roles in the United States, and given a fair chance to keep their jobs, the government formed the Federal Glass Ceiling Commission to address the issue (Patton & Haynes, 2014). This action provided official recognition for this type of discrimination. The invisible challenges facing female leaders are notably present in some companies in Mexico (Castro, 2012).

Castro (2012) studied a major accounting firm in Mexico and found that the organizational culture of the company reflected a tendency to discriminate against women who aspired to rise to management roles while meeting the demands of their personal or family lives. Castro (2012) noted that the accounting firm under analysis required employees to work longer hours than usual, often working until midnight, and that employee commitment was measured mostly in terms of time spent in the office rather than productivity or other more market-centered metrics. Similarly, Zabludovsky Kuper (2015) examined the composition of leadership teams among corporations in Mexico and concluded that the effects of the glass-ceiling persist. Two reasons were the requirement for top managers to spend long hours at work and the unwillingness of men to take a more active role in domestic responsibilities.

These contributions to the study of gender and leadership (Eagly & Carli, 2007; Hunt-Earle, 2012; Rosser & Mamiseishvili, 2014) are relevant in establishing that women face more barriers than men to advance to leadership roles and maintain the support of

their organizational constituents. Eagly and Carli (2007) and Burns (2010) suggested that men and women are different because they have been socialized to act in different roles outside of work. This situation alone implies that women have to sacrifice more than men to advance in the workplace. However, none of these contributions to the study of women in leadership roles speak to possible differences in leadership efficacy.

The effects of invisible barriers, as described through the concrete wall, glass ceiling, glass cliff, and labyrinth metaphors, help to explain the reasons for the underrepresentation of women in leadership roles. However, it is possible that differences in leadership efficacy are also at play and could be used as another factor to explain why women do not hold top management positions in equal percentage as their male counterparts. The next section of this review of the literature focuses on leadership theory to help explain how leadership efficacy (and leadership self-efficacy) is determined and how these theories have addressed the growing role of women in leadership roles.

### **Leadership Theories and Gender**

Chemers (2000) and Jogulu and Wood (2006) critically analyzed several of the most influential leadership theories, and how different leadership models have addressed gender and leadership. These researchers agreed that early leadership models largely ignored to rise of female leaders, and that more recent leadership approaches were more gender neutral. This section will be used to describe how trait, behavioral, contingency, and transformational leadership models have been used to analyze male and female leadership.

**Trait leadership theory.** The earliest contributions to the study of leadership that were documented in the literature are aligned with leadership personality or trait theory. Northouse (2016) noted that research conducted on leadership traits stemmed from the Great Man ideas of the 1800s where highly effective military leaders were deemed to possess certain characteristics or traits that made them rare and more capable than the rest of the members of the population. Thomas Carlyle has been credited with some of the most influential characterizations of this population of outliers (Utzing, 2015).

Utzing (2015) examined the influence of Carlyle's descriptions of heroes on other influential thinkers and found that their depictions of larger than life men seemed to share common characteristics. He noted that these leaders were incapable of being insincere, had the capacity to see the world in ways others could not, and inspired praised by their followers. These leaders had the courage to act on behalf of what was right and sacred, even by engaging in violent behavior, under situations of uncertainty and confusion (Utzing, 2015).

A practical example of this approach was found in post-revolution Mexican society. Vuelvas (2011) noted that the first administrations of the newly established Mexican democracy modeled their platform, in part, on the image of Francisco Villa, one of the heroes of the Mexican revolution. Villa was perceived as a strong, virile, action-oriented individual. He fought against an oppressive government and became an icon that was held in high regard for many decades.

Once the topic of leadership caught the attention of academics and researchers, Cowley (1928) helped lay the groundwork for the development of trait leadership theory. He proposed that the goal of developing a single and manageable list of traits for effective leadership would be valuable to individuals responsible for appointing or electing candidates to key leadership positions. Cowley (1928) acknowledged that such a list would remain elusive until more research was conducted on leadership traits. He suggested that research be conducted to distinguish between true leaders and what he called headmen, a term he used to describe individuals who were not considered leaders by their followers, but who were assigned to positions of authority for reasons other than their ability to move others to action.

Cowley (1928) also suggested that researchers take notice of situational factors that affected leader performance to help determine whether a general set of traits was desirable in a variety of contexts. He even addressed the question of nature versus nurture in leadership by pointing out that leaders could be studied to determine whether their innate characteristics were enough to predict their performance as leaders or whether their environments also played a role. This provided sufficient motivation for trait theorists to seek manageable lists of traits that could inform decision-makers involved in management and leadership roles. Toward this end, Mann (1959) analyzed several leadership characteristics and found that intelligence, adjustment, and extroversion were the three characteristics that most often influenced leadership in small groups.

Interestingly, Mann's list of traits did not include the one trait that Cowley (1928) identified as a desirable leadership characteristic; the motivation for change.

Perhaps the most widely accepted contribution to a single list of traits that are present in effective leaders is the big five factor model, which is composed of the following personality characteristics: extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, and openness to experience (Saxena, 2014, p. 31). Currently, the influence and relevance of trait theory is strong. Colbert, Barrick, and Bradley (2014) concluded that the personality of top executives in organizations does influence overall performance, although they noted that followers responded more favorably when they worked for transformational leaders.

In a separate study, Andevski and Arsenijevi (2012) found that personality is linked to leader performance, and that certain personality traits characterize leaders who have an overall positive attitude towards life and work. For their part, Derue, Nahrgang, Wellman, and Humphrey (2011) learned through their studies that executives in organizations tend to rely on their images of people to determine who gets opportunities to rise to management and leadership roles. In a sense, Derue et al. (2011) were arguing that individuals were evaluated based on observable characteristics to predict their level of effectiveness in leadership roles in the future.

Nonetheless, the Great Man and trait leadership approaches have inspired many criticisms over the years. First, modern-day followers may not be inclined to be moved by the image of the hero as leader. Yair, Girsh, Alayan, Hues, and Or (2014) conducted

with a sample of German and Israeli adolescents to analyze the influence of heroes. The researchers found that the use of heroes to study leadership was ineffective because individuals were aware that historical figures often benefit from idealized characterizations, and there seemed to be a generalized sentiment that hero worship can be counter-productive (Yair et al., 2014).

Second, leadership traits have included management characteristics that may inspire controversy. Perry (2015) wrote about the negative impacts of dark traits possessed by leaders who could set in motion a series of situations that could end up damaging their organizations. These dark traits are narcissism, psychopathy, and Machiavellianism. While there is research to support that these dark traits can actually be effective for certain types of leaders (Owens, Wallace, & Waldman, 2015), currently, leaders who fail to control their narcissistic behaviors and lack of morality are likely to trigger the same type of character flaws in their followers (Sosik, Chun, & Zhu, 2014). This can potentially create legal and ethical challenges for their organizations.

Third, trait theory focuses exclusively on the leader, virtually ignoring the roles of followers and outcomes. This prompted some critics to assert that leadership is not a matter of traits or characteristics, and that it has more to do with achieving results through collaboration (Riveros-Barrera, 2012). With regard to outcomes, Burns (2010) explained that accomplishments or significant changes are rarely the direct results of the actions of great men. He noted that it is usually the masses of people who create significant movements.

The last criticism of the theory has to do with the lists of traits themselves. Northouse (2016) noted that there is no manageable set of traits that apply in different contexts, and that as times passes, more sets continue to appear that are detrimental to the theory. In this regard, Cowley's (1928) vision of a single set of leadership traits has not been realized.

In terms of gender and leadership, representatives of trait theory paid little to no attention to female leaders in its beginnings (Chemers, 2000). Trait theory was popularized during the first half of the twentieth century, when the majority of women in the workforce occupied positions that were stereotyped as caring or nurturing, which clashed with the more masculine leadership traits that had been put forth by Carlyle and academics specializing in the study of leadership. This stereotypical approach made trait theory a reflection of a male-centered argument for effective leadership (Jogulu & Wood, 2006).

According to the Pew Research Center (2015), the public seems to find few differences between men and women in terms of leadership traits. Survey research on gender and personality conducted in the United States indicated that 68% of the public believes that men and women are equal in terms of honesty while 87% see no difference in terms of intelligence (Pew Research Center, 2015).

Yet, fairly recently, researchers (Ünsar & Karalar, 2013; Shangase & Gerwel Proches, 2014) have indicated that gender continues to be factor used by decision-makers to assess individuals' leadership capabilities. For example, in a study conducted in

Mexico, women who aspire to leadership positions reported that they felt that they had to conform to traditionally male characteristics like aggressiveness and audacity to break through the glass ceiling while displaying an image of toughness to get the recognition they deserved as leaders (Barragan et al., 2010). The women in the study were aware that they could contribute to the effectiveness of the management team by bringing a different perspective (a female point of view) to work discussion, but they had to act more masculine to get the chance to be part of the management team.

In another study, Lemkau (1983) compared personality traits of women working in sex-typical professions with the traits exhibited by women working in male-dominated professions. The findings suggested that both groups had similar aspirations regarding career development, but that women in male dominated-professions were more assertive and tough-minded. This raises another concern. Muhr (2011) cautioned that women who succeed in leadership roles by combining their natural feminine traits with masculine characteristics may actually reinforce the barriers preventing other women from breaking into top management roles by sending the message that female leaders should be perceived like their male counterparts.

In a recent study, Cohen, Ornoy, and Keren (2013) used the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) to identify success factors among project managers and identify the traits that separate them from the general population. The study showed that men and women were equally effective project managers, but that the women in the study reported considerably different scores in the MBTI from the rest of the female population. While

the men in the study also differed from the general population of males, the differences were slight. The implication is that trait theory is based on the implicit notion that men are different types of leaders than women, and that successful female leaders adapt their personalities to exhibit more masculine traits.

Therefore, trait theory has provided a starting point for researchers as they study leadership and the emerging role of women in management teams. The evolution of personality theory of leadership, beginning with the characterization of leaders as heroes through the more recent works on female leaders' characteristics, has been consistent with changes in society and the emergence of more modern theoretical perspectives that have brought new insights into what makes an effective leader (Chemers, 2000).

**Behavioral leadership theory.** The behavioral approach started with the University of Iowa studies, represented by the work of Lewin (1938) and Lippitt (1940), which served to document the effects of authoritarian and democratic leadership approaches in groups of children. The University of Iowa studies marked the beginnings of the behavioral theoretical framework of leadership, which introduced the notion that leaders could remain focused on goals or tasks regardless of the personal cost to followers (autocratic style) or show concern and interest for followers by including them in the decision-making process even if it meant slowing down the achievement of goals in the short term (democratic style).

The University of Iowa contributions challenged the dominant trait approach to leadership by suggesting that team performance, rather than personality, could be more

closely associated with leadership style rather than personality. The influence of this approach continues to this day. For example, Malakyan (2013) used the leadership styles model, which included the laissez-faire (non-leadership) behavior, in a study aimed to better understand American leadership throughout history.

The researchers involved with the leadership styles studies generally concluded that the democratic leadership approach is more effective in shaping the behavior of groups to a desirable state (Lewin, 1938; Lippitt, 1940). This assertion is consistent with findings of subsequent behavioral leadership studies, which developed over the 1940s through the 1960s. Stogdill (1967) studied *consideration* and *initiating* structure behaviors that characterized many of the studies conducted under this theory. He referred to initiation as the emphasis placed by the leader on completing tasks, while consideration structure was used to describe the leader's focus on the needs of the followers. This description of behavior is consistent with Lewin's (1938) initial contribution of autocratic and democratic styles.

Stogdill (1967) claimed that individuals working under task-oriented managers could be more productive at the expense of employee satisfaction while more relationship-minded managers could sacrifice productivity, up to a point, to achieve greater employee satisfaction and loyalty. The key to effective leadership seemed to rest on the appropriate balance of the behaviors. Stogdill's work became a platform for what became known as the Ohio State University studies on leadership, which started to take form in 1948. Researchers who worked on the Ohio State studies were quickly joined by

academics from the University of Michigan where Katz (1955) developed his three-skill model that represented a challenge to the assumptions of the Great Man approach and served to support the claim that individuals could develop into effective leaders even if they were not born with a specific set of traits. Katz's model proposed that leaders developed technical, human, and conceptual skills that allowed them to direct others from different organizational positions, and at different stages in their careers (Katz, 1955).

Both the Ohio State and University of Michigan studies helped to develop the foundation for the behavioral leadership theoretical approach sparked by the work done at the University of Iowa. Researchers conducted their studies by examining the task and relationship behaviors that managers used to move followers to action, and they developed more models under this theory. For example, at the University of Michigan, Likert (1979) found that managers whose leadership approach was participative performed better than managers who were benevolent, authoritative, and consultative. To avoid any labels that would suggest bias on any of the leadership attitudes towards followers, Likert used the nomenclature System 1, System 2, System 3, and System 4 to identify benevolent, authoritative, consultative, and participative groups, respectively.

The results of Likert's (1979) work suggested that followers responded more favorably to leaders who made priorities clear, but who also encouraged others to actively engage the challenges facing the group. Therefore, Lewin (1938), Lippitt (1940), and Likert (1979) were consistent in their findings. These researchers agreed that a democratic or participative approach to leadership was generally more effective.

Furthering behavioral theory, Blake and Mouton (1967) developed what became known as the managerial grid to describe differences in leaders' behaviors. Now known as the Leadership Grid, this grid has a vertical axis that measures concern for people and a horizontal axis that measures concern for production. Each axis is numbered from 1 to 9, representing low-to-high concern. Managers who pay little attention to employee needs and instead emphasize outcomes are likely to be identified as 9,1 style leaders on the grid, while those who focus on the quality of interpersonal relationships and show little regard for outcomes would likely be described as a 1,9 style (Blake and McCauley, 1991).

An ideal scenario would be one in which a manager displays a 9, 9 leadership style, suggesting that they are able to motivate their followers to collaborate and deliver results that benefit those involved and the organization as a whole. Eventually, Blake and Mouton (1967) added a third dimension of the managerial grid. This dimension is similar to the task and relational dimensions in that it is measured on a 1 to 9 scale, but it is also designed to measure the likelihood that a leader will adjust his or her approach when he or she receives feedback. A high score would suggest that the leader is unlikely to change an established course of action, even in light of compelling reasons. Therefore, leaders who score 9,9,9 on the managerial grid will probably dismiss outside pressure to make changes, while a 9,9,1 leader is more likely to respond to feedback.

The behavioral approach to leadership has been the subject of several criticisms. First, there is no one style that works best in every situation because there are times when managers are more effective when adopting a task orientation rather than a relationship

orientation, and vice versa (Northouse, 2016). Second, the relationship between behavior and performance has not been adequately documented, and some researchers believe that team performance influences individual perception of leader behavior instead of the opposite (Powell & Butterfield, 1984).

Regarding the role of women in leadership roles, behavioral theory is based on the assumption that female leaders' behaviors tend to be more aligned with consideration or relationship approaches to management while men tend to be more task-oriented (Gergen, Green, & Ceballos, 2014). While this may seem to make sense, it is in direct contrast with data gathered from subordinates of male and female leaders that suggest that female supervisors are in fact more task-oriented than their male colleagues (Pfaff, Boatwright, Potthoff, Finan, Ulrey, & Huber, 2013). This finding raises the questions of gender bias in male and female expectations of behavior.

Crites et al. (2015) addressed this issue in their research and concluded that men and women are similar in their leadership behaviors, claiming that notions that female leaders are more people oriented than men may be part of a longstanding stereotype that has lost its application in today's reality. Sekaquaptewa (2011) labeled this type of erroneous judgment as stereotypic attribution bias. It takes place when individuals attribute outcomes to others based on gender, demeanor, or situational factors. These attributions can help to develop stereotypes that further serve to create environments where individuals are pressured to conform to accepted norms or identities.

Consistent with this view, Sturm, Taylor, Atwater, and Braddy (2014) noted that stereotypes influence female leaders more than their male counterparts when it comes to predicting how they are being valued by their superiors. This suggests that female executives are subject to be evaluated based on gender stereotypes, and that they may be inclined to conform to the biased assessment. These stereotypes can hurt male leaders, too. Thoroughgood, Sawyer, and Hunter (2013) found that subordinates will evaluate their poor performing male leaders more harshly than female leaders. They suggested that this may be due to the expectation that men are better leaders than women in some industries, so there is less tolerance for males when they arrive at undesirable outcomes.

Therefore, the behavioral theoretical approach made contributions to the literature in that it recognized the role of the follower as part of the leadership process. This approach helped researchers move away from the notion of the existence of male-centered characteristics that effectively predict leadership efficacy and emergence. The problem with this approach, in terms of how female leaders were described, is that it is based on assumptions that are consistent with persistent stereotypes that misrepresent the capabilities of women in leadership roles, which may contribute to the problem of underrepresentation.

A valuable benefit, however, is that the behavioral models allow for corrective action to be taken by aspiring leaders if they detect an area of opportunity. For example, men seem to have an advantage over women in terms of power motivation, which aspiring female leaders may overcome through training and coaching (Schuh, Hernandez

Bark, Van Quaquebeke, Hossiep, Frieg, & Dick, 2014). By focusing on behaviors rather than traits, the behavioral approach was used to recognize that men and women may exhibit certain differences that deserve to be studied and analyzed. To do so effectively, it will be necessary to control for stereotypes that associate one type of behavior or the other to a particular gender group. Otherwise, leader effectiveness will most likely be associated with male patterns of behavior, negatively impacting the prospects of aspiring female leaders.

**Contingency (situational) leadership theory.** Murphy (1941) helped to discredit the leadership personality approach by arguing that leadership is a social process that does not rest on the person in charge, but rather on the situation in which the group is involved. Moreover, McCleskey (2014) argued that leadership efficiency is increased when the leader is able to adjust his or her behavior to the particular situation of the group.

It could be argued that trait theory has been expanded by the situational approach to leadership. Borg and Tupes (1958) examined the effect of team member traits in different situations, and concluded that there was evidence of the impact of leader personality, but that leadership emergence and effectiveness were partly affected by the nature of the situation in which individuals found themselves.

Consistent with this perspective, Bennis (1959) argued that leadership effectiveness is affected by the type of organization in which leaders and followers perform, which implicitly suggested that organizational structures and culture may differ

in their degree of favorableness to their constituents. Toward this end, two different models are worth noting.

Fiedler's (1972) contingency model provided the basic premise that leader effectiveness was contingent upon the situation in which he or she was asked to perform. The goal of the model was to find the appropriate fit between the leader and the group of followers. While training and experience played a key part of the leader-member relationship, more training did not necessarily associate with better performance.

In fact, a subsequent study testing the validity of the contingency model highlighted the need to incorporate leader intelligence into the examination of the effects of leadership training (Chemers, Rice, Sundstrom, & Butler, 1975). The argument rested on findings that suggested that leadership training was more effective among high intelligence leaders. Therefore, the emphasis was centered on finding the leaders with the appropriate characteristics to match organizational contexts where they could perform at a higher level.

Adopting a seemingly different, but overall consistent, perspective with the contingency model, Bass, Farrow, Valenzi, and Solomon (1975) linked the leadership styles of direction, negotiation, consultation, participation, and delegation with organizational characteristics and employees' need for task or relationship-related variables. Their work supported the notion that employees who found themselves at different levels of development in their workplaces would require different behaviors on the part of their leaders.

Blanchard and Hersey (1970) had found that school administrators achieved greater results by adjusting their behavior based on the level of maturity of their subordinates. Under Blanchard and Hersey's situational leadership model, followers were categorized in terms of their need to be supported and directed, allowing the leader of the group to adapt his or her approach as the situation dictates.

The main difference between contingency and situational approaches rests on the question of adaptation. The contingency model is based on the assumption that effectiveness depends on the leader finding the right group to manage. The situational model posits that leaders can be effective if they are able to adapt to the needs of the group.

As it has been the case with previous leadership theories, the contingency and situational models have been criticized over the years. First, Mitchell, Biglan, Oncken, and Fiedler (1970) acknowledged that there are certain factors that the model fails to account for, like team members' relationships among themselves and demographic differences that could influence expectations that affect perceived leader effectiveness.

Second, while research under this theory has taken place, it is still too limited to allow for a serious assessment of its relevance and comparability to other leadership theories. Third, the concept of follower maturity is ambiguous, and there are still concerns regarding the logic behind the application of the situational model (Santa-Bárbara & Fernández, 2010).

In terms of contingency theory's application to gender diversity in leadership roles, as noted before, the model fails to account for demographic variables, like gender,

that could affect its application (Mitchell et al., 1970). However, an argument could be made for the contingency model based on the existence of female-dominated industries, as opposed to male-dominated industries, or gender-neutral industries.

Women trying to establish themselves in male-dominated roles may face a lack of social and institutional support systems that may cause them to change direction and seek employment in more female-friendly roles (Martin & Barnard, 2013). Furthermore, Cook and Glass (2011) found that appointing female leaders in traditionally male-dominated industries may produce negative reactions by the market. There is evidence that points to the negative financial impact of having a female manager run the organization due to their tendency to take fewer risks than men (Ho, Li, Tam, & Zhang, 2015). There is also evidence, however, that traditionally female-dominated industries are more likely to react positively when women are appointed to top leadership positions (Cook & Glass, 2011).

Labeling industries as male or female is harmful for women because the concept of leadership itself is more closely associated with men (Eagly & Carli, 2007). Female top executives stand out more than their male counterparts because they are fewer in number, so their performance at work is more carefully assessed and scrutinized (Ely, Ibarra, & Kolb, 2011). Moreover, female-dominated industries and occupations tend to be less prestigious with more limited earning potential (Eagly & Carli, 2007).

More importantly, dividing industries based on gender goes against the logic of assigning leadership roles to the most qualified person available, denying opportunities to talented individuals based on gender-based stereotypes (Eagly & Carli, 2007). Moreover,

it ignores the importance of efficacy. On this note, Bellou (2011) believed that leaders who are successful in achieving stated goals are valued, regardless of gender. Given this finding, it may be more appropriate to let results speak for themselves rather than assigning male or female labels to industries.

Furthermore, gender stereotypes exist and affect perceptions of leadership efficacy. Female leaders, through some of the long-standing stereotypes that characterize them as nurturing and understanding, may be considered better candidates than male managers to lead in organizations that are going through periods of failure (Ryan, Haslam, Hersby, & Bongiorno, 2011). This brings back the notion of the glass cliff, explained earlier, which can hurt female leaders.

Contingency models were key in bringing the role of the follower to the forefront of discussions on leadership. The basic premises make sense in that leadership effectiveness depends on the situation in which the leader is expected to perform, which includes organizational structures and followers. However, the theory is still in development as questions about follower characteristics remain, along with valid concerns regarding situations that may have been stereotypically deemed to be more or less favorable depending on gender.

**Transformational leadership theory.** Transformational leaders tend to be effective in organizations where hierarchical relationships are not clear cut, and innovation is valued (Tyssen, Wald, & Spieth, 2013). Transformational leadership theory is based on leader and follower "emotions, values, ethics, standards, and long-term goals"

(Northouse, 2016, p. 161). James Downton wrote about this particular kind of leadership in 1973, which he used to create a leadership framework consisting of transactional, charismatic, and inspirational dimensions (Bradley, 1975). These three dimensions have been discussed by several scholars in the field.

First, transactional leadership rests on the notion that the leader-follower relationship is based on exchanges of value to both parties that motivates them to work together (Hollander & Julian, 1969). To Hollander (1979), transactional leadership theory is different from previous models in that the competence of the leader rests on follower perceptions rather than personality or behavior. As long as leaders and followers believe that it is in their own best interest to transact with one another, the relationship would make sense and be effective.

Second, the concept of charismatic leadership was popularized in the United States in the 1960s by the works of classical management theorist Max Weber (Derman, 2011). Weber noted that there were basically three types of power: legal, as defined by official institutions; traditional, which included historically respected roles; and charismatic, which relied on mysterious or ill-defined favorable qualities of individuals that made others want to follow them (Taylor, 2012).

Weber's definition of charismatic leaders implied a tendency to challenge long-standing paradigms held within societies (Derman, 2011). To Weber, charismatic leaders often emerged in support of legal or traditional leaders, but they could also make their marks in times when changes were needed and the established lines of authority were not

up to the task (Taylor, 2012). His notion of charismatic leadership was echoed by House (1999), who talked about organizational charisma as shared values between leaders and followers that yielded superior performance stemming from a work culture based on trust and team cohesiveness that could hardly be achieved through purely financial incentives.

Third, ethics and morality play a central role in inspiring individuals to deliver superior results. Chester Barnard dedicated a significant part of his work to the study of authority only to realize, near the end of his career, that morality and responsibility were much more important topics in the practice of leadership (Dubnick & Justice, 2014). This relatively late realization became known as Barnard's regret.

In light of recent high profile scandals in the business world, leaders are prompted to take a step back and pay closer attention to the ethical implications of how business is conducted and how the actions of leaders affect employee morale (Kelly Finkelman, 2011; Finley, 2012; Pucic, 2015). Contributors to the study of power and leadership that stemmed from the Great Man era lacked the need or the inclination to address the impact of morality on the leader-follower relationship (Perry, 2015). Moreover, organizations today have taken a greater interest on how leadership practices affect group cohesion (Hargis & Piotrowski, 2011).

Although these three dimensions had been present in the literature for some time, James McGregor Burns was among the first to conceptualize these as a single transformational leadership theory which incorporates the transactional, charismatic, and moral perspectives (Burns, 1978). Burns (2010) stated that transformational leadership

takes place "when one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality" (p.20). This approach, when compared to other views of leadership, tends to lead to greater levels of organizational and personal success (Stevens, 2011; Gandolfi, 2012; Selcer, Goodman, & Decker, 2012).

Transformational leadership is heavily concerned with promoting and facilitating organizational and social change. Social change is considered a must for companies today, which often find themselves in highly dynamic competitive environments (Ghasabeh, Reaiche, & Soosay, 2015). Gronhaug and Stone (2012) argued that organizations who are successful in adapting to economic and social trends tend to place greater effort on learning and transformation.

Burns (2010) used the term *transforming* rather than transformational leadership. It was Bass (1985) who popularized the term that has been used throughout this review. For practical purposes, the term transformational leadership will continue to be used throughout this study. While Burns is credited with taking transformational leadership to the forefront of leadership thought through his discussion on political and social leaders, Bass's work created the theoretical framework under which transformational leadership theory has been contextualized into the organizational environment (Goussak, Webber, & Ser, 2011).

Since its development, transformational leadership theory has produced several studies that have helped solidify its position as the dominant leadership theory. The

influence of this theory is most likely due to its attractiveness in terms of current leadership challenges and trends. Most notably, transformational theory's relationships with morality, ethics, and teamwork have become common elements in modern day corporations.

While transformational leadership theory is popular around academic circles, it has several criticisms that deserve consideration. First, transformational leadership models fail to clearly define and distinguish among some of its elements, which raises questions regarding the validity of the instruments used to gather data from participants (van Knippenberg & Sitkin, 2013). Second, the inclusion of charismatic leadership as part of its models introduces the possibility of negative consequences in practice. There is ample evidence that some charismatic leaders have taken advantage of their status and influence for personal gain (McCleskey, 2013; Schuh, Zhang, & Tian, 2013; Effelsberg, Solga, & Gurst, 2014). Third, descriptions of charismatic leaders who seem to possess undefinable characteristics that inspire others to follow in search for higher order goals remind individuals interested in the study of leadership of the Great Man approach linked to trait leadership theory (Northouse, 2016).

Transformational leadership and its approach to gender in contemporary society have been a matter of some prominence in the research agenda of some scholars. For example, Hickman (2015) conducted a study with 20 undergraduate male students to gain some insight into their perspective regarding the role of women in leadership roles. The participants reported that they expected to be led by female managers in the future and

noted communal and transformational characteristics when they described their conceptions of leadership.

Paustian-Underdahl, Slattery Walker, and Woehr (2014) analyzed 99 studies on gender and leadership conducted in the United States and Canada and found that earlier works described male leaders as more effective than their female counterparts, but as the researchers moved on to analyze more recent studies, the influence of gender was less prominent. The implication here is that researchers subscribing to newer leadership models, like those developed under transformational leadership theory, have yielded results that support the notion that leadership efficacy is not moderated by gender.

Of more concern to the focus of this study, Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, and van Engen (2003) conducted a meta-analysis of 45 studies on gender and transformational, transactional, and laissez faire leadership. They measured male and female leadership in terms of the factors included in the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). Their findings were consistent with small, but significant, differences in leadership styles between men and women, with women exhibiting higher levels of transformational leadership.

In a study linking leadership approach to generational influences, Murray and Chua (2014) found that women who reached adulthood during the 1980s tended to be transactional leaders while female leaders born in the 1990s were more transformational. The differences in leadership approaches, according to Murray and Chua (2014), are due to changing value systems that are transferred from one generation to the next. Their

findings suggest that progress made by women in leadership has coincided with the development of leadership theory. This assumption would further suggest that transformational theory is more aligned with the current value systems regarding gender and leadership, given that it is currently the dominant theoretical approach.

### **Leadership Self-Efficacy in Women**

Schein (1973) surveyed groups of male subjects to assess their perceptions of similarity between men in general and successful middle managers, and women in general and successful middle managers. Her data were gathered through self-reports. She concluded that men tend to associate the characteristics of successful male managers with their own gender. Schein replicated her study two years later, only this time, her subjects were female. However, the results were similar. The female managers in the sample associated the characteristics and behaviors of successful middle managers with men in general (Schein, 1975).

Heilman et al. (1987) conducted an experiment designed to assess self-perceptions of leadership efficacy. For this purpose, a sample of male and female college students were assigned to work in pairs in a situation where one of them was assigned a leadership role and would have to instruct the other person to complete the assigned task. Once the task was completed, the subjects were asked to report on their performance. The women who had been assigned the role of the leader reported less favorable self-scores in terms of their leadership skills and were more eager to be relieved of that role than their male colleagues (Heilman et al., 1987).

Recently, Flanagan (2015) conducted a study where male and female business students were asked to rate their own leadership skills and to provide an assessment of how others might rate them. The results showed that women were more likely to rate themselves lower than their male cohorts and they were also more likely to believe that others would rate them lower, too.

These researchers (Schein, 1973; Schein, 1975; Heilman et al., 1987; and Flanagan, 2015) provided male and female subjects equal scenarios with the purpose of identifying differences in self-perception in terms of leadership self-efficacy having gender as the independent variable. They all reached the same conclusion supporting the notion that women tend to undermine their own leadership capabilities in comparison to men.

Burns (2010) explained that women have been left out of leadership roles for so long that it has sunk into their consciousness. He claimed that women themselves tend to be biased in their perceptions of the role of women in leadership positions, which may contribute to their underrepresentation in such roles. These concerns are echoed by Singh, Nadim, and Ezzedeen (2012) who learned through their work on leadership styles using gender as a variable that female subordinates would rather work for a male leader.

Kelan and Mah (2014) conducted a study with MBA students to understand how these individuals assessed their role models. Their findings suggests that MBA students tended to identify with role models from their own gender, and that female participants were more critical of other women whom they admired.

This review of the literature has been used to establish that leadership itself has more male than female associations. This position is reflected in the traits, behavioral, and contingency leadership theories. These theories were developed by individuals who tended to define leadership in terms of predominantly male characteristics or behaviors, which made the study of women in leadership roles more challenging.

Transformational leadership theorists seem to hold greater promise for the study of gender and leadership efficacy through self-reports. Several studies conducted under transformational leadership models have yielded more favorable results for women (Bass et al., 1996; Garrett-Staib & Burkman, 2015; Pedraza Melo et al., 2015). However, only one study (Pedraza Melo et al., 2015) was conducted in Mexico, and with a limited number of female subjects, in part due to the criteria used for sample selection. Moreover, the expressed purpose of their study was not to identify differences in male and female perceptions of leadership efficacy. The researchers responsible for the study simply aimed to gather data on perceptions of leadership efficacy among managers in the commercial sector in one town in northern Mexico.

The present study was developed using the same research instrument used in Pedraza Melo et al. (2015), Kouzes and Posner's (2013) LPI Self, to compare leadership self-efficacy scores between male and female MBA students in the city of Tijuana, Baja California, Mexico. Kouzes and Posner's (2012) five practices of exemplary leadership model has been used extensively to study male and female transformational leaders. This

model consists of five leadership practices and ten commitments. Table 2 provides a brief illustration of Kouzes and Posner's model.

Table 2

*Five Practices of Exemplary Leadership Model*

Five practices	Ten commitments
Model the way	1. Clarify values by finding your voice and affirming shared values. 2. Set the example by aligning actions with shared values.
Inspire a shared vision	3. Envision the future by imagining exciting and ennobling possibilities. 4. Enlist others in a common vision by appealing to shared aspirations.
Challenge the process	5. Search for opportunities by seizing the initiative and looking outward for innovative ways to improve. 6. Experiment and take risks by constantly generating small wins and learning from experience.
Enable others to act	7. Foster collaboration by building trust and facilitating relationships. 8. Strengthen others by increasing self-determination and developing competence.
Encourage the heart	9. Recognize contributions by showing appreciation for individual excellence. 10. Celebrate the values and victories by creating a spirit of community.

Source: Kouzes and Posner (2012, p. 29)

This model works by using the LPI as an instrument to gather data from participants. It has been validated by researchers (Vito & Higgins, 2010; Pugh et al., 2011; Quin et al., 2015) working in different contexts. The LPI is a 30-item questionnaire

that is available in Self and Observer versions that represents an alternative to the MLQ. To achieve the purpose of this study, only the Self, Spanish version was administered. Observation of subjects suggested that many of the study subjects could have taken the English LPI, but for the sake of consistency, only the Spanish version was administered.

The LPI Self form was used to study differences in leadership self-efficacy between male and female MBA students. Since well-qualified women with high earning potential are more likely to experience the effects of the invisible barriers that might prevent them, as a group, from advancing within organizations (Weinberger, 2011; Arceo-Gómez & Campos-Vázquez, 2014), this sample of the population can yield relevant information for addressing the underrepresentation of women in leadership roles.

### **Summary**

The gender gap in leadership roles represents real and relevant research opportunities in the study of economics, management, social justice, and gender. For more than 100 years, efforts have been made by scholars to address the challenges that women encounter when they decide to enter the workforce and perform in management roles. It is clear that progress has been made. The traditional leadership theories have helped bring the need to study female leaders into the consciousness of scholars. The personality leadership approach focused on describing leaders based on traits while the behavioral perspective addressed how leaders behaved. The main issue with these two approaches is that they do not address leadership efficacy or outcomes in a way that could be considered consistent with the intended purpose of this study.

The contingency and situational models provide more of an opportunity to address the question of performance and efficacy, but some demographic variables tend to be ignored in works conducted under this approach. Given the nature of this study, which centers on a key demographic element (gender), these models seem insufficient. The more contemporary leadership models, which mostly stem from transformational leadership theory, have been shown to be more gender neutral than the traditional approaches and have been used in the past to measure perceptions of leadership efficacy. These characteristics make transformational leadership theory a clear choice to address the problem of underrepresentation of women in leadership roles.

While there has been research conducted in Mexico that partially addresses this problem, there is little work documented in the literature toward this particular end. Therefore, it makes sense to use one transformational leadership model to address the problem of underrepresentation of women in leadership roles in Mexico. Given the limited reach of this study, one segment of the population, MBA male and female students, from one city in the country, Tijuana, will serve as the sample.

This particular sample may provide results that are relevant to the study of leadership and gender given that these individuals are currently working on their graduate degrees, which may place them in advantageous positions to occupy leadership roles in the future. This situation can potentially make the female portion of the sample more vulnerable to encounter the effects of glass ceiling, the glass cliff, or the leadership labyrinth. To ensure that the research design fits the research problem and purpose

guiding this study, a detailed description of the methodology, sample, instrumentation, and data analysis procedures will be provided in Chapter 3.

## **CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY**

### **Introduction**

Chapter 2 was written to point out that there is a gap in the literature regarding leadership self-efficacy in women in Mexico. The current chapter of this study serves to describe the methods that were employed to gather and analyze data from a sample of MBA students located in the city of Tijuana, Baja California, Mexico.

By addressing the research questions and the hypotheses listed in Table 1, the purpose of the study was achieved, and the information that resulted may be made available to aspiring female leaders, educational leaders (particularly MBA administrators), and organizational decision-makers who can use it to partially address the problem of the underrepresentation of women in leadership roles. The following subsections will be used to describe the research method, design, instrument, population and data analysis procedures used to conduct the study.

### **Research Method**

Consistent with the tradition of educational researchers interested in exploring transformational leadership theory, this study was developed under the quantitative research paradigm (Parylo, 2012). Specifically, this was an ex post facto research design, which is a common comparative approach used in situations where the variables are not manipulated (Abbott & McKinney, 2013). In the present study, the two groups used to compare LPI scores were created based on the gender of the participants. These data were

later analyzed to determine associations between gender and leadership self-efficacy under one transformational leadership model.

### **Research Design**

This study used an ex post facto research design (Abbott & McKinney 2013) to compare mean scores of 73 male and 80 female MBA students in the city of Tijuana, Baja California, Mexico, who responded to the LPI Self. This made it possible for the researcher to determine differences between males and females in terms of LPI scores based on a pre-existing condition (gender) without having to manipulate the variables (Abbott & McKinney, 2013). Educational researchers commonly use this comparative approach in their work (Abbott & McKinney, 2013). By running independent-samples t-tests, it was possible to determine whether there were statistically significant differences between male and female participants in terms of leadership self-efficacy. The research process followed the series of activities described in the next paragraphs.

The starting point of the research process was obtaining IRB approval to conduct the study. IRB approval was granted on May 12, 2016 (Appendix A). The data-gathering process started immediately after the IRB letter of approval was received. The process took place during the third and fourth weeks of May 2016. The responses were gathered through the paper version of the LPI Self, which meant that responses had to be entered manually into the data analysis software. After that, descriptive statistics, Levene's test of equality of variances, and independent samples t-tests were run to address the research questions.

## **Instruments**

LPI Self responses were provided by using a 10-point Likert scale. The higher the level indicated on the scale, the more frequently the respondents engage in the behavior described in the corresponding item (Kouzes & Posner, 2013). Each of the five practices of exemplary leadership (model the way, inspire a shared vision, challenge the process, enable others to act, encourage the heart) were measured by six items in the LPI Self. There are six items in the LPI for every leadership practice. (Kouzes & Posner, 2013).

Once the items had been grouped into their corresponding leadership practices, which constituted the dependent variables of the study, the Cronbach alpha coefficient was calculated to ensure reliability of the LPI Self in its Spanish version, which was established at .724 (model the way), .845 (inspire shared vision), .782 (challenge the process), .667 (enable others to act), and .871 (encourage the heart). Validity had been established through previous research conducted using the LPI (Vito & Higgins, 2010; Pugh et al., 2011; Quin et al., 2015). Moreover, one of the authors of the LPI cited several studies supporting the validity and reliability of the instrument across industries, nations, ethnic groups, and languages in which it is available (Posner, 2016).

Permission to use the LPI was obtained in writing by the publisher of the instrument (Appendix D). The LPI itself is available in several languages. The Spanish version of the instrument (Appendix E) was used to gather data from the sample because Spanish is the native language of the participants.

## Participants

There are currently six universities in the city of Tijuana, Baja California, Mexico, that operate an MBA program (ANUIES, 2015). Together, the three MBA programs that participated in this study have 513 students enrolled. Before the actual participants could be approached to administer the LPI Self, it was necessary to ask for the permission of the program administrators. These program administrators were approached in person and through telephone and e-mail to explain the nature of the study and to obtain their written consent.

After the initial approach, three of the six program administrators declined to participate in the study. Two of them cited the size and format of their programs as the reasons for choosing not to participate. The other program administrator who declined did not feel comfortable signing an organizational consent form, which eliminated the opportunity to participate.

The three remaining program administrators granted permission to administer the LPI Self to their MBA students during one or more of their classes. They all signed the organizational consent form, which was then forwarded to the IRB committee at City University of Seattle, and to the dissertation committee chair. Receiving permission to administer the LPI Self in the classrooms where the participants met for lecture provided a good opportunity to obtain a high response rate to the survey (Fowler, 2014). Before the participants responded to their LPI Self questionnaire, they were asked to read and sign their informed consent forms (Appendix C), which were provided to them in Spanish

(their native language). They were also asked to read the instructions for the survey. In addition, the person administering the survey read the instructions out loud.

A total of 153 individuals participated in the survey, of whom 47.7% were male and 52.3% were female. The majority of the participants in the study were from School A ( $n=122$ ). School B participated with 19 students ( $n=19$ ) and School C with 12 ( $n=12$ ). The total population of MBA students in Tijuana was 589 (ANUIES, 2015). The total population of MBA students enrolled in the programs that participated in this study was 513. The size of the sample was deemed appropriate within the parameters of having a 10% margin of error, a 95% confidence interval, and a 50% response distribution.

### **Data Analysis Methods**

Since the LPI Self was administered in its paper version, it was necessary to manually enter the scores for each item into the SPSS spreadsheet programmed for the study. This process was conducted by the researcher of the study himself during office hours over the course of one week. The data collected through the LPI Self, Spanish version were typed into an SPSS spreadsheet. The values for the gender variable were coded zero (0) for female respondents, and one (1) for male respondents. The values for the three participating schools were coded as zero (0), one (1), and two (2) for schools A, B, and C, respectively.

Before the data were ready to be typed into the file, every questionnaire was examined to detect forms that had not been adequately completed. Questionnaires that

were incomplete, unclear, or in some way corrupted were eliminated from the sample. A total of 11 questionnaires had to be eliminated.

Every questionnaire entered into the spreadsheet was numbered in the top right hand corner to match its row in the spreadsheet. This facilitated the task of double and triple checking for potential errors during the data entry phase. Once all data were entered into the spreadsheet, the total number of male and female MBA students were added and compared to ensure that both genders were adequately represented and met the quota for the sample. The total number of participants, 153, was above the expected level of respondents based on the total population of MBA students enrolled in participating institutions.

To align the data under analysis with the structure of the research questions and hypotheses stated on Table 1, the 30 items in the LPI Self were grouped into the five practices of exemplary leadership (Kouzes & Posner, 2012). According to Northouse (2016) this five practices model is considered a prominent transformational leadership approach. To address the research questions and test the hypotheses stated on Table 1, independent samples t-tests were calculated to analyze differences in terms of the independent variable (gender) and the dependent variables (each of the LPI dimensions) (Chen, 2012).

To make sure that the two samples had equal variances, Levene's test of equality of variances was employed. Levene's test yielded  $p$  values for each of the leadership practices measured in the survey. In four out of the five leadership practices,  $p$  values

were scored above .05 (model the way ( $p=.839$ ), inspire a shared vision ( $p=.293$ ), challenge the process ( $p=.264$ ), enable others to act ( $p=.940$ ). The remaining leadership practice (encourage the heart) received a  $p$  value below .05 ( $p=.020$ ), indicating that variances were not equal. However, SPSS automatically adjusted the  $t$  value, which allowed for accuracy in the subsequent analysis (Abbott, 2014). Levene's test of equality of variances is consistent with analyses conducted using  $t$ -tests (Chen, 2012).

To reduce the change of committing Type I alpha error for hypothesis testing, the significance level was reduced from .05 to .01. This process was assisted with the SPSS function along with the calculation of the independent samples  $t$ -test. The results were not affected by the change.

### **Limitations**

The study has three limitations. First, gathering and recording data through the LPI Self in paper form represented opportunities for error during the data entry phase. This required the researcher to double and triple check for mistakes in the data that were being manually entered into the SPSS spreadsheet. Also, it required that informed consent forms for participants also be distributed in paper form.

Unfortunately, reaching the sample for this study via traditional mail was not a viable option because Tijuana does not have an efficient and reliable mail service. Sending the questionnaire electronically was also not an option because permission to do so was not granted as part of the agreement with Wiley, the publisher responsible for the LPI (Appendix B).

Second, the present study was developed using a convenience sample to address the research questions. Approximately 26% of the MBA student population in Tijuana participated in the present study, but they were not randomly selected, which means that the findings may not necessarily be generalized to the general population (Fowler, 2014). The results are, however, consistent with the purpose of the present study and the results may be transferable to similar populations.

Third, the success of the data gathering phase of the present study relied heavily on the consent of MBA program administrators. This meant that organizational consent forms needed to be obtained and documented to receive IRB approval. The benefit of this step in the process was that it helped ensure that participants and organizations in the study were treated ethically and fairly.

### **Summary**

The sample of 153 individuals who responded to the LPI Self survey were asked to sign an informed consent form to ensure that they had been made aware of the purpose of the study and their role as participants. The three program administrators who facilitated access to the sample were asked to sign an organizational consent form before the data gathering process started.

The LPI Self was used in this study because it had been validated through years of research on transformational leadership practices. The Spanish version of the instrument produced an acceptable reliability coefficient, which had been the case in previous studies. The instrument was administered in paper form. Levene's test of equal variances

was calculated before running the independent samples t-test for each of the five practices of exemplary leadership measured through the LPI Self. The results from the descriptive and inferential statistics from the SPSS database created to register the LPI Self scores from the sample will be presented in the next section.

Chapter 4 served to display the results from the study based on LPI comparisons by gender. These results indicated whether there were statistically significant differences between male and female participants in the study. Results were presented for the model the way, inspire a shared vision, challenge the process, enable others to act, and encourage the hear leadership practices.

## CHAPTER 4: FINDINGS

### Introduction

The purpose of this study was to compare male and female LPI Self scores for each of the five practices of exemplary leadership model developed by Kouzes and Posner (2012). These data helped determine whether men and women showed statistically significant differences in terms of leadership self-efficacy, which could help address the gender gap in leadership roles by identifying the transformational leadership behaviors that male and female participants in the study most often engage in.

By understanding the relationship between gender and transformational leadership self-efficacy, aspiring female leaders, organizational leaders, and educational decision-makers can make informed decisions regarding which behaviors to promote to help level the playing field for individuals from both genders. The results from the survey research conducted to achieve the stated purpose of the study are displayed in this section.

The study was conducted with a sample of 153 MBA students in the city of Tijuana, Baja California, Mexico. Each respondent was enrolled in one of three schools that agreed to participate in the study. Table 3 shows that 52.3% of those surveyed were female, while men accounted for 47.7%.

*Table 3*

#### *Individuals in the Sample by School and Gender*

Sample	School A	School B	School C	N	Percent
Male	63	4	6	73	47.7
Female	59	15	6	80	52.3
Total	122	19	12	153	100

The results of the survey represent the responses to the five research questions stated to guide this study. In each case, the results indicate whether there were statistically significant differences between males and females in the sample in terms of the model the way, inspire a shared vision, challenge the process, enable others to act, and encourage the heart leadership practices.

### **Presentation of Findings**

The LPI Self consists of 30 items that respondents used to assess their leadership practices. Every item in the LPI Self is measured using a Likert scale that ranges from 1 – 10. Figures F1 – F30 (Appendix F) display the results per item based on the percentage of individuals, divided by gender, who participated in the study. This was a necessary step to conduct further analysis. For the sake of clarity, rather than presenting the frequencies for each item, which would have been uneven because of the difference in number of male and female participants, percentages were calculated by gender.

However, these data can only be used to develop a sense of the number of respondents by gender for each measure per item. To properly address the research questions guiding this study (Table 1), it was necessary to compare mean scores, which required the use of t-tests. The mean scores for each of the five leadership practices were examined to find that women scored higher in the model the way and encourage the heart dimensions while men scored higher in the enable other to act, inspire a shared vision, and challenge the process dimensions. These data are displayed on Table 4 along with

minimum and maximum scores for each of the practices in the Kouzes and Posner (2012) leadership model.

Table 4

*Male and Female LPI Self Mean Score Comparison*

Leadership practice	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD	Female		Male	
					Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Model the way	25	58	46.94	6.62	47.17	6.40	46.69	6.89
Inspire a shared vision	16	59	42.34	10.16	42.32	10.48	42.36	9.87
Challenge the process	18	60	43.67	8.84	43.41	9.27	43.95	8.40
Enable others to act	33	60	50.09	5.66	49.95	5.47	50.26	5.90
Encourage the heart	17	69	47.26	8.90	47.30	9.92	47.21	7.69

To determine whether these mean scores represent statistically significant differences between males and females, independent samples t-tests were calculated for each of the leadership practices. The results indicate that there were no statistically significant differences in any of the leadership practices between males and females in the sample. The results are displayed in Table 5.

Table 5

*Independent Samples t-test Analysis for Male and Female Samples*

Leadership practice	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Model the way	.443	.659
Inspire a shared vision	-.027	.987
Challenge the process	-.380	.704
Enable others to act	-.337	.736
Encourage the heart	.057	.955

Table 6

*Hypotheses Test Conclusion*

Questions	Hypotheses	Conclusion
Q1	H <sub>0</sub> : There will be no statistically significant differences in LPI Self scores between male and female participants in the variable Model the Way.	Retained
Q2	H <sub>0</sub> : There will be no statistically significant differences in LPI Self scores between male and female participants in the variable Inspire a Shared Vision.	Retained
Q3	H <sub>0</sub> : There will be no statistically significant differences in LPI Self scores between male and female participants in the variable Challenge the Process.	Retained
Q4	H <sub>0</sub> : There will be no statistically significant differences in LPI Self scores between male and female participants in the variable Enable Others to Act.	Retained
Q5	H <sub>0</sub> : There will be no statistically significant differences in LPI Self scores between male and female participants in the variable Encourage the Heart.	Retained

The  $p$  value for each of the leadership practices measured through the LPI Self is greater than .05 ( $p > .05$ ). Therefore, as noted on Table 6, the Null Hypotheses (H<sub>0</sub>) were retained in every case.

No comparisons were made of mean scores among schools A, B, and C because this would have gone beyond the intended purpose of this study and the terms stated on the organizational consent form (Appendix B). However, this potential area for future research will be discussed in Chapter 5.

### **Summary**

The research questions were addressed through the use of survey research. The findings suggest that there were no statistically significant differences in LPI Self mean scores between male and female MBA students in the city of Tijuana, Baja California, Mexico. The study was framed on the five practices of exemplary leadership model developed by Kouzes and Posner (2012). The implications of the results under this particular framework will be discussed in Chapter 5.

## CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSIONS AND DISCUSSION

### **Introduction**

This study was developed to address the problem of underrepresentation of women in leadership roles by examining differences between male and female MBA students in terms of transformational leadership self-efficacy. No other study serving this purpose was found to have been conducted in Mexico. The expectation is that the results from the survey research will serve to inform organizational and educational leaders who play a role in promoting a more balanced educational and work environment, which ultimately benefits society as a whole. There is also the expectation that aspiring female leaders may use the information from this study to identify leadership training opportunities.

Early researchers of leadership theories described in Chapter 2 largely ignored the role of women in leadership positions (Chemers, 2000; Jogulu & Wood, 2006). After the 1970s, the rise of contingency and transformational leadership models started to balance the focus between the leader and the follower and placed greater attention on the value of diversity and the challenges associated with the disproportionate number of males in top management positions (Eagly & Carli, 2007).

The present study was developed using the five practices of exemplary leadership, and it is expected to contribute to the advancement of female leaders and transformational leadership theory in Mexico. This will help close the research gap in the country, and it will also help aspiring female leaders currently involved in MBA

programs become more aware of their leadership potential. Furthermore, this study may help educational and organizational leaders understand the potential and management needs of female leaders with graduate degrees in business, which could in turn help address the problem of female underrepresentation in top management positions. Therefore, the findings presented here may be used to create a favorable environment where increased levels of organizational efficacy can take place.

### **Discussion of Findings and Conclusions**

This study was performed to address the problem of underrepresentation of women in leadership roles in Mexico by measuring leadership self-efficacy in a sample of 153 MBA students in the city of Tijuana, Baja California, Mexico. If LPI Self scores for women in the sample would have been lower than those of men to a statistically significant degree, an argument could have been made suggesting that women are underrepresented in leadership roles because of differences in leadership self-efficacy. The results, however, indicate that this is not the case. Because the LPI is based on Kouzes and Posner's (2012) five practices of exemplary leadership model, the results and implications are discussed in terms of the five pillars that make up this model.

#### **Model the Way**

The model the way dependent variable in the LPI helps measure how often a leader engages in sharing his or her values with others and finding ways to ensure that individual actions are aligned with the shared values of the group (Kouzes & Posner, 2012). This creates an environment in which the leader is more concerned with directing

his or her followers by focusing on what they have in common rather than highlighting their differences (Hamstra, Van Yperen, Wisse, & Sassenberg, 2014). As seen in Table 4, females in the sample scored higher than males in this dimension, although the difference was not statistically significant ( $p = .659$ ).

The implication here is that females in the sample behave similarly than men when it comes to bringing individual and group values to the forefront. This kind of behavior is consistent with a key dimension of transformational leadership, which involves the pursuit of higher order values that motivate leaders and followers to perform above expected levels (Burns, 2010). Therefore, male and female MBA students in the sample are similarly aware of the importance of setting the appropriate example, so that their followers can more readily buy into a chosen path that is consistent with the values of the group as a whole. This can create a more ethical environment where team members and leaders can focus their attention on achieving common goals (Kouzes & Posner, 2016).

### **Inspire a Shared Vision**

The inspire a shared vision dependent variable measured through the LPI helps assess how often a leader engages in thinking about worthy aspirations for the future and bringing together his or her followers with similar interests to deliver on that vision (Kouzes & Posner, 2012). Inspiring a shared vision is particularly relevant in organizations where innovation is an important aspect for success, and managers and employees are tasked with constantly developing new knowledge that they can apply to

their work (Loon, Lim, Teck, & Cai, 2012). Transformational leaders place special attention on making sure that talent is pulled together to achieve a higher order goal (Watts & Corrie, 2013).

Males scored slightly higher than females, but with no statistical significance ( $p = .978$ ). The implication of this finding is that males and females in the sample are similar in their behaviors toward promoting organizational learning, something that is valuable in modern-day organizations that seek to achieve competitiveness through innovation. Overall the idea of promoting a shared vision for the future is characteristic of leadership approaches in situations where team effectiveness matters, and where teams are challenged with complex assignments (Wang, Waldman, & Zhang, 2014). Developing a vision for the future is also a key element of the practice of leadership, which, according to Kouzes and Posner (2012) is necessary for producing lasting change.

### **Challenge the Process**

The challenge the process dependent variable in the LPI helps measure how often a leader engages in behaviors aimed at finding new ways of doing things and learning from experience (Kouzes & Posner, 2012). In China, researchers surveyed 87 leaders and 639 followers who worked in some of the most innovative organizations in the country, and they found that transformational leadership was associated with innovative work practices (Afsar, Badir, & Bin Saeed, 2014).

In the present study, the male MBA students in the sample scored slightly higher in this dimension than females, but with no statistical significance ( $p = .704$ ). This

finding may be interpreted to suggest that individuals in this sample from both genders are just as likely to behave in ways that challenge established paradigms or procedures to find creative and innovative solutions to reach organizational goals. This often implies looking for new knowledge outside the organization (Kouzes & Posner, 2012). Since one job of the leader is to effectively lead change, it is recommended that leaders be comfortable with challenging established paradigms and procedures.

### **Enable Others to Act**

The enable others to act dependent variable in the LPI helps measure how often a leader engages in behaviors that facilitate relationships and create an environment where individuals can achieve superior levels of efficacy (Kouzes & Posner, 2012). This dimension is consistent with Burns' (2010) explanation of transformational leadership, helped leaders and followers elevate themselves to superior levels of performance. Zhu and Akhtar (2014) noted that trust is an essential element of the collaborative relationship between the leader and the follower.

Others who study this phenomenon, Bottomley, Burgess, and Fox III (2014) and Kouzes and Posner (2012), emphasized its importance, too. The men in this study scored slightly higher than the women in this dimension. The difference was not statistically significant ( $p = .736$ ). The implication is that gender does not account for differences in promoting collaborative relationships that can enhance trust and competence levels between the two groups in the study.

### **Encourage the Heart**

The encourage the heart dependent variable in the LPI helps to measure the community-building behaviors of a leader that include displays of appreciation and acknowledgement for worthy efforts on the part of others (Kouzes & Posner, 2012). This kind of behavior is conducive to a favorable organizational climate that tends to lead to superior performance (Shahin, Javad, & Javad, 2014). Females in this study scored higher than the males in this dimension, but the difference was not statistically significant ( $p = .955$ ). The implication is that gender is not likely to be a significant predictor of behaviors designed to create a favorable work environment where individuals can feel appreciated and motivated to excel. Of course, this claim can only be made with regard to the population under study.

The five practices of exemplary leadership model is a well-established transformational leadership framework that has been used for several years to help individuals develop into leaders (Northouse, 2016). Based on the model the way, inspire a shared vision, challenge the process, enable others to act, and encourage the heart leadership practices, males and females in the sample show no statistically significant differences in terms of leadership self-efficacy. This finding is meaningful because it supports the notion that gender does not account for differences in leadership self-efficacy among the individuals in the sample. By eliminating this potential explanation for the underrepresentation of women in leadership roles, researchers can focus their attention on other factors that were discussed in Chapter 2 and that will be addressed in the following section.

The findings in this study were inconsistent with previous works on male and female leadership self-efficacy that suggested that men have greater levels of leadership self-efficacy (Schein, 1973; Schein, 1975; Heilman et al., 1987; Flanagan, 2015). On the other hand, the results were consistent with research on gender and transformational leadership efficacy (Bass et al., 1996; Eagly et al., 2003; Garrett-Staib & Burkman, 2015). The individuals selected for the sample in this study showed no statistically significant differences in Kouzes and Posner's (2012) model the way, inspire a shared vision, challenge the process, enable others to act, and encourage the heart leadership practices. This model is more closely associated with transformational leadership theory than with other leadership approaches. Therefore, from a transformational leadership perspective, males and females in the sample are the same in terms of their self-perception of transformational leadership efficacy.

Rather than providing an argument to justify female underrepresentation in leadership roles, the people with the information derived from this study may use it to argue that gender does not moderate leadership self-efficacy in terms of the behaviors associated with Kouzes and Posner's (2012) model. This can be taken to suggest that organizational leaders responsible for promoting and developing top managers in organizations need not be overly concerned with the gender of potential applicants. The information presented in Chapter 4 can also be taken to suggest that aspiring female leaders do not need to adapt their behaviors to fit male patterns. There were no statistically significant differences found in any of the five practices of exemplary

leadership, which suggests that male and female MBA students in the sample have similar leadership behaviors already.

### **Application of Findings and Conclusions to the Problem Statement**

In Mexico, women are underrepresented in leadership roles (WEF, 2013; OECD, 2014; ILO, 2015; WB, 2016), a situation that affects the country's economic development (Moctezuma Navarro et al., 2014). The simple fact seems to be that women are unlikely to have the same opportunities that men have to perform in top management positions, even though females are well represented in the labor force and perform better than males in school (Núñez, 2011; Zabludovsky Kuper, 2015). The findings in this study apply to a small portion of the population of women, MBA students, in the city where the survey was conducted. This segment of the population is particularly vulnerable to the effects of the glass ceiling because they are potential high earners who may become eligible for top management positions (Weinberger, 2011).

The results of the survey suggest that the women in the sample are similar in their leadership behaviors to their male cohorts. This kind phenomenon was identified by Gregersen, Vincent-Höper, and Nienhaus (2014). Making this information available to aspiring female leaders, organizational stakeholders, and educational decision-makers can help remove potential concerns that women may not be able to lead as effectively as men. This would in turn help reduce the gender gap in leadership roles. The end result would be more gender diverse management teams working in a manner consistent with transformational leadership, which can help organizational decision-makers create more

inclusive, innovative, and ethical work environments geared toward high levels of performance (Zwingmann, Wegge, Wolf, Rudolf, Schmidt, & Richter, 2014; Pradhan & Pradhan, 2015).

### **Application to Leadership**

Previous research on leadership efficacy involving MBA students has stressed the importance of accounting for individual differences that may affect leadership development (Quigley, 2013). The present study was developed to understand how gender moderates leadership self-efficacy, which is a relevant aspect to consider given that gender roles (Kral, Nashiki, & Cortés, 2012), and established leadership prototypes (Mendez & Busenbark, 2015), have traditionally favored males, which has contributed to the current state of lack of diversity in top management roles.

Early leadership models neglected the importance of female leaders, reflecting the traditionally based assumption that leadership was a male role (Chemers, 2000; Jogulu & Wood, 2006). Cohen et al. (2013) compared the personalities of male and female project managers to individual in the general population. They concluded that effective male and female project managers exhibit similar characteristics to the male general population. This finding suggests that the personality of project managers is more consistent with males than females.

Schein (1973; 1975) examined the characteristics and behaviors of middle managers and compared them to those of the general population. Her work led to the conclusion that characteristics and behaviors more closely associated with males were

consistent with the perceptions of effective managers. Stereotypical female behaviors were perceived to be of value when referring to female managers in staff functions and not in line functions.

These studies developed by Cohen et al. (2013), and Schein (1973; 1975) serve as examples of the close association between being a leader and being male. Though the assumptions that support this gender-based notion of leadership are largely based on stereotypes (Crites et al., 2015), the reality is that women must struggle to overcome the misconceptions associated with these notions to claim their place in top management roles (Eagly & Carli, 2007). The acceptance of transformational leadership behaviors has helped correct some of the bias associated with gender and leadership. This has been demonstrated by previous works on gender and leadership conducted under transformational leadership models (Bass et al, 1996; Eagly et al, 2003; Garrett-Staib & Burkman, 2015). The results from this study are aligned with these works.

### **Recommendations for Action**

This research was carried out with individuals (MBA students) who had placed themselves in a position to develop new skills and acquire knowledge to be able to lead effectively in organizations. While the results suggest that the women in the sample do not display a lack of confidence in their abilities to lead, as compared to the men in the sample, there are practical and concrete actions that aspiring female leaders, educational, and organizational decision-makers can take to promote a more diverse work environment for managers and top managers in Mexico.

### **Aspiring Female Leaders**

MBA students in the sample scored similarly to their male cohorts in each of the leadership practices in Kouzes and Posner's model (2012). This suggests that they can be their natural self in organizational contexts. Findings in the present study suggest that aspiring and actual female leaders do not need to take on different, perhaps more masculine, behaviors to lead effectively.

Transformational leadership behaviors are associated with increased follower performance, loyalty and well-being (Zwingmann et al., 2014; Pradhan & Pradhan, 2015). Therefore, sustaining and developing these behaviors can help them create the necessary conditions to establish themselves as effective leaders or at least level the playing field with regard to their male colleagues. Their enrollment in an MBA program is already a step in the right direction because they can develop the skills they need to increase their value in the labor market and help their organizations achieve success (Gupta & Bennett, 2014). Beyond their graduate work, these MBA students can also get involved in leadership training programs designed to help them develop other leadership dimensions and as their goal-setting skills (Grantham, Pidano, & Whitcomb, 2014).

The female MBA students in the sample can also use the data from this study to remind themselves that their levels of leadership self-efficacy are comparable to those of their male cohorts. This can help them gain the confidence to negotiate promotions and compensation more readily in their workplaces, which is essential to correct the gender imbalance under discussion (Roebuck & Smith, 2011).

## **Educational Leaders**

The educational leaders running the MBA programs who participated in the study have an opportunity to take advantage of the LPI Self scores from their students. The findings in this study may be used to promote reflection and discussion regarding the implications of developing transformational leadership behaviors associated with superior organizational performance and follower loyalty and well-being (Zwingmann et al., 2014; Pradhan & Pradhan, 2015). Other program administrators can consider the possibility of conducting their own research to assess their students in terms of leadership practices, which may allow them to make informed decisions regarding their teaching practices. This could have a domino effect where more and more schools would raise awareness about the importance of developing future leaders prepared to manage diverse work environments.

For example, Crossan, Mazutis, Seijts, and Gandz (2013) used their leadership insights to promote the development of leadership behaviors and attitudes in their MBA program. They managed to secure buy-in by students, faculty, and administrators, enabling them to implement the significant changes they believed were appropriate in this endeavor. This resulted in the creation of a leadership course that students could enroll in to formally study leadership.

These kinds of practices help promote educational environments where educational leaders take steps toward accountability for the learning experiences of their students. Onorato (2013) suggested that modern-day society demands that educational

leaders make greater efforts to manage their operations to ensure superior performance by their students, which often requires that top decision-makers in school settings embrace a transformational approach to their work. This type of effort includes the commitment on the part of educational leaders to help their stakeholders prepare to address issues of social justice and discrimination within the curriculum (Diem, & Carpenter, 2012). In this study, male and female MBA students reported similar scores in terms of leadership self-efficacy, which will hopefully translate into future balanced opportunities for top management positions among individuals from both genders in the sample.

However, this is not the only goal. To make a significant impact on the problem of underrepresentation of women in leadership roles in Mexico, MBA students like the ones in the sample will require an increase in awareness and understanding of the importance of promoting social justice and preventing discrimination of any kind. Then, they might be able to apply their knowledge to their current and future work environments, and behave accordingly. This type of educational experience requires great efforts on the part of educational leaders and faculty. Their work in bridging theory and practice on matters of diversity and social justice can lead them to implement a transformational approach to education, which will help move their students from in-class lectures and discussion to action in the field (Boske, 2012).

### **Top Organizational Managers**

It was noted in Chapter 2 that organizational cultures that engage in practices that prevent women from achieving a favorable work-life balance contribute to the problem of

female underrepresentation in leadership roles in Mexico (Castro, 2012). Although it is seldom acknowledged, this type of culture, which favors the notion of the ideal worker, negatively affects males, too (Sallee, 2012). Sallee (2012) argued that men who comply with organizational demands that prevent them from balancing their professional and personal lives are deprived from worthwhile experiences involving fatherhood and other interpersonal associations. This type of problem is likely to receive even less attention when it affects males than when females are forced to make the choice between advancing in their careers and being available to their families.

Nonetheless, organizational cultures that promote the notion of the ideal worker affect both males and females. Since legislation has failed to significantly address the issue in many places around the world (Block, Park, & Kang, 2013), it may be up to organizational leaders to develop work cultures that allow for the creation and support of successful careers without having employees make unreasonable personal sacrifices, which may lead to the sustained gender gap in leadership.

Males and females in the sample for this study are vulnerable to the negative aspects associated with organizations that operate with expectations based on the ideal worker. They are, however, potential change agents. Their education levels and transformational leadership practices, measured through the LPI Self for the purposes of this study, make them viable candidates to rise to top management roles in their organizations now or in the future.

Transformational leadership is associated with organizational change (Şimşek, 2013). Top managers who adopt a transformational approach to lead their followers tend to be more successful in managing diversity within their organizations (Ng & Sears, 2012). The findings of this study suggest that MBA students, both male and female, can be effective transformational leaders. Efforts made by educational leaders may be valuable in promoting awareness and understanding on issues of diversity among future leaders.

Moreover, organizational leaders who recruit, train, and promote MBA students like the ones in the sample for this study have a responsibility to create work environments where individuals can behave in a manner consistent with their values and beliefs, without being penalized or discriminated against. The organizational leaders are also responsible for making sure that unreasonable expectations that fit the profile of the ideal worker do not inhibit potential leaders, male or female, from rising to top management positions where they can influence others to perform beyond expectations. Rather than rewarding workers based on increased availability, establishing an objective, merit-based policy for promotion can provide a more balanced and productive work environment where the problem of female underrepresentation may be more readily addressed (Charlo Molina, & Núñez Torrado, 2012).

### **A Joint Call to Action.**

The challenge of addressing female underrepresentation in leadership roles is a great one. No one group of individuals can undertake it in isolation. The proposed call to

action described in the previous paragraphs involves three main stakeholders: aspiring female leaders, educational leaders, and top organizational managers. These groups of individuals have a clear stake in promoting gender equity in top seats in all kinds of organizations.

Aspiring female leaders can move to action by becoming aware that transformational leadership behaviors are consistent with the talent needs of modern-day organizations and that several studies conducted so far support the thesis that males and females engage similarly on these types of behaviors. This could give them the confidence to seek and negotiate top management positions where their talents are applicable without having to deal with misguided notions that leadership tasks are more readily aligned with traditionally masculine characteristics or behaviors.

Educational leaders can contribute to closing the gender gap in leadership roles by encouraging their students to assess their own leadership capabilities and discussing questions regarding the role of diversity in organizations and society in general. Educators can adopt a transformational approach themselves by helping their students, administrators, and faculty move beyond the classroom to engage in social and organizational issues regarding gender discrimination in their communities.

Top organizational managers can benefit from the data derived from this study and from information made available through other studies that measured the relationship between gender and transformational leadership practices. The consistency in the results

could help them better understand the fact that women can be effective leaders, and that having a diverse leadership team can help improve organizational performance.

Top organizational managers can also recognize the need to adopt a transformational approach themselves, which could lead to the establishment of merit-based policies to reward individuals. This would contrast organizational cultures that are characterized by the persistence of challenges associated with the ideal worker, which hurts male and female workers and inhibit organizational diversity and performance.

Therefore, the findings presented in this study can be used by individuals to make the argument for transformational leadership effectiveness and gender diversity. The three groups described in the previous paragraphs have a role in helping to close the gender gap by adopting a transformational leadership approach in the way they conduct themselves, their schools, and their companies.

### **Recommendations for Further Research**

The information examined throughout this study concerns implicit discrimination practices and long-held misconceptions regarding the masculine qualities of leaders that have prevented qualified female workers from reaching top management positions. The focus of this study was on internal factors that may have contributed to female underrepresentation in leadership roles. The results suggested that no such factor seems to be relevant for the sample under study. This finding yields recommendations for further research.

First, future studies could be developed to look at different segments of the population to determine whether the findings presented here hold true. The individuals who participated in this study were male and female MBA students. While no statistically significant findings were found between these two groups, it is possible that differences may exist among male and female middle managers, or any other group that may also be in a position to claim a top management position in the future. It has been made clear that few studies on gender and transformational leadership dimensions have been conducted in Mexico.

Second, this study presented findings in terms of leadership self-efficacy for the individuals in the sample. Leadership self-efficacy is an internal factor that proved not to be significant. However, researchers have argued that data from self-reports can be biased and misleading, and recommended that observer information be used in conjunction (Brandt & Laiho, 2013; MacKie, 2015). The LPI is also available in an Observer version, which could facilitate this type of research endeavor.

Moreover, the Cronbach alpha coefficient for the enable others to act leadership dimension was slightly below the .70 norm. Although the Spanish version of the LPI has yielded acceptable reliability coefficients in the past (Posner, 2016), future studies using this version of the LPI may serve to provide further analysis of reliability for the questionnaire.

One aspect of concern that may prove to be relevant as the study of leadership and gender gains traction in Mexico is the demographic change that is taking place.

Researchers have noted that leadership approach is influenced by generational circumstances (Holden & Raffo, 2014; Murray & Chua, 2014), and that younger generations from different geographical regions may be converging in terms of their values and how they perceive the role of women in society (Bejarano, Manzano, & Montoya, 2011).

Since this study did not account for age differences, it is recommended that future studies address potential correlations in transformational leadership practices and age groups. These groups could be separated into baby boomer, generation X, and generation Y cohorts. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire may be a more appropriate research instrument to conduct a study of this sort given its wider range of leadership behaviors.

This study could have been appropriate for comparing transformational leadership practices between groups from two cultures, addressing the suggestions put forth by Bejarano et al, (2011). The city of Tijuana, Baja California, Mexico, is located right at the United States-Mexico border. An opportunity to collect LPI Self scores from male and female MBA students from the city of San Diego, California, and compare them with the results from this study could have been exploited. This would have gone beyond the expressed purpose of the study, but future research could build on the data presented here to develop a bi-cultural study, which would certainly be of value to international organizations and educational leaders who operate in the region.

This study was developed by gathering data from MBA students enrolled in three different schools. No efforts were made to compare mean scores among students from all

three schools to determine whether educational environment or philosophy could influence leadership self-efficacy. This would have been outside the intended purpose of this study and the terms stated on the organizational consent forms (Appendix B) signed by the three program administrators who participated in the study. However, this type of research would make an interesting area for future research. Therefore, it is recommended that future studies be developed to examine the same variables as the present study, but in different settings.

### **Concluding Statement**

Female MBA students in the city of Tijuana, Baja California, Mexico, provided similar LPI Self scores than their male colleagues for each of the five practices of exemplary leadership developed by Kouzes and Posner (2012). The implications of this finding affect the way individuals, educational institutions, and companies may approach the problem of female underrepresentation in leadership roles. After reviewing the literature on leadership and gender in Mexico, it could be concluded that there is still much to learn. While it is well understood that top management roles are still disproportionately dominated by men without any objective and clear justification, strategies to correct the situation have not been adequately articulated or implemented.

Hopefully, this study will represent one step toward a better understanding of the problem of underrepresentation of women in leadership roles. Also, it may provide an actionable framework meant to correct the imbalance. Even if all it does is provoke discussion among academics who can later challenge the views expressed throughout this

document, it will eventually lead to more just, adaptive, and high-performance work environments in Mexico.

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**APPENDIX A**

**Institutional Review Board Letter of Approval**

**Institutional Review Board  
Certificate of Approval  
IRB ID# Diaz\_Grow051216**

Principal Investigator (if faculty research)  
Student Researcher: Eduardo Diaz  
Faculty Advisor: Arron Grow  
Department: SAL

Title: Relationship Between Gender and Transformational Leadership Practices: A Study of Self Reports of Male and Female Business Graduate Students

Approved on: May 12, 2016  
Renewal Date: May 12, 2017

Full Board Meeting X  
Expedited Review (US)  
Delegated Review (Can)  
Exempt

**CERTIFICATION**

City University of Seattle has reviewed the above-named research project. The proposal was found to be acceptable on ethical grounds. The Faculty Advisor Arron Grow and the student researcher Eduardo Diaz have the responsibility for any other administrative or regulatory approvals that may pertain to this research project, and for ensuring that the authorized research is carried out according to the conditions outlined in the original Ethics Review Protocol submitted for ethics review. This Certificate of Approval is valid for the above time period provided there is no change in experimental protocol, consent process or documents.

Any significant changes to your proposed method, or your consent and recruitment procedures should be reported to the Chair of the Institutional Review Board's consideration in advance of its implementation.

**ONGOING REVIEW REQUIREMENTS**

In order to receive annual renewal, a status report must be submitted to the IRB Chair for Board consideration within one month of the current expiry date each year the study remains open, and upon study completion.

Brian Guthrie Ph D, RSW, Member of Clinical Registry  
Chair IRB City University of Seattle  
"Connect Early and Connect Often"  
[bguthrie@cityu.edu](mailto:bguthrie@cityu.edu)

**APPENDIX B**

**Organizational Consent Form**



Name of Organization

Address

City, State, Zip

Telephone

By signing this consent form, I understand that Eduardo R. Diaz (the researcher) is a candidate for an advanced degree, or a faculty member of City University of Seattle. I understand that the researcher is conducting a study entitled Relationship between Gender and Transformational Leadership Practices: A Study of Self Reports of Male and Female Business Graduate Students. The purpose of this study is to identify possible correlation between gender and transformational leadership through the use of the LPI Self.

I understand that the findings of this research study are solely the responsibility of the researcher. It is understood that any and all information/data the researcher collects from contacts within and/or about our organization outside the research protocol will not be part of the research findings. I understand that the researcher may publish findings following completion of this study. Any information published will be limited to the findings of the research. No research participants will participate in this study without organization and City University of Seattle Institutional Review Board (IRB) knowledge and approval.

- I grant the researcher permission to contact members of the organization for the purpose of requesting participation for the study as required by the research design.
- I grant the researcher permission to use organizational premises as necessary to conduct the research.
- I grant the researcher permission to collect, use, and store documentation related to the project under study. I understand that in granting permission to access program documentation, the researcher may store copies in a secure manner outside the organization.
- The researcher will maintain all documentation and findings regarding this organization in confidence and confine its use to this research study.
- On behalf of the organization, I request a final copy of this research report.

\_\_\_\_\_  
Organizational Representative and Signature      Date

Print Name and Title

Organization

Name of Research Supervisor and Advisor: Dr. Arron P. Grow

Contact Information: 1-888-422-4898; agrow@cityu.edu

**APPENDIX C**

**Participant Consent Form**



School/Division of Applied Leadership

**CITYU RESEARCH PARTICIPANT INFORMED CONSENT**

I, \_\_\_\_\_, agree to participate in the following research project to be conducted by Eduardo R. Diaz, student, in the Ed. D. Program. I understand this research study has been approved by the City University of Seattle Institutional Review Board.

I acknowledge that I have received a copy of this consent form, signed by all persons involved. I further acknowledge that I have been provided an overview of the research protocol as well as a detailed explanation of the informed consent process.

Title of Project:

Relationship between Gender and Transformational Leadership Practices: A Study of Self Reports of Male and Female Business Graduate Students

Name and Title of Researcher(s): Eduardo R. Diaz

For Student Researcher(s):

Faculty Supervisor: Arron P. Grow

Department: School of Applied Leadership

Telephone: 1-888-422-4898

E-mail: agrow@cityu.edu

Program Coordinator (or Program Director): Dr. Kelly Flores

Purpose of Study:

The purpose of this proposed study is to gather data from male and female Master's in Business students in the city of Tijuana, Baja California, Mexico, to identify possible correlations between gender and transformational leadership through the use of the LPI® Self. The results of the study will help determine whether perceived differences between males and females in terms of transformational leadership may help explain why women continue to be underrepresented in leadership positions

Research Participation:

I understand I am being asked to participate in this study in one or more of the following ways (the checked options below apply):

- Respond to in-person and/or telephone Interview questions;  
Answer written questionnaire(s);
- Participate in other data gathering activities, specifically, \_\_\_\_\_;
- Other, specifically, \_\_\_\_\_.

I further understand that my involvement is voluntary and I may refuse to participate or withdraw my participation at any time without negative consequences. I have been advised that I may request a copy of the final research study report. Should I request a copy, I understand I may be asked to pay the costs of photocopying and mailing.

### Confidentiality

I understand that participation is confidential to the limits of applicable privacy laws. No one except the faculty researcher or student researcher, his/her supervisor and Program Coordinator (or Program Director) will be allowed to view any information or data collected whether by questionnaire, interview and/or other means. If the student researcher's cooperating classroom teacher will also have access to raw data, the following box will be checked.  All data (the questionnaires, audio/video tapes, typed records of the interview, interview notes, informed consent forms, computer discs, any backup of computer discs and any other storage devices) are kept locked and password protected by the researcher. The research data will be stored for 5 years. At the end of that time all data of whatever nature will be permanently destroyed. The published results of the study will contain data from which no individual participant can be identified.

### Signatures

I have carefully reviewed and understand this consent form. I understand the description of the research protocol and consent process provided to me by the researcher. My signature on this form indicates that I understand to my satisfaction the information provided to me about my participation in this research project. My signature also indicates that I have been apprised of the potential risks involved in my participation. Lastly, my signature indicates that I agree to participate as a research subject.

My consent to participate does not waive my legal rights nor release the researchers, sponsors, and/or City University of Seattle from their legal and professional responsibilities with respect to this research. I understand I am free to withdraw from this research project at any time. I further understand that I may ask for clarification or new information throughout my participation at any time during this research.

Participant's Name: \_\_\_\_\_

Please Print

Participant's Signature: \_\_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_\_\_

Researcher's Name: Eduardo R. Diaz

Researcher's Signature: \_\_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_\_\_

If I have any questions about this research, I have been advised to contact the researcher and/or his/her supervisor, as listed on page one of this consent form.

Should I have any concerns about the way I have been treated as a research participant, I may contact the following individual(s):

Dr. Kelly Flores, Program Coordinator (and/or Program Director), City University of Seattle, at 521 Wall St. Seattle, WA, 98121, 206-239-4769, [kflores@cityu.edu](mailto:kflores@cityu.edu)

**APPENDIX D**

**LPI Permission Letter**

September 29, 2015

Eduardo Diaz  
628 ½ E. San Ysidro Bl. #880  
San Ysidro, CA 92173

Dear Mr. Diaz:

Thank you for your request to use the LPI®: Leadership Practices Inventory® in your dissertation. This letter grants you permission to use either the print or electronic LPI [Self/Observer/Self and Observer] instrument[s] in your research. You may reproduce the instrument in printed form at no charge beyond the discounted one-time cost of purchasing a single copy; however, you may not distribute any photocopies except for specific research purposes. If you prefer to use the electronic distribution of the LPI you will need to separately contact Eli Becker (ebecker@wiley.com) directly for further details regarding product access and payment. Please be sure to review the product information resources before reaching out with pricing questions.

Permission to use either the written or electronic versions is contingent upon the following:

- (1) The LPI may be used only for research purposes and may not be sold or used in conjunction with any compensated activities;
- (2) Copyright in the LPI, and all derivative works based on the LPI, is retained by James M. Kouzes and Barry Z. Posner. The following copyright statement must be included on all reproduced copies of the instrument(s); "Copyright © 2013 James M. Kouzes and Barry Z. Posner. Published by John Wiley & Sons, Inc. All rights reserved. Used with permission";
- (3) One (1) electronic copy of your dissertation and one (1) copy of all papers, reports, articles, and the like which make use of the LPI data must be sent promptly to my attention at the address below; and,
- (4) We have the right to include the results of your research in publication, promotion, distribution and sale of the LPI and all related products.

Permission is limited to the rights granted in this letter and does not include the right to grant others permission to reproduce the instrument(s) except for versions made by nonprofit organizations for visually or physically handicapped persons. No additions or changes may be made without our prior written consent. You understand that your use of the LPI shall in no way place the LPI in the public domain or in any way compromise our copyright in the LPI. This license is nontransferable. We reserve the right to revoke this permission at any time, effective upon written notice to you, in the event we conclude, in our reasonable judgment, that your use of the LPI is compromising our proprietary rights in the LPI.

Best wishes for every success with your research project.

Cordially,



Ellen Peterson  
Permissions Editor  
Epeterson4@gmail.com

**APPENDIX E**

**LPI Self Spanish Version with Instructions**

## INVENTARIO DE PRÁCTICAS DE LIDERAZGO (IPL) AUTOEVALUACIÓN INSTRUCCIONES

Por favor indique cuál es su género y escuela. Después, lea las treinta afirmaciones planteadas en la siguiente página. Después utilice la escala de calificación para determinar con qué frecuencia muestra el comportamiento descrito.

Escala de calificación:

- 1 = Casi nunca
- 2 = Rara vez
- 3 = Pocas veces
- 4 = De vez en cuando
- 5 = Ocasionalmente
- 6 = A veces
- 7 = Con frecuencia
- 8 = Usualmente
- 9 = Con mucha frecuencia
- 10 = Casi siempre

Por favor sea realista en la medida en que usted muestra realmente el comportamiento. No responda en términos de cómo le gustaría comportarse o en términos de cómo piensa que debería comportarse. Responda en términos de cómo se comporta usted generalmente la mayoría del tiempo, en la mayoría de los proyectos y con la mayoría de las personas.

Piense bien en sus respuestas, por ejemplo, si se otorga 10 en todos los puntos, seguramente no dará una descripción precisa de su comportamiento. En forma similar, si se otorga usted 1 o 5 en todas las afirmaciones, seguramente tampoco dará una descripción precisa. La mayoría de las personas hacen algunas cosas con mayor o menor frecuencia en comparación con otras cosas.

Si cree que hay alguna afirmación que cree que no aplica, probablemente se debe a que usted no muestra ese comportamiento con frecuencia. En ese caso, asígnese una calificación de 3 o menos.

Para cada afirmación, escoja una respuesta y luego ingrese el número correspondiente en el casillero que aparece a la derecha de cada afirmación. Después de responder a las treinta afirmaciones, revise su cuestionario una vez más para asegurarse de haber respondido a cada afirmación. Cada afirmación debe tener una calificación. Al terminar de llenar su cuestionario, por favor entréguelo al evaluador. Gracias.

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## INVENTARIO DE PRÁCTICAS DE LIDERAZGO (IPL) AUTOEVALUACIÓN

Por favor indique si es **hombre** o **mujer**: \_\_\_\_\_

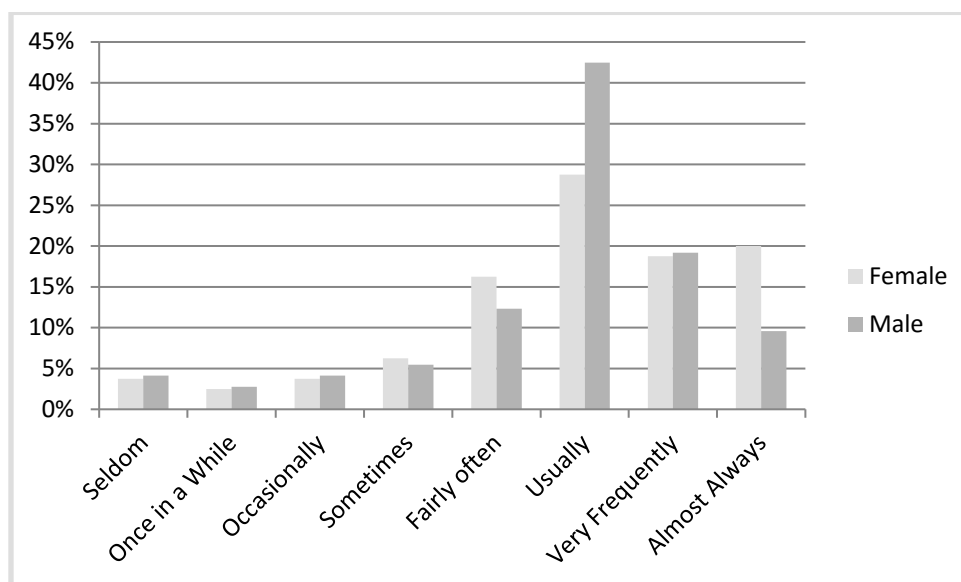
Por favor escriba el nombre de su escuela: \_\_\_\_\_

1. Casi nunca	3. Pocas veces	5. Ocasionalmente	7. Con frecuencia	9. Con mucha frecuencia
2. Rara vez	4. De vez en cuando	6. A veces	8. Usualmente	10. Casi siempre

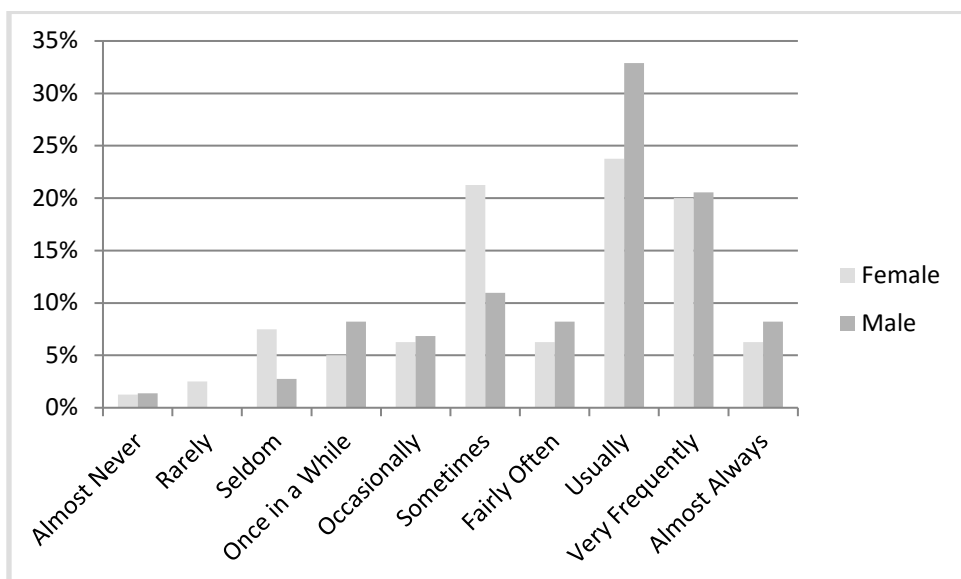
#	Afirmaciones	Puntos
1	Pongo el ejemplo personal de lo que espero de los demás.	
2	Hablo de las tendencias futuras que influirán en la forma en que llevamos a cabo nuestro trabajo.	
3	Busco oportunidades desafiantes para probar mis propias habilidades y capacidades.	
4	Desarrollo relaciones cooperativas entre las personas con las que trabajo.	
5	Elogio a las personas por un trabajo bien hecho.	
6	Dedico tiempo y energía en asegurarme de que las personas con las que trabajo cumplan con los principios y estándares acordados.	
7	Describo una imagen convincente de cómo podría ser nuestro futuro.	
8	Desafío a las personas a que intenten formas nuevas e innovadoras para hacer su trabajo.	
9	Escucho atentamente los diversos puntos de vista.	
10	Le doy importancia al hecho de comunicarles a las personas que confío en sus capacidades.	
11	Cumplo con las promesas y los compromisos que asumo.	
12	Apelo a los demás a compartir sueños emocionantes sobre el futuro.	
13	Busco fuera de las fronteras formales de mi organización maneras innovadoras de mejorar lo que hacemos.	
14	Trato a las personas con dignidad y respeto.	
15	Me aseguro de recompensar a las personas de forma creativa por sus aportaciones a nuestro éxito.	
16	Solicita comentarios sobre cómo sus acciones afectan el rendimiento de los demás.	
17	Les indico a los demás cómo pueden concretar sus intereses a largo plazo inscribiéndose en una visión compartida.	
18	Pregunto "¿Qué podemos aprender?" cuando las cosas no resultan como se esperaba.	
19	Respaldo las decisiones que las personas toman por su cuenta.	
20	Reconozco públicamente a las personas que marcan un ejemplo de compromiso con los valores compartidos.	
21	Creo consenso sobre un conjunto común de valores para administrar nuestra organización.	
22	Comunico una "visión global" de nuestras aspiraciones de logro.	
23	Me aseguro de que fijemos objetivos alcanzables, planes concretos e hitos medibles con relación a los proyectos iniciados.	
24	Brindo a los demás libertad y posibilidad de elección en cuanto a cómo hacer su trabajo.	
25	Encuentro la forma de celebrar los logros.	
26	Soy claro/a sobre mi filosofía de liderazgo.	
27	Hablo con verdadera convicción sobre la gran importancia y el propósito de nuestro trabajo.	
28	Experimento y asumo riesgos, aun cuando hay posibilidades de fracaso.	
29	Me aseguro de que las personas crezcan en sus trabajos a través del aprendizaje de nuevos conocimientos y el desarrollo personal.	
30	Brindo reconocimiento y gran apoyo a los miembros del equipo por sus aportaciones.	

**APPENDIX F**

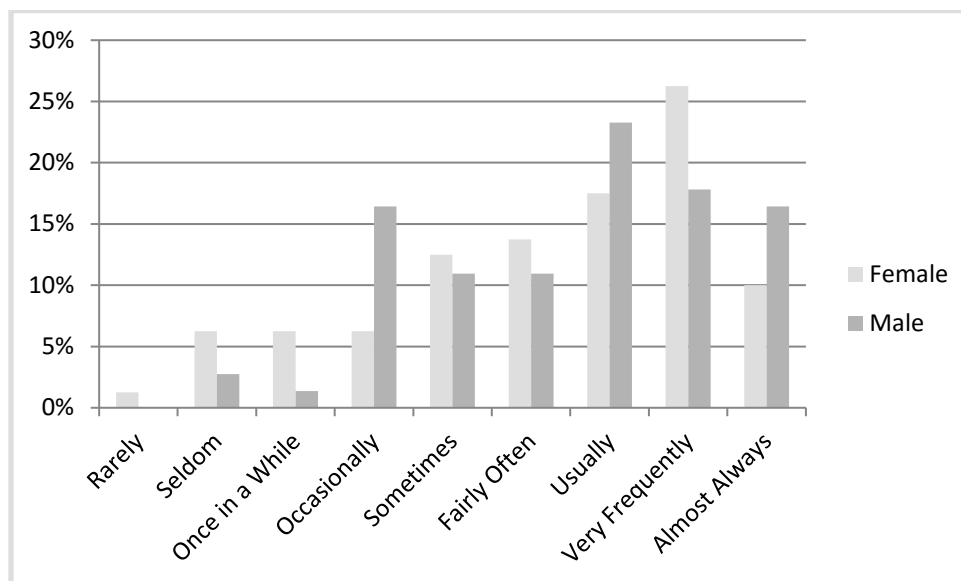
**LPI Self Responses Expressed in Percentages**



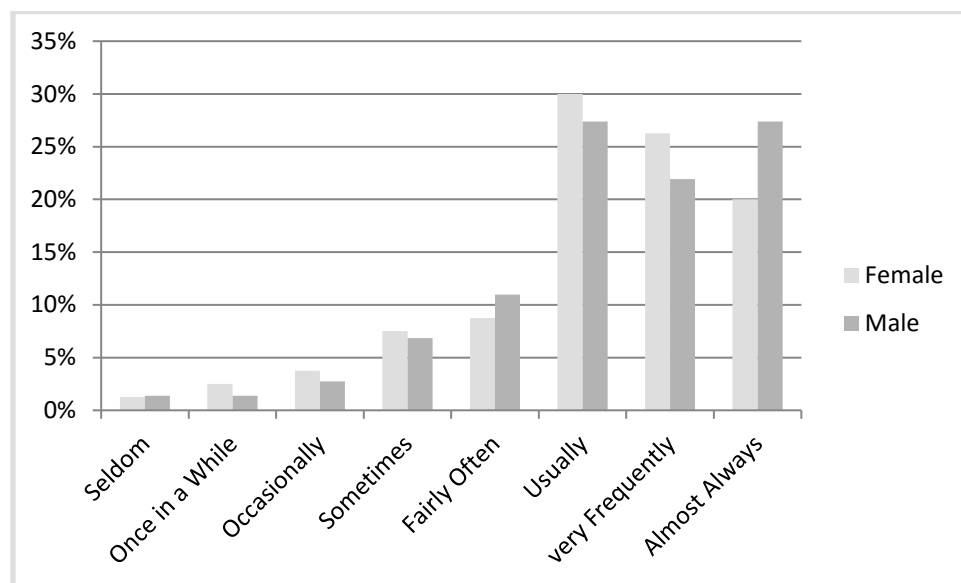
*Figure F1.* Male and female responses expressed in percentages to item #1 in the LPI  
Self: I set a personal example of what I expect of others.



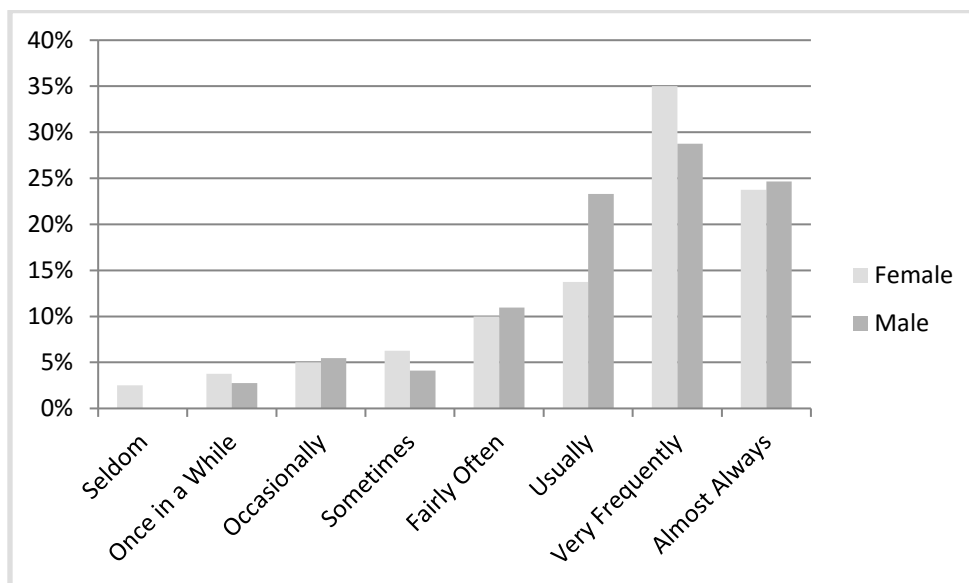
*Figure F2.* Male and female responses expressed in percentages to item #2 in the LPI  
Self: I talk about future trends that will influence how our work gets done.



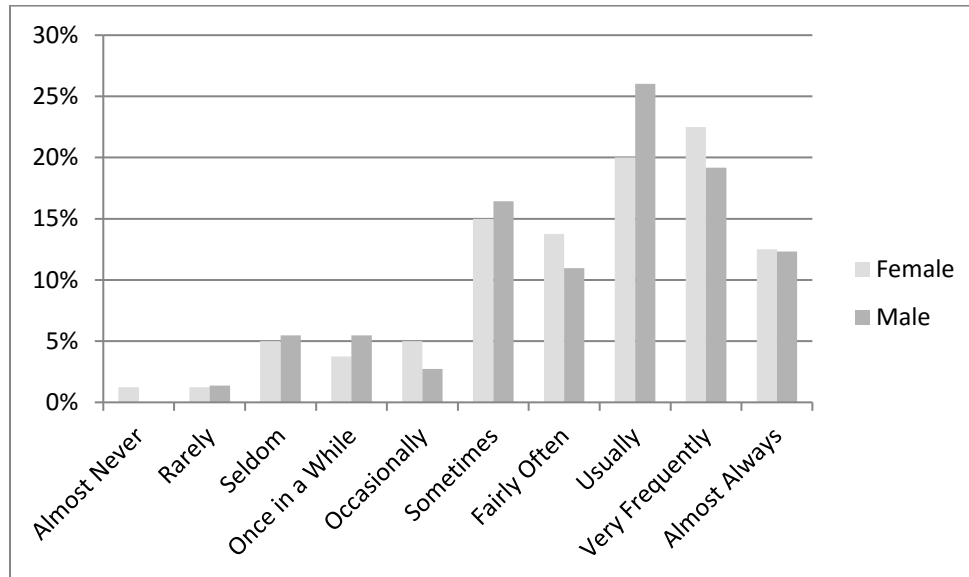
*Figure F3.* Male and female responses expressed in percentages to item #3 in the LPI  
Self: I seek out challenging opportunities that test my own skills and abilities.



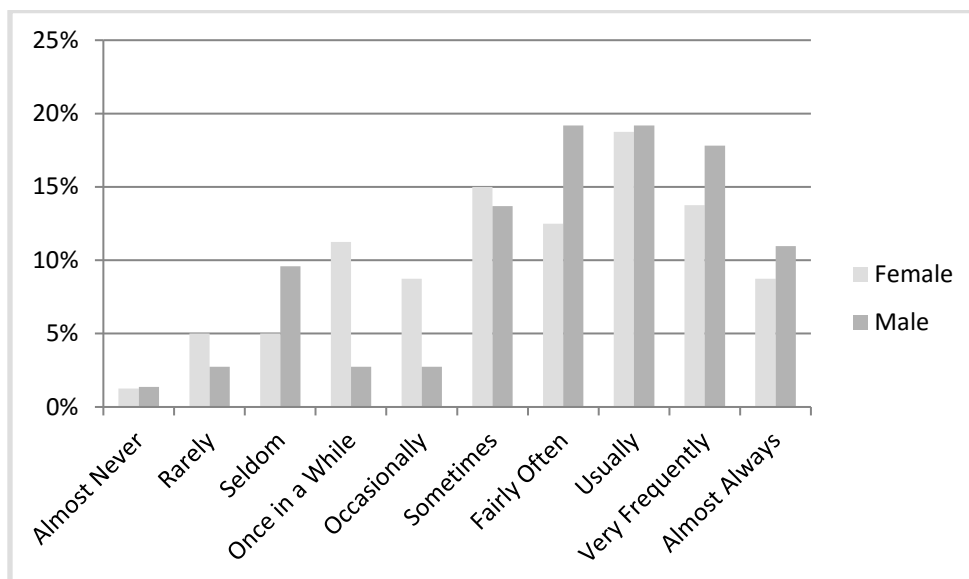
*Figure F4.* Male and female responses expressed in percentages to item #4 in the LPI  
Self: I develop cooperative relationships among the people I work with.



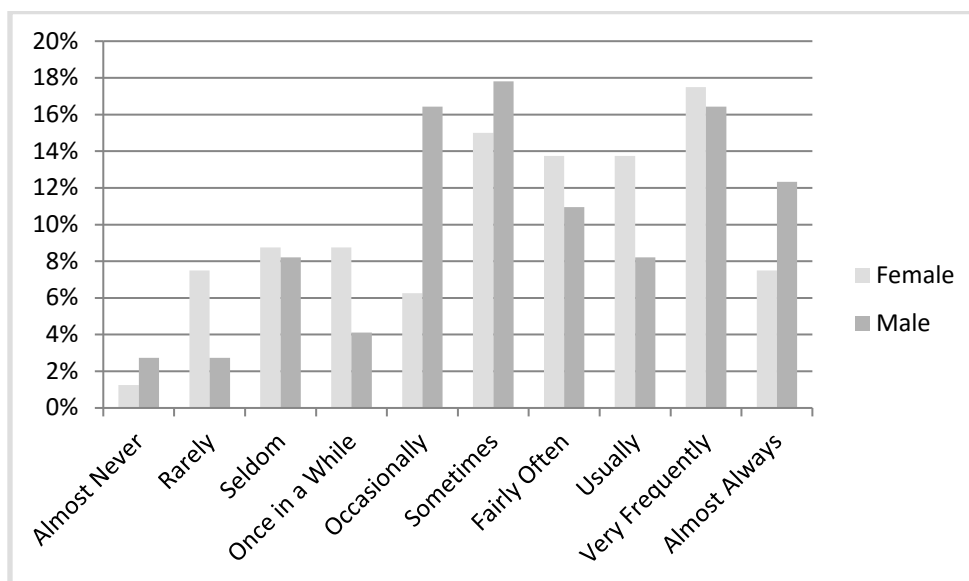
*Figure F5.* Male and female responses expressed in percentages to item #5 in the LPI  
Self: I praise people for a job well done.



*Figure F6.* Male and female responses expressed in percentages to item #6 in the LPI  
Self: I spend time and energy making certain that the people I work with adhere to the principles and standards we have agreed on.



*Figure F7.* Male and female responses expressed in percentages to item #7 in the LPI  
Self: I describe a compelling image of what our future could be like.



*Figure F8.* Male and female responses expressed in percentages to item #8 in the LPI  
Self: I challenge people to try out new and innovative ways to do their work.

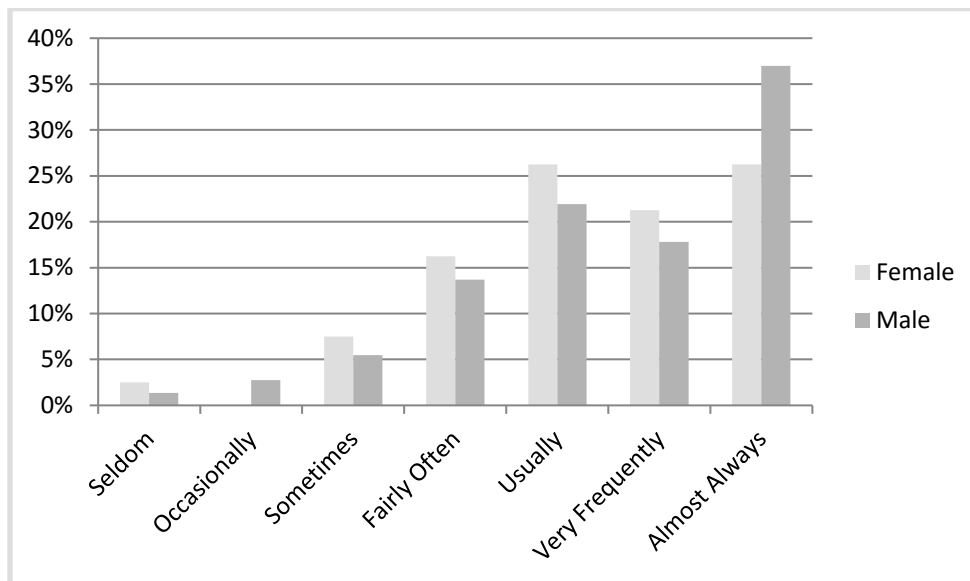


Figure F9. Male and female responses expressed in percentages to item #9 in the LPI Self: I actively listen to diverse points of view.

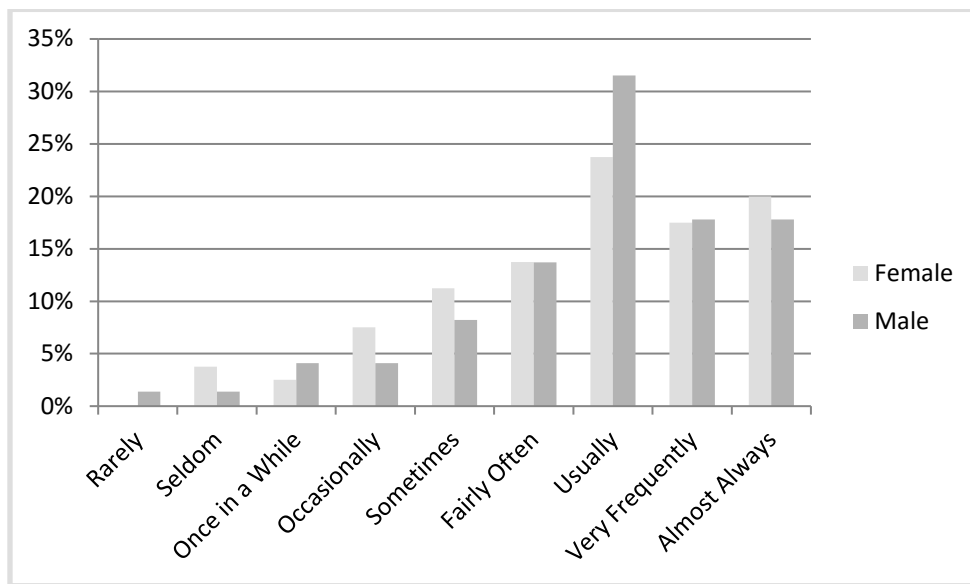
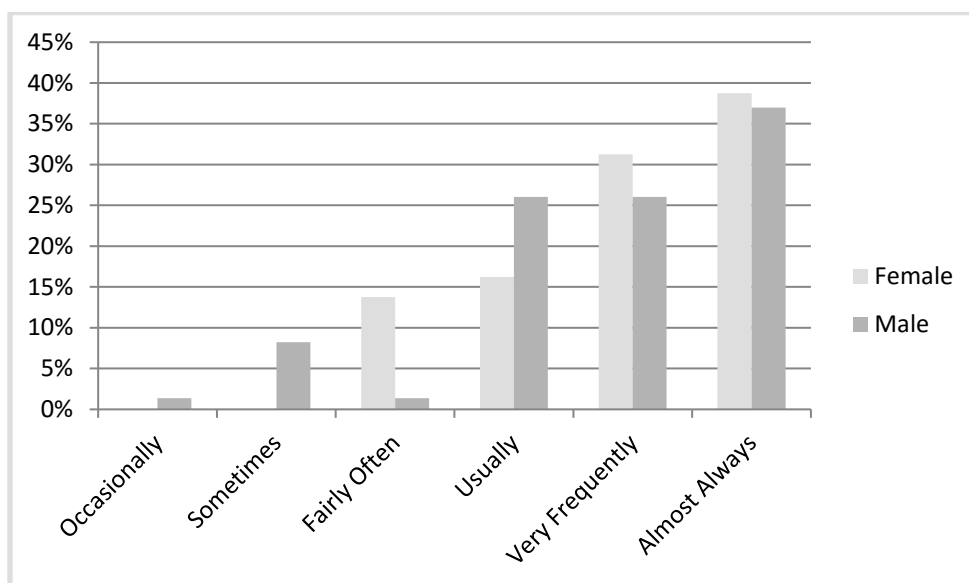
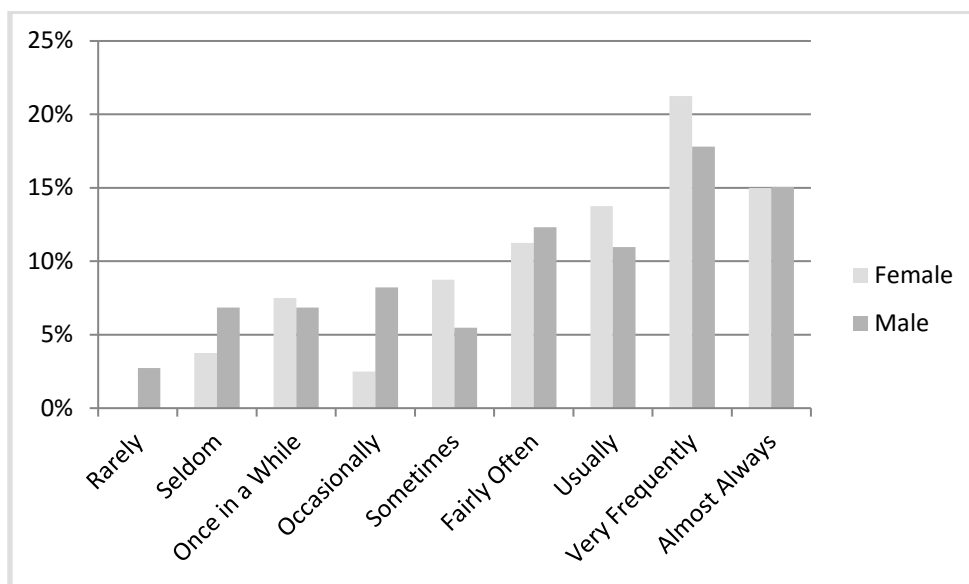


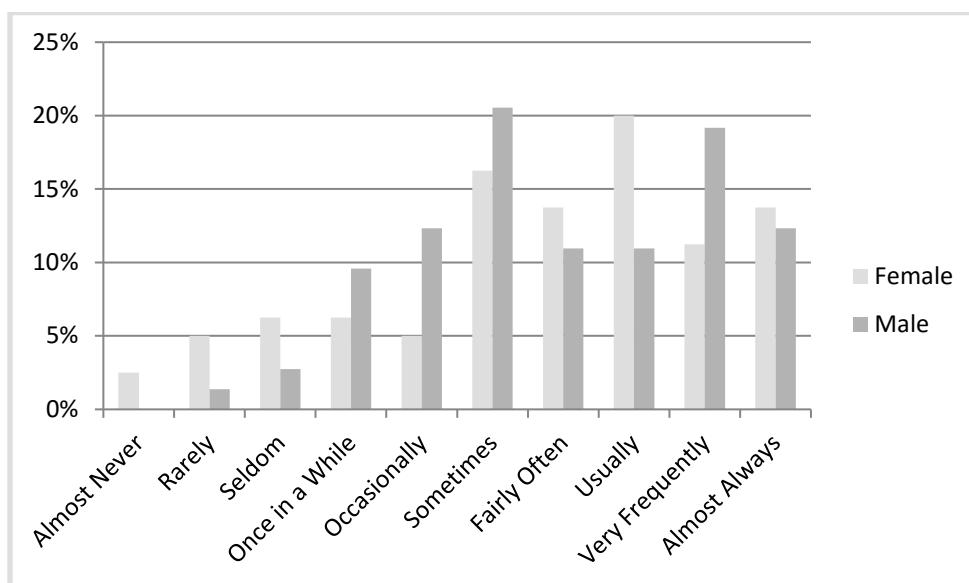
Figure F10. Male and female responses expressed in percentages to item #10 in the LPI Self: I make it a point to let people know about my confidence in their abilities.



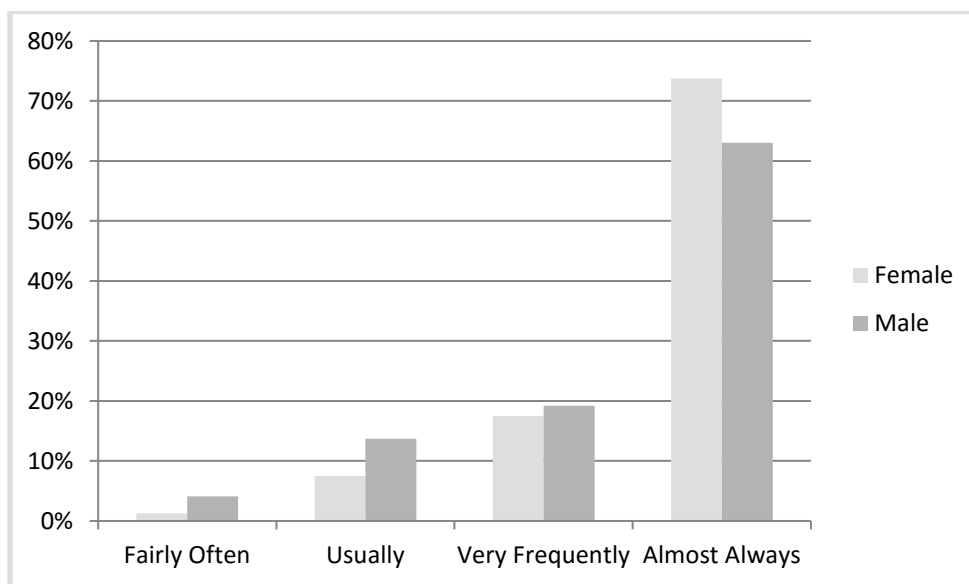
*Figure F11.* Male and female responses expressed in percentages to item #11 in the LPI  
Self: I follow through on the promises and commitments that I make.



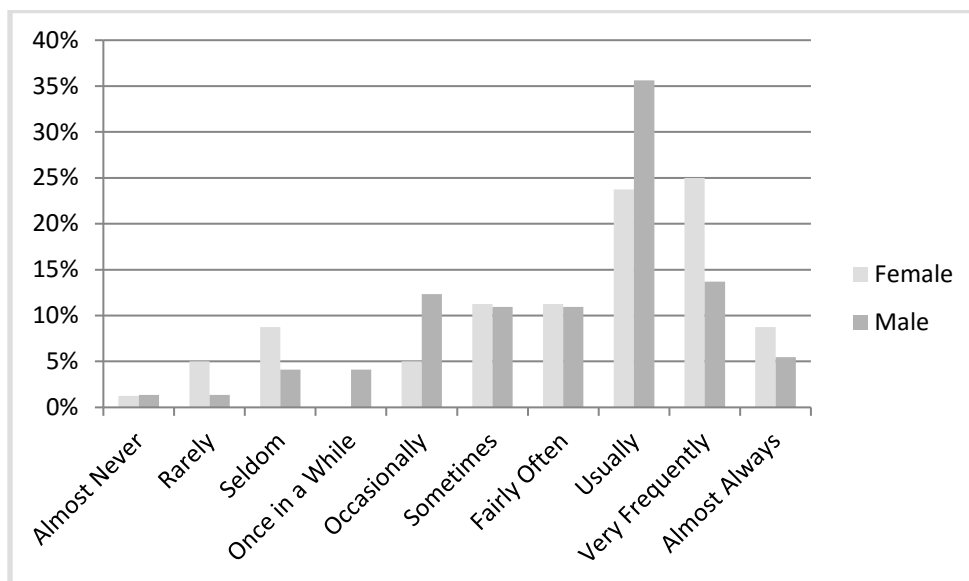
*Figure F12.* Male and female responses expressed in percentages to item #12 in the LPI  
Self: I appeal to others to share an exciting dream of the future.



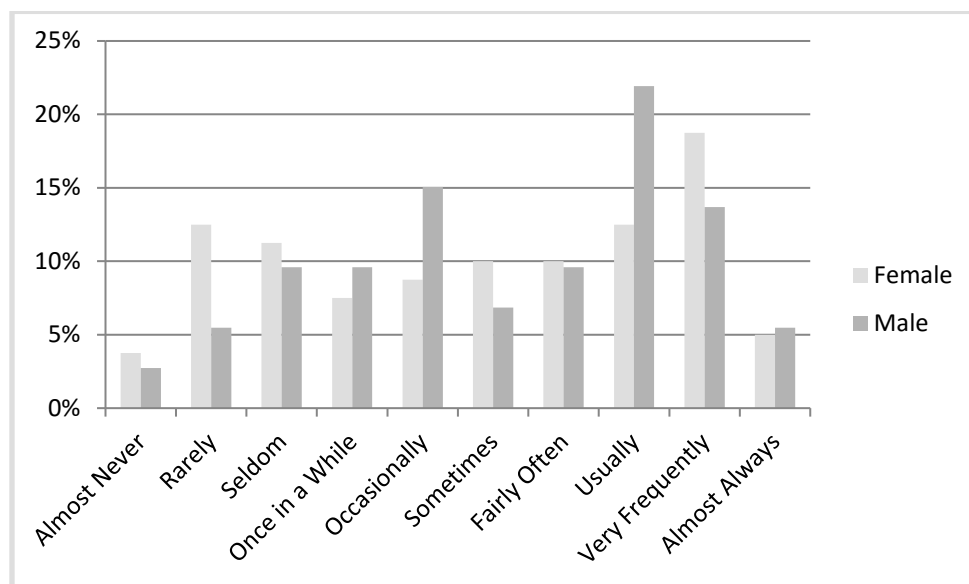
*Figure F13.* Male and female responses expressed in percentages to item #13 in the LPI  
Self: I search outside the formal boundaries of my organization for innovative ways to improve what we do.



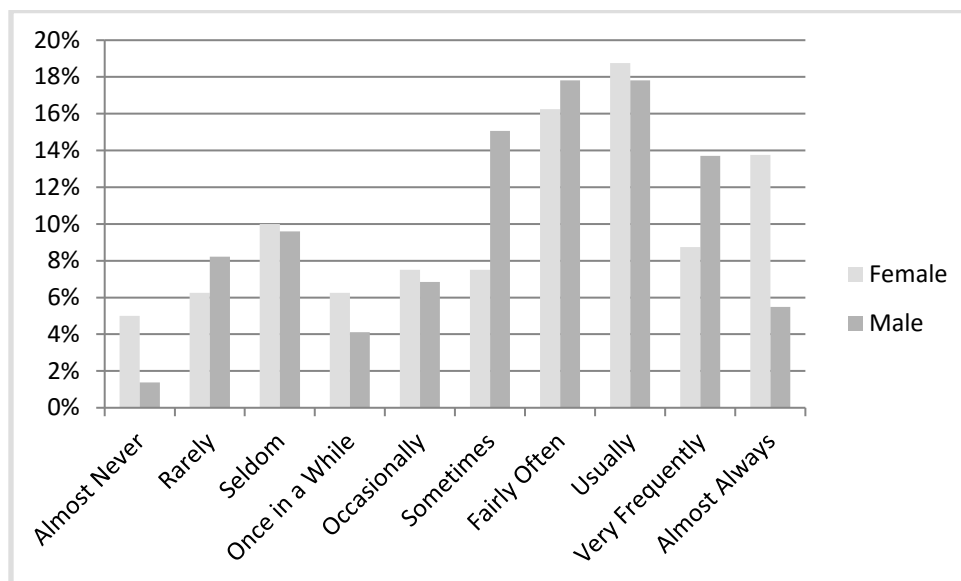
*Figure F14.* Male and female responses expressed in percentages to item #14 in the LPI  
Self: I treat others with dignity and respect.



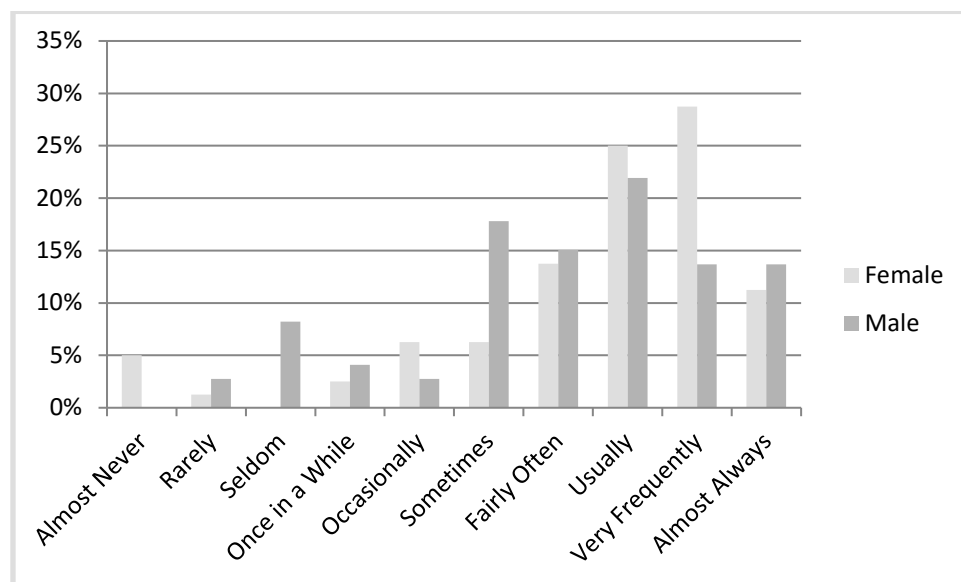
*Figure F15.* Male and female responses expressed in percentages to item #15 in the LPI  
 Self: I make sure that people are creatively rewarded for their contributions to the success of our projects.



*Figure F16.* Male and female responses expressed in percentages to item #16 in the LPI  
 Self: I ask for feedback on how my actions affect other people's performance.



*Figure F17.* Male and female responses expressed in percentages to item #17 in the LPI Self: I show others how their long-term interests can be realized by enlisting in a common vision.



*Figure F18.* Male and female responses expressed in percentages to item #18 in the LPI Self: I ask "What can we learn?" when things don't go as expected.

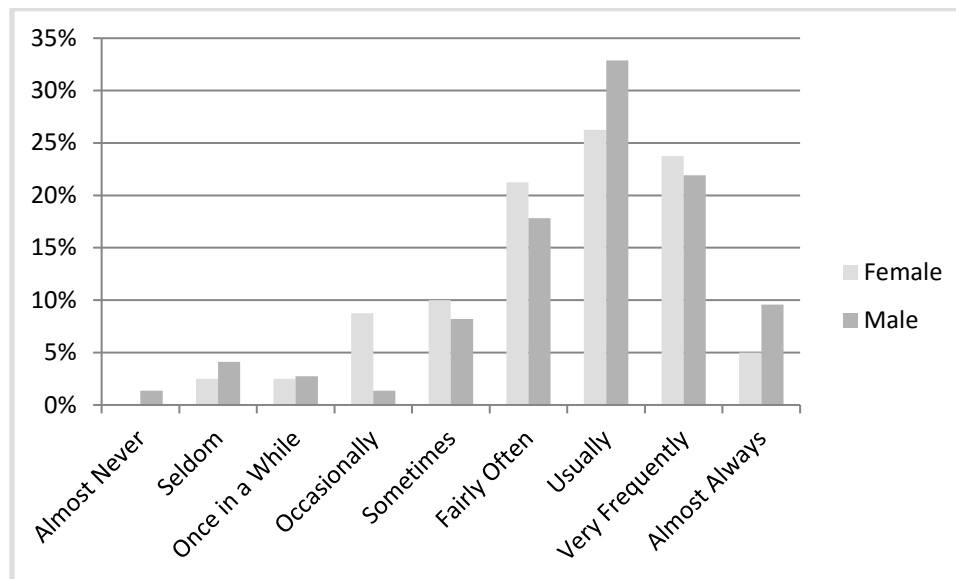


Figure F19. Male and female responses expressed in percentages to item #19 in the LPI  
 Self: I support the decisions that people make on their own.

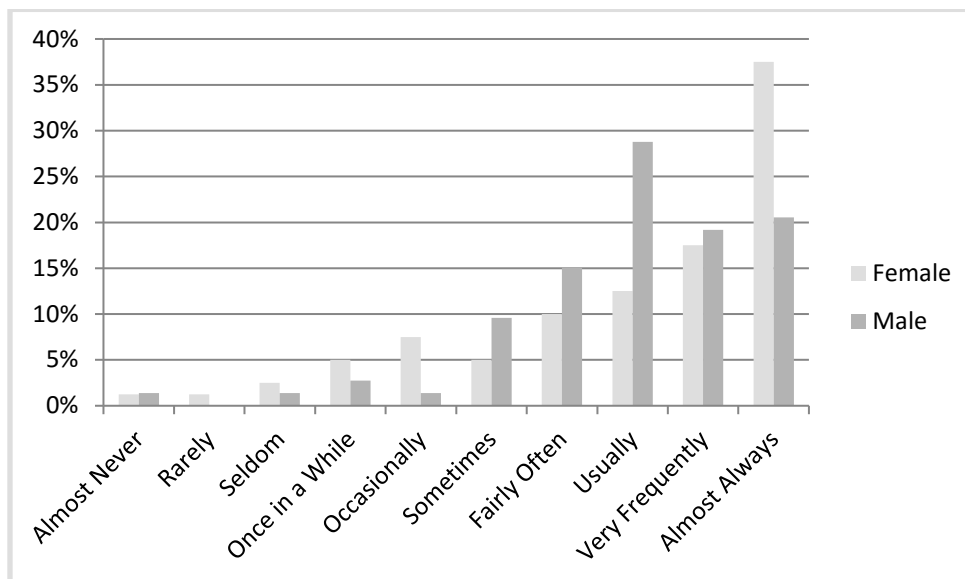


Figure F20. Male and female responses expressed in percentages to item #20 in the LPI  
 Self: I publicly recognize people who exemplify commitment to shared values.

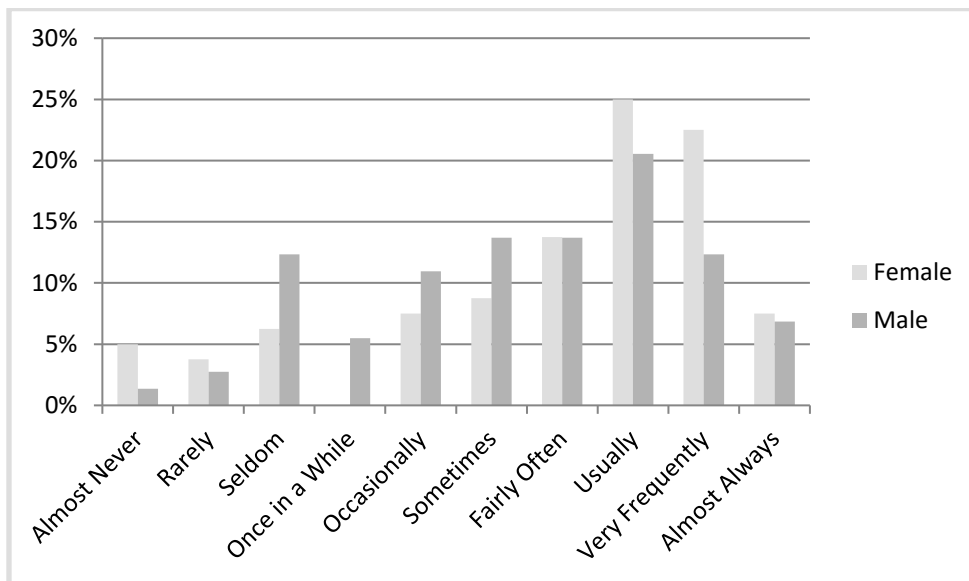


Figure F21. Male and female responses expressed in percentages to item #21 in the LPI Self: I build consensus around a common set of values for running our organization.

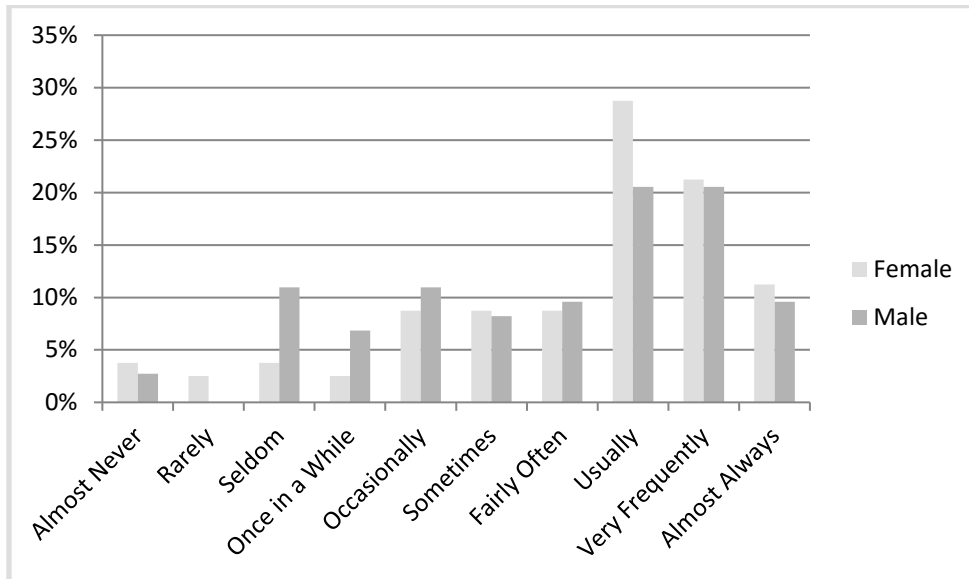
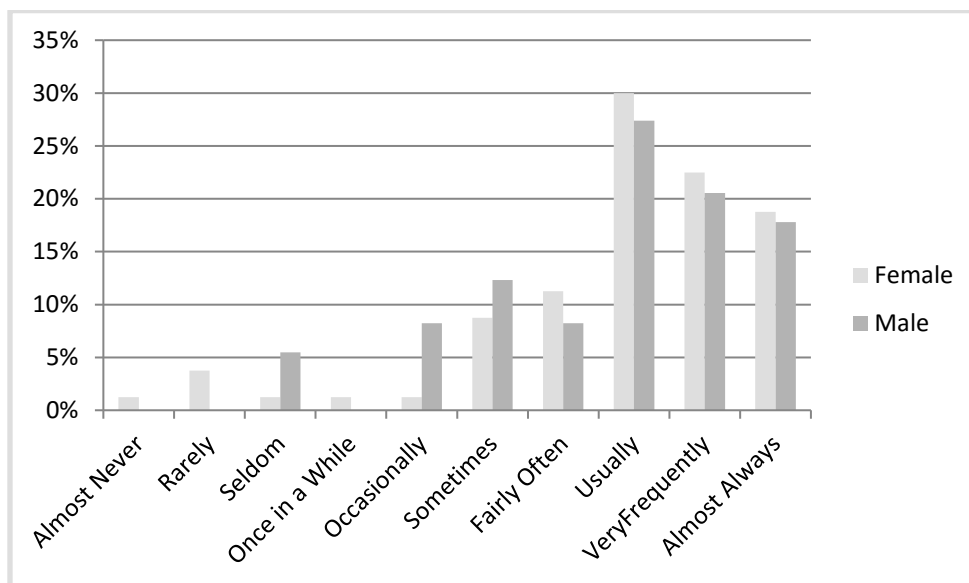
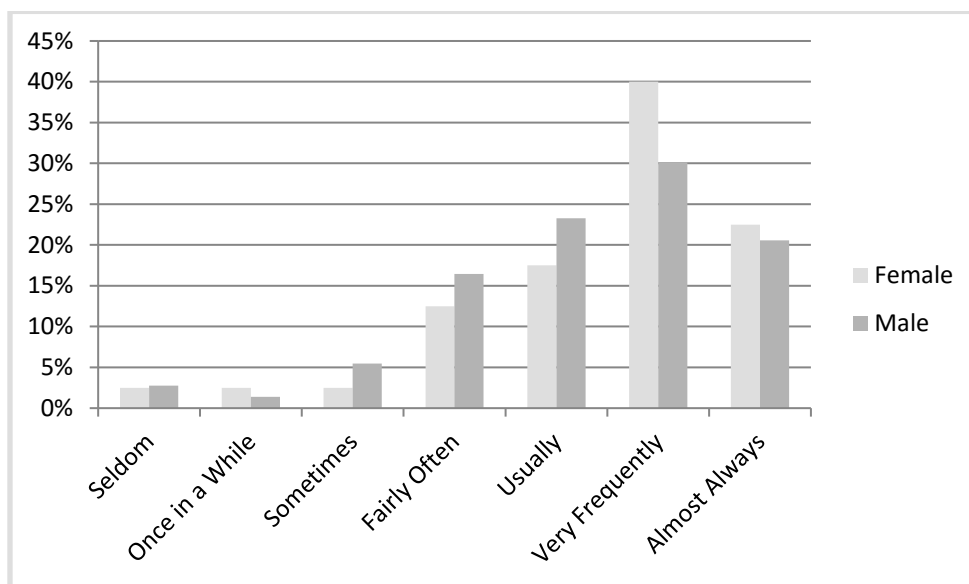


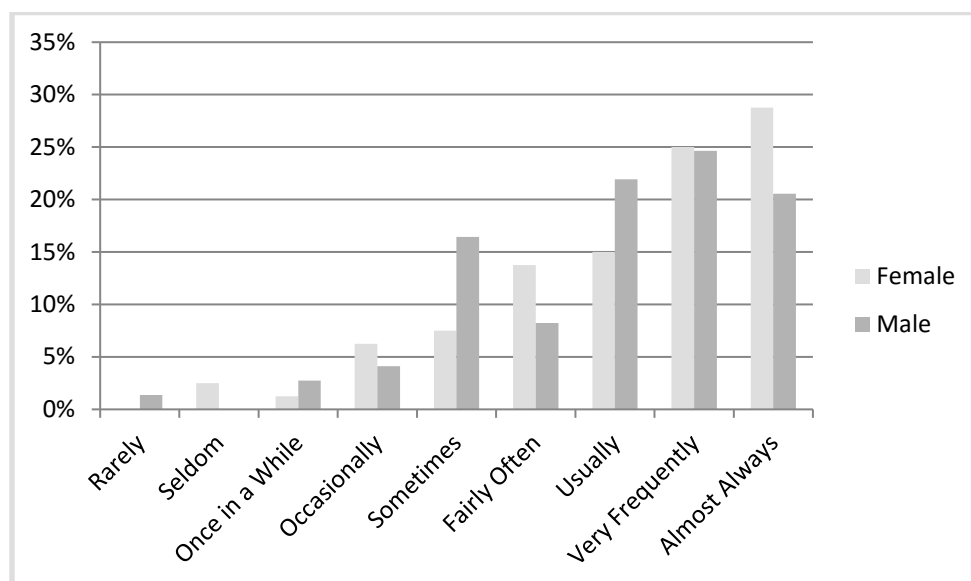
Figure F22. Male and female responses expressed in percentages to item #22 in the LPI Self: I paint the "big picture" of what we aspire to accomplish.



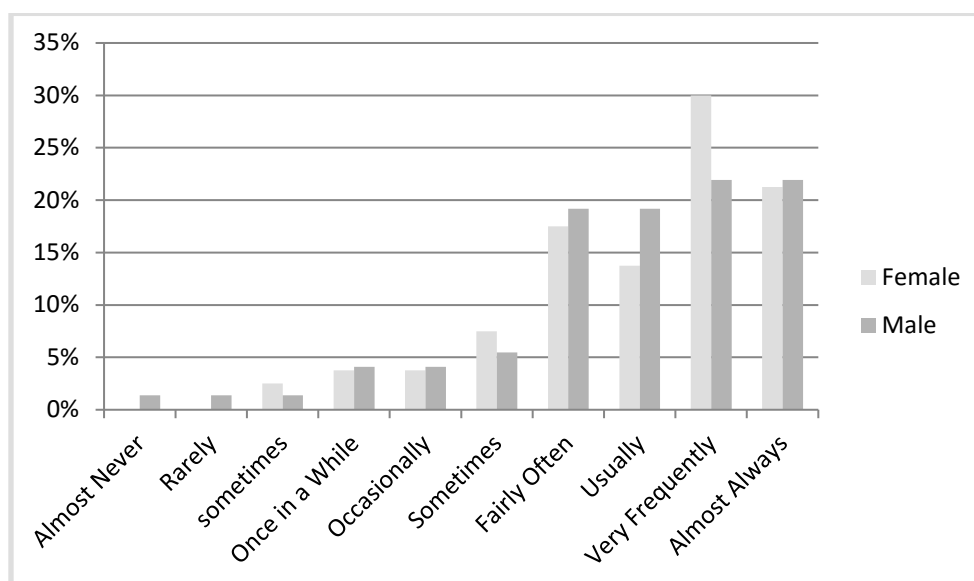
*Figure F23.* Male and female responses expressed in percentages to item #23 in the LPI  
 Self: I make certain that we set achievable goals, make concrete plans, and establish measurable milestones for the projects and programs that we work on.



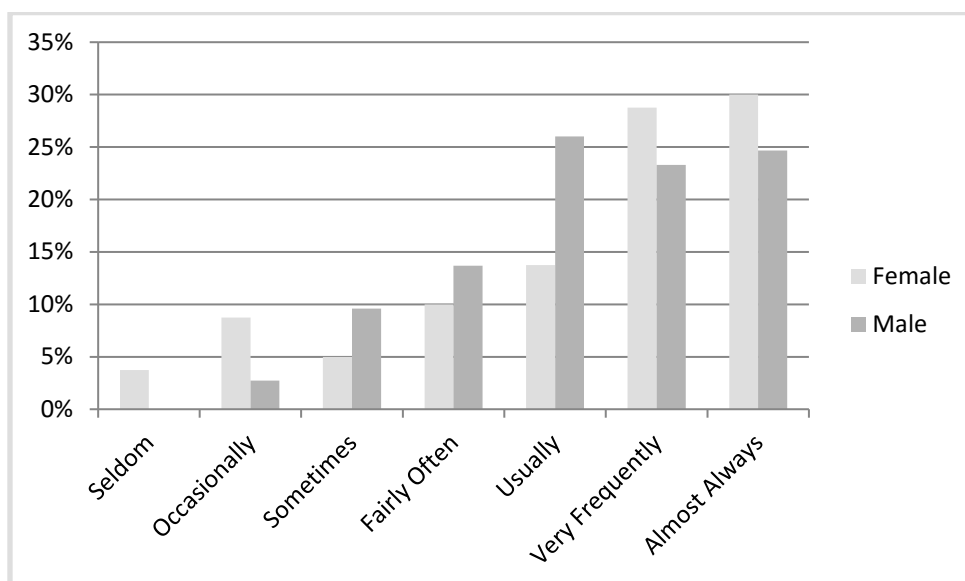
*Figure F24.* Male and female responses expressed in percentages to item #24 in the LPI  
 Self: I give people a great deal of freedom and choice in deciding how to do their work.



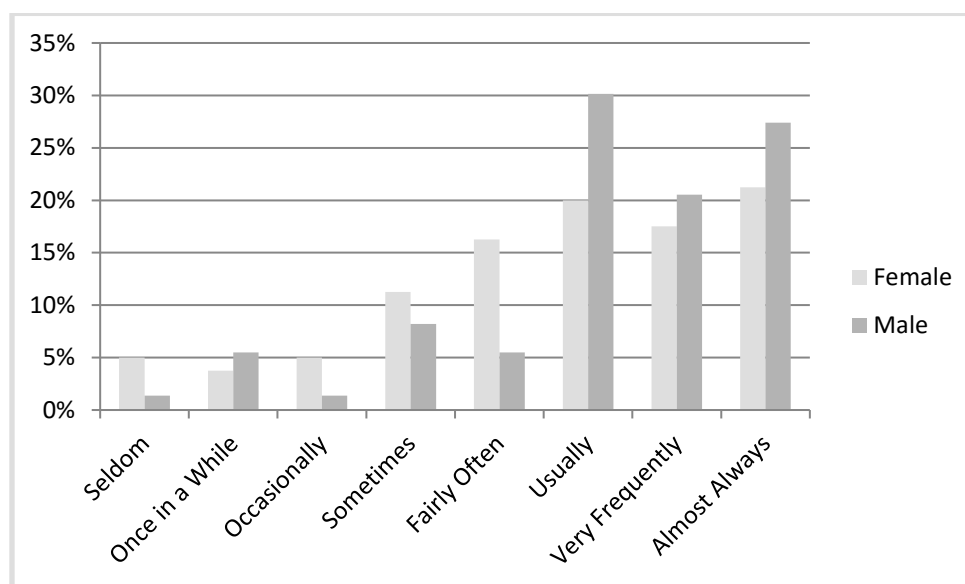
*Figure F25.* Male and female responses expressed in percentages to item #25 in the LPI  
Self: I find ways to celebrate accomplishments.



*Figure F26.* Male and female responses expressed in percentages to item #26 in the LPI  
Self: I am clear about my philosophy of leadership.



*Figure F27.* Male and female responses expressed in percentages to item #27 in the LPI  
Self: I speak with genuine conviction about the higher meaning and purpose of our work.



*Figure F28.* Male and female responses expressed in percentages to item #28 in the LPI  
Self: I experiment and take risks, even when there is a chance of failure.

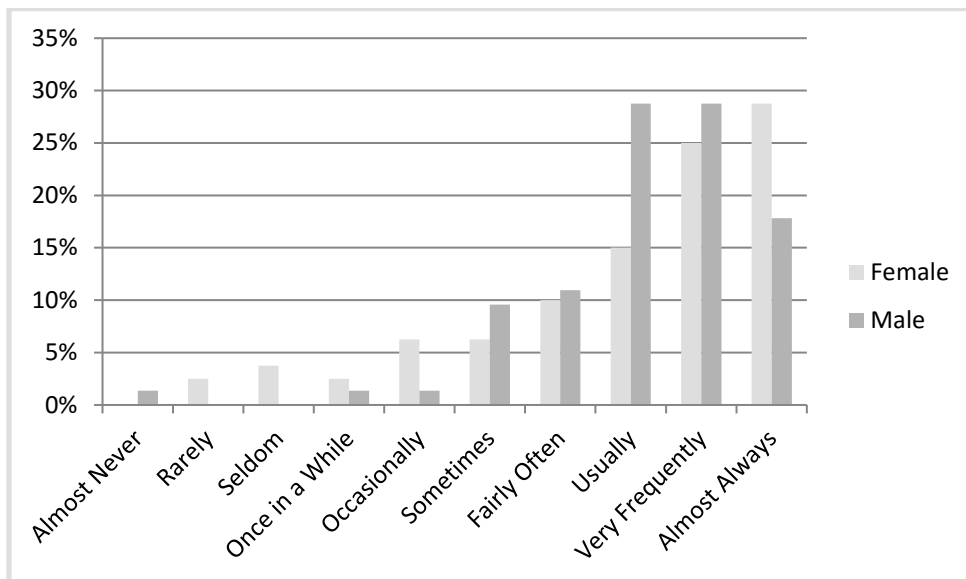


Figure F29. Male and female responses expressed in percentages to item #29. Self: I ensure that people grow in their jobs by learning new skills and developing themselves.

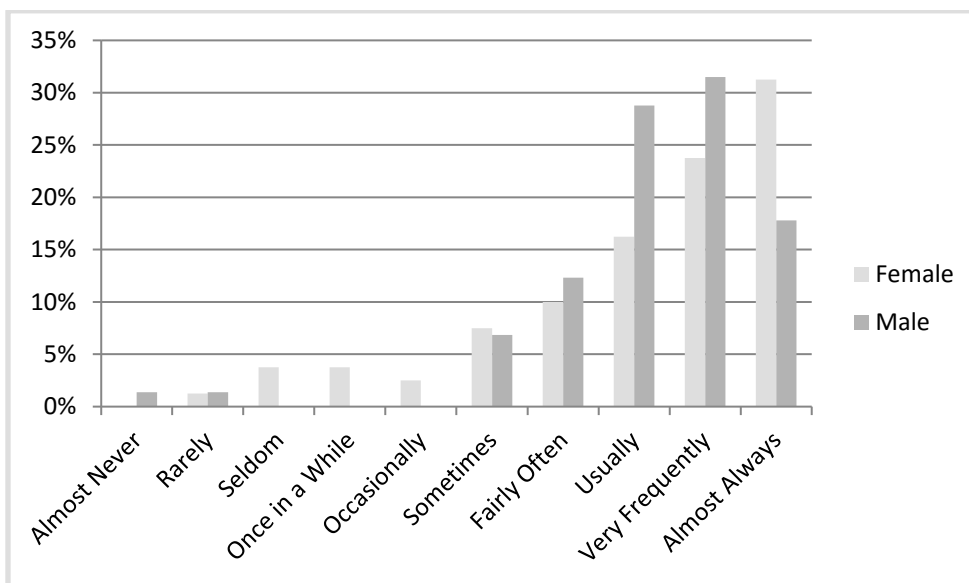


Figure F30. Male and female responses expressed in percentages to item #30 in the LPI Self: I give the members of the team lots of appreciation and support for their contributions.