UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

EFFECT OF LEADERSHIP STYLE AND LEADER'S GENDER ON

EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE: EVIDENCE FROM TAKORADI TECHNICAL

UNIVERSITY

HELLEN WILSON ENYI OKPA

2019

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

EFFECT OF LEADERSHIP STYLE AND LEADER'S GENDER ON

EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE: EVIDENCE FROM TAKORADI TECHNICAL

UNIVERSITY

BY

HELLEN WILSON ENYI OKPA

Dissertation is submitted to the Department of Human Resource Management, School of Business, College of Humanities and Legal Studies, University of Cape Coast, in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Award of the Master of Business Administration degree in Human Resource Management.

OCTOBER 2019

DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I, the author of this work, do hereby declare that this dissertation is solely my handwork except for references made to another people's work which have been duly acknowledged.

Candidate's Signature: ……………………… Date………………………

Candidate's Name: Hellen Wilson Enyi Okpa

Supervisors' Declaration

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the dissertation were supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of dissertation laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Supervisor's Signature: …………………… Date……………………

Supervisor's Name: Dr. N. Osei Owusu

ABSTRACT

The study sets out to analyse leadership styles and leader's gender and their influence on employee' performance at the Takoradi Technical University (TTU) as an organisation. The three specific objectives were to assess the most common leadership style at TTU, to test the difference between male and female leadership behaviours at TTU, and to assess the effect of leadership styles and leader's gender on employee performance at TTU. The study employed a quantitative research approach and descriptive survey and inferential statistics as the study design. The study was on the views of 154 employees out of 318 from the study area with a self-administered questionnaire as the main research instrument. The results were analysed with the help of the Statistical Product and Service Solutions (SPSS 22.0 version) software. The major findings were that transformational leadership style is more perceived to be adopted by leaders as compared to the other styles. It was also found with respect to the transformational, autocratic and laissez-faire leadership style, it was evident that female leaders have the higher leadership behaviour as compared to male leaders. However, regarding transactional leadership style, the result indicated that male leaders have the higher leadership behaviour as compared to female leaders. Finally, the results indicated that employee with female leaders report an average performance higher than their staffs with male leaders. Considering this, it was recommended that leaders should adopt more of leadership characteristics which are transformational in nature than other leadership characteristics.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I wish to express to all individuals who contributed to the success of this project. My special thanks to my supervisor, Dr N. Osei Owusu, for his direction and assistance in supervising this work. Also, special thanks go to all my families and friends who helped me through all these endeavours.

DEDICATION

To my family

TABLE OF CONTENT

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Introduction

This section presents the overview of the study which includes the background to the study, statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, objectives of the study, hypotheses of the study, significance of the study, delimitation of the study, and organisation of the study.

Background of the Study

Gender performs a vital function in human society. The famous perception is that ladies and men have one-of-a-kind roles in society (Mishler, 1995). However, gender roles in society are changing as the entire world changes. How those changes influence the socio-economic factors of the economy may be very complicated. Ansari (2019) posits that contemporary organisation is far more complicated compared to vintage, traditional society. The major entity which drives any organisation in this study includes leaders of different background. Leaders can be seen in several forms. They can be managers, entrepreneurs, non-secular publications or they only can be quite a simple employee of an employer (Krider & Radda, 1975). At the equal time as there could be no consensus on the definition of a leader the world over, a leader may be distinguished from the follower by means of their qualities (Fernandez, 2008). Different varieties of leaders are essential for exceptional situations, so there is no such factor as a standard leader.

However, some leaders can adapt to varied situations and behave consequently. The role of a leader is large to manual followers to acquire dreams

1

efficiently and effectively. If the leader isn't ready enough to do the mission efficiently and efficaciously, the entire organisation will fall apart (Seligman, 2011). Therefore, the leaders of modern society are believed to be those who drive the strength of the organisation and the society. Since the leaders are believed as precious property to society, advanced leaders reached the top in virtually any organisation (Bennis, 2009). Therefore, humans attempt to cultivate management features and abilities in them do not make them leaders in agencies. Leaders are the individuals who stay with higher residing standards in virtually any society considering that the demand for leaders is high (Gardner, 1993). Based on Howell (1997) contemporary management theories and models, leaders are now assessed on the premise of the pride and performance inside their subordinates.

However, according to Schein (2010), these theories and models are primarily based on the assumption that the management models may be changed according to the scenario maximum of times, and that some management style may be carried out to any situation. An effective leader must be a good diagnostician and adapt style to meet the demands of the situation in which they operate (Armstrong, 2006). Today, diverse leadership styles that a leader adopt should fit the employees because of the number of directions, empowerment, and decision-making power. As a result, employee performance has been affected due to lack of proper direction and application of strategic style in managing daily duties (Pollitt & Bouckaert, 2004).

Leaders in a sizable portion of the organisation in the world are males, even though that the portion of the middle dimension the management positions and

2

supervisory positions in the organisation are ruled by females (Bolton & Muzio, 2008). According to Palacio (2010), female leaders need to handle and break the discriminatory limitation when they are trying to propel their situation towards top-level positions within an organisation. The explanation for this boundary can differ from organisation to organisation and furthermore culture to culture. Studies recommend that two kinds of preference for female leaders can be distinguished (Nicholson & West, 1988). Generally, bias emerges from misinterpretations framed by the way individuals see and characterize sexual orientation jobs and attributes in the general public eye (Eagly & Karau, 2002).

Johnson et.al (2008) guaranteed that present male and female leadership models are related to sexual orientation assessing leaders. This sexual orientation stereotyping causes a bias towards females and furthermore makes boundaries in the professional success of female managers across the world (Knudsen, 2009). Takoradi Technical University has only 30% of female staff as against 70% male staff (Takoradi Technical University NCTE staff data, 2010). Most women's activists clarified that under-portrayal of ladies in top administration positions could prompt the likelihood of gifted women keeping away from corporate life for enterprising professions (Oakley, 2000). This introduces a stressing pattern of female duties from mindful positions in organisations, particularly at the time the world is calling for female establishment through extraordinary decreases of their joblessness rates. Therefore, this study seeks to analyse leadership styles and leader's gender and their influence on the performance of employees at the Takoradi Technical University.

Statement of the Problem

Social role and disparities have added to the attribution of leadership position to gender, an investigation on how a leader's gender adds to execution can go an all-encompassing approach to dispense with imbalances among society (Eagly, 2013). During recent times, there has been significant research over the exact practices received by people, prompting data that prescribe that female leader will in general embrace a distinct leadership style from male leaders among organisation (Kim & Shim, 2003). The greater part of research inspecting the sexual orientation varieties in like manner as likenesses among leadership styles was fundamentally roused gratitude to the deficiency of ladies holding indispensable positions in firms, government, and legislative. Even though most women had figured out how to make positional progress with a mind-boggling pace among organisation and state associations, their underrepresentation over the most elevated positions of the hierarchical chain of command still exists (Fortune, 2007).

Amidst the disparities, researchers have tried to find reasons for the problem by looking into leadership styles of males and females (Powell, 2000). In another debate, researchers (Waldman, Ramirez, House & Puranam, 2001) argued that there is the need to take a search into leadership styles seriously since these variables have direct effects on the decisional process and results of organisations. Kahai & Sosik (1997) similarly argued that leadership styles affect group-work process, social climate and results of organisations. The overall picture is that there are growing interests in the need to expand the frontiers of leadership styles studies as these variables affect the performance of workers and organisational outputs.

Specific interest is also towards the need to identify leadership styles with gender by many researchers (Rosener 1990 and Helgesen, 1990). This provides enough ground for the study.

The need for qualified personnel with complementary leadership styles to help in the establishment of an efficient institutional management system to achieve its shared vision remains one of the corporate objectives of Takoradi Technical University Staff Development Policy (Takoradi Technical University Strategic Plan 2016 – 2020). This policy aims to assist the development of staff members to enhance performance and to provide heads with a framework that guides the development of staff. However, the leadership structure of the University, where administrative and academic authority lines are interlinked, presents a complex administrative system which serves as a weakness to the realisation of efficient institutional management system the university is yearning for. This is likely to undermine the achievement of its strategic vision of becoming an institution of excellence for the running of diplomas, certificate, and degree programmes relevant to employee development with an emphasis on the performance of employees.

Consequently, it will be imperative to improve the administrative deficiencies in the university in order to ascertain the leadership styles of its staff by gender. This will unearth the hidden leadership styles of staff and establish the link between leadership styles and leader's gender as well as their contribution to the overall performance of the employees of the university. This study, therefore, sought to fill this literature gap by examining the leadership styles by gender among

5

the staff of Takoradi Technical University and their impact on employees' performance.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to analyse leadership styles and leader's gender and their influence on employees' performance at the Takoradi Technical University.

Research Objectives

The following are the specific objectives of the study;

1. to assess the most common leadership style at TTU,

2. to test the difference between male and female leadership behaviours at TTU, and

3. to assess the effect of leadership styles and leader's gender on employee performance.

Research Questions

The following research questions will be asked to achieve the objectives of the study:

1. What is the most common leadership style at TTU?

2. What is the difference between male and female leadership behaviours at TTU?

3. What is the effect of leadership styles and leader's gender on employee performance?

Significance of the Study

This study was conducted to determine how employees' performance could be improved through leadership styles by gender among the staff of Takoradi Technical University. This study provides a deep understanding of leadership styles of women and how they contribute to productivity in the industry. Based on this, gender advocacy groups such as Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) and Federation of International Women Lawyers (FIDA) and among others could use the results to make informed cases for women, especially in relation to the need for female empowerment in corporate organisations.

The study also presents enormous benefits to employers since some corporate organisations also create artificial barriers for women by virtue of their gender thereby, preventing them from finding employment in those establishments. The outcome of this study would establish the relationship between leadership styles and gender and the ways men and women leaders in organisations to inform policy decisions of management on the employment of new staff and efficiency as well as productivity of employees by their gender. Finally, this study will add to the stock of knowledge on issues of leadership styles. This would enrich the debate of leadership styles researchers are engaged in and reveal areas that require further research for future studies by the academia, students and researchers.

Delimitations of the Study

The study covered the effects of leadership styles and gender on employees' performance of the Takoradi Technical University in Ghana. The study specifically

focuses on examining the leadership styles by gender among the staff of the university and their impact on its employees' performance.

Limitations to the Study

This research encountered several problems especially gathering appropriate data for the analysis. Generally, apathy was the major problem since some of the respondents failed to answer the questionnaire. The respondents might not have disclosed their actual opinions on certain issues related to the university which could be confidential in nature. Therefore, the bias in their responses was possible. Also, this study researched the influence of leadership styles and gender at the Takoradi Technical University with the views from sampled respondents, which is a small representation of all the employees in the educational sector. This may limit the inferences that can be drawn from this study as their views may not be applied to all the employees in the universities in Ghana.

Finally, with hindsight, a mixed method (that is, both qualitative and quantitative methods) could have been adopted with more interviews conducted, which would have provided an in-depth understanding of issues. Besides, using the qualitative method would have added to the weight of materials relating to seniority, age, sex, and other human factors. Although this would have proved extremely time consuming, an interview with the others in higher positions, like the senior employees, would also have been useful. This would have helped to understand the rationale behind the elements of leadership styles and leader's gender and know the links between these elements and employees' performance and how they could be improved.

Organisation of the Study

The study was made up of five chapters. Chapter one looked at the background of the study, statement of the problem, research objectives, research questions and significance of the study, limitations, scope of the study and organisation of the study. Chapter two reviewed the literature available on the elements in leadership styles and leader's gender, particularly on the employees' performance. It investigated leadership styles and leader's gender elements and their influence on the performance of the employees using literature from books and other studies relating to the topic. Chapter three described the methodology that would be used in the study: this included the population size, sample size and sampling techniques as well as methods of data collection and data analysis. Chapter four presented the data analysis and the findings based on research questions. Chapter five provided an interpretation of the results based on the findings and provide recommendations for further studies to be conducted.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

This chapter deals with theoretical and empirical analytical literature on leadership styles and leader's gender. The chapter is divided into two parts. Part one identifies and explains the theoretical models and conceptual orientation on which the study was hinged. The second part is dedicated to related literature on leadership styles and leader's gender components as well as the empirical studies on the effect of the leadership styles and leader's gender on the employees' performance.

Theories Underpinning the Study

Theoretical models are the body of knowledge that seeks to observe, understand and explain concepts. There are several theoretical approaches towards leadership styles and leader's gender and their influence employee performance, but this study will consider the Biological Theory (BT) to explain the relationship of leadership styles and leader's gender and the employees' performance in the Takoradi Technical University. These are discussed in detail below:

Biological Theory

The Biological Theory (BT) was unravelled by Darwin (1859) on his pursuit of the natural selection theory as he travelled the world to observe animals. McLeod (2007) recounts that; BT basically emphasizes a difference between men and women, and importantly confirms that the biological process gives rise to gender identity and role. According to the theory, there exists a difference between men

10

and women due to the differences in the development of their brains, which results from the chromosomal and hormonal differences. From this, Yukl (2012) asserts that leadership cannot be discussed without the introduction of gender. He believes that the gender of a leader can cause a difference.

Polston- Murdoch (2013) equally shares in this assertion that males and females are different people hence they are influenced in their decision making, the target of motivation, aspirations and even results. It was further opined that even the leadership style to be adopted is influenced by gender which consequently affects the setting of the workplace (Polston- Murdoch (2013). Other studies such as Eagly & Johnson (1990) and Helgeson (1990) have confirmed that males are prone to enacting task-oriented behaviours, and exhibiting more directive and controlling decision styles, whiles their female counterparts were characterized by consideration, relationship-oriented behaviour, and participative decision.

This study finds the need to replicate the spirit of the theory to explain the gender differences that may exist among leaders in Takoradi Technical University, hence the differences in the leadership style they may choose and the different ways they may influence employee performance at the university. According to the theory, differences exist between men and women right from birth and this naturally brings a difference in their choices, communication, performance, results and decision among others. It is therefore realistic to speculate that the gender of a leader can influence the kind of leadership styles they adopt and how they affect the performance levels of the employee in the University.

Conceptual Review

Concept of Gender and Gender Differences

Gender is one of the more obvious ways that people differ. Early feminist theorising distinguished between sex (biologically based) and gender (a social construction) (Oakeley, 1972 cited in Calas & Smircich, 1994). The distinction between sex and gender as interpreted by Goktope & Schneier (1988), where sex is the biologically invariant factor and gender is comprised of various social, cultural or historical variable components. Along with the physical differences of gender are social norms that specify normative behaviour for women and men, which are gender roles. It is during the early part of socialization, that children receive information about both genders, the specific roles identified with the genders, and the subsequent stereotypes that accompany each gender (Davidson & Gordon, 1979).

The formulation of one's gender identity, the sense that physically an individual is a female or male, occurs during socialization. As roles are attached to all statuses, a social role is attached to one's gender-this is the gender role. "A gender role is a set of behaviours, attitudes, and motivations culturally associated with each sex" (Davidson & Gordon, 1979). Gender-role knowledge develops with age, and at an early age, the child becomes aware that they are girls or boys. The goal of socialization is to instil gender-appropriate characteristics in members of each sex so that they may be capable of executing successfully the gender roles society has assigned them (Spence & Helmreich, 1978). These gender roles, defined by our culture, are some of the strongest social norms in our society

(Stangor & Ruble, 1987). The distinction between female and male is the basis for organising every human culture. Not only are girls and boys taught sex-specific skills, but they are also expected to acquire sex-specific self-concepts and personality attributes, in other words, to be feminine or masculine as defined by that culture (Bern, 1981).

Concept of Leadership

Leadership is a process by which a person influences other to accomplish an objective and directs the organisation in a way that makes it more cohesive and coherent. Leaders carry out this process by applying their leadership attributes, such as beliefs, values, ethics, character, knowledge, and skills. Although your position as a manager, supervisor, lead, etc. gives you the authority to accomplish certain tasks and objectives in the organisation, this power does not make you a leader, but it simply makes you the boss. Leadership differs in that it makes the followers want to achieve high goals, rather than simply bossing people around. Leadership should be distinguished from management. Management involves planning, organising, staffing, directing, and controlling, and a manager is someone who performs these functions. A manager has formal authority by virtue of his or her position or office.

Leadership, by contrast, primarily deals with influence. A manager may or may not be an effective leader. A leader's ability to influence others may be based on a variety of factors other than his or her formal authority or position. Leadership is a subject that has gained increasing interest among scholars. The term connotes images of powerful, dynamic individuals who command victorious armies, direct corporate empires from atop or shape the course of nations. Questions about

13

leadership have long been a subject of speculation, but specific research on leadership did not begin until the twentieth century. The focus of much of the research has been on leadership styles adopted by men and women and how it makes a difference in the workplace. Behavioural scientists have attempted to discover what traits, abilities, behaviours, sources of power, or aspects of the situation determine how well a leader is able to influence followers and accomplish group objectives.

Leadership Styles

Leadership style is defined as "relatively stable patterns of behaviour that are manifested by leaders" (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001), or "the alternative ways that leaders pattern their interactive behaviour to fulfil their role as leaders" (Bass, 1990). Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, and van Engen (2003) posit that "the possibility that women and men differ in their typical leadership behaviour is important because leaders' own behaviour is a major determinant of their effectiveness and chances for advancement" (p. 569). This, in recent decades, has made some researchers recognised its importance and have compared the leadership styles of men and women (Cuadrado, Morales, & Recio, 2008; Eagly & Carli, 2003; Wood & Eagly, 2010).

The main styles operationalized by Bass and Avolio in 1995 are Transformational, Transactional, Laissez-Faire and Autocratic leaderships (Dutewicz & Higgs, 2004) and these are discussed as below:

14

Transformational Leadership

The concept of transformational leadership was coined by James McGregor Burns, a leadership expert and presidential biographer (Burns, 1978). Transformational leadership is a leadership style that focused on effecting revolutionary change in the organisation through a commitment to the vision of that organisation (Sullivan & Decker, 2001 and Nayab, 2010). It is a people-centred type of leadership that encourages innovation among subordinates and improvement in the workplace environment (Bass, 1997). There are four basic elements illustrating the concept of transformational leadership. These include creating a strategic vision, communicating the vision, modelling the vision and building commitment toward the vision (McShane & Glinow, 2000). On his part, Kotter (1990) adds that this type of leadership revolves around three central processes. These include establishing direction, aligning people and motivating and inspiring people around him or her to work.

Tichy & Ulrich (1884) asserted that transformational leaders are a new breed of leaders that can help an organisation develop a strategic new vision, gather support from stakeholders, improve human resource capacity of employees and possess the capacity to institutionalize changes in the work environment over time. They also bring about fundamental changes in the organisation's basic political and cultural systems. They conclude that a transformational manager adjusts the organisational mission, structure and human resources.

Transactional Leadership

The inception of the concept of transactional leadership style can be credited to Max Weber and was later made popular and accepted by authors like Bernard Bass and James McGregor Burns, which also encouraged further developments of leadership in this new era (Nikezic, Puric & Puric, 2012). Burns (1978) explains that transactional leadership is about the exchange of something valued that is initiated by one person (a leader) to make contacts with others (followers). Bass (1990) reiterated this thought as he averred that transactional leadership is characterized by an implicit relationship where both the leader and the follower see each other to achieve desired outcomes. The principles of transactional leadership style revolve around fundamental management processes of organising, controlling and short-term planning. Transactional leaders derive their source of legitimate power and authority from the laid down procedures and rules in the organisation and operates on the premises of rewards and punishment where leaders fish out for wrongs and rights of followers and reward them accordingly.

Odumeru & Ifeanyi (2013) emphasized that transactional leaders do not concern themselves with the new order of things; they are very conservative and prefer to operate in a laid down fashion. Followers are rewarded when they have attained the desired level of performance and punished in the vice versa scenario. In these instances, the motivation and creativity of followers are stifled as they are obliged to follow strict processes and respect the instructions of the leader. The interests and needs of followers are not the concern of the leader; all attention is on how to reach the set target (Xiaoxia, Xiaoxia & Jing, 2006). They make use of

16

contingent reward (also known as contingent positive reinforcement) or contingent penalization (also known as contingent negative reinforcement), contingent rewards (such as praise), contingent punishments (such as suspensions) and management-by-exception (Nikezic, Puric & Puric, 2012).

Laissez-Faire

This is an absence of leadership (Bass, 1985). The leader, here, avoids becoming involved, avoids making decisions, abdicates responsibility for urgent issues and delegates tasks to followers, so the leader does not care whether followers maintain standards on issues or gain performance goals (Bass & Avolio, 2004). Leaders are non-responsive to situations and characterised as ignoring subordinates' needs and problems (Schriesheim et al., 2009). Due to the absence of an exchange relationship between leaders and their followers, laissez-faire leadership is classified as non- leadership (Sosik & Jung, 2010). Consequently, followers might fail to meet organisational outcomes, feel confused and look to others to provide them with guidance which, in the end, might lead them to conflict, low job satisfaction and commitment, and low performance. Laissez-faire is operationalized as leaders avoiding making decisions and not using their authority.

In laissez-faire, empowerment is an important function that is mostly encouraged. It focuses on delegation and passing power from higher organisational levels to lower ones. It occurs when power is delegated or passed from a high organisational level to a lower one in the hierarchy (Spreitzer et al., 1999). Thus, employees are given empowerment from their immediate managers or leaders to be independent and authorised to use power and make decisions, without needing

permission from their managers or leaders (Forrester, 2000). Laissez-faire leaders play a role in empowering their followers. When responsibilities are delegated to followers, the leader will enhance team members' personal control, and they will practise autonomy in the work because of such empowered responsibilities (Özaralli, 2003). Laissez-faire leaders through empowerment increase the level of innovation and decision making and encourage leadership development and training (Bass and Riggio, 2006).

Autocratic Leadership

Autocratic leadership is characterized by the leader's making decisions unilaterally, not allowing the group members to participate (De Cremer, 2007). Autocratic leaders are classic "do as I say" types. Typically, these leaders are inexperienced with leadership thrust upon them in the form of a new position or assignment that involves people management. Autocratic leaders retain for themselves the decision- making rights. They can damage an organisation irreparably as they force their 'followers' to execute strategies and services in a very narrow way, based upon a subjective idea of what success looks like. There is no shared vision and little motivation beyond coercion. Commitment, creativity and innovation are typically eliminated by autocratic leadership.

Autocratic leadership is the most extreme form of transactional leadership. Leaders have absolute control and do not allow subordinates to provide input. In some cases, this type of leadership can take the form of a dictatorship. Toxic leaders are prevalent with this style leading to high staff turnover and limited organisational accomplishment. However, this type of leadership can be effective when unskilled

18

labour is used or in high-stress situations requiring immediate actions if the advantages outweigh the disadvantages. In fact, most followers of autocratic leaders can be described as biding their time, waiting for the inevitable failure this leadership produces (Hogg & Giessner, 2013). The leader takes the decisions and announces them, expecting subordinates to carry them out without question.

Concept of Employee Performance

The main goal of any organisation is to enhance the job performance of its employees so that it could survive in this highly competitive environment. Performance is a multidimensional construct and an extremely vital criterion that determines organisational successes or failures. Prasetya & Kato (2011) define performance as the attained outcomes of actions with the skills of employees who perform in some situation. According to Niranjana, Niranjana & Pattanayak (2005), the performance of an employee is his/her resultant behaviour on a task which can be observed and evaluated. They further posit that employee performance is the contribution made by an individual in the accomplishment of organisational goals.

Here employee performance is simply the result of patterns of action carried out to satisfy an objective according to some standards. This means employee performance is a behaviour which consists of directly observable actions of an employee, and mental actions or products such as answers or decisions, which result in organisational outcomes in the form of attainment of goals. Ibrahim et al. (2004) defined job performance as an important activity that provides both the goals and methods to achieve the organisational goals and provide the achievement level

19

in term of output. Awadh, & Ismail, (2012) considered it as an effort of an employee to achieve some specific goal, the researcher adopted this definition.

Relationship of Leadership Styles and Leader's Gender and Employee Performance

There is no doubt that gender is a much-debated topic in the management and leadership fields. Studies have been conducted on the differences and similarities between men and women and their effect in the workplace (Eagly, 2003). Appelbaum et al. (2003) point out that research has provided a range of theories: whether leadership is linked to biology, whether differences are a part of the style, whether perceived or real, whether leadership style is associated with effectiveness, and which styles can lead to success. Such propositions will be discussed through five sections: gender role, the biology of gender and leadership, attitudinal drivers, cause factors and communication across gender.

Gender Roles

Gender role ascribes individual behaviour to societal expectations, and any differences can be explained by individual leaders and their subordinates' socialisation (Eagly et al., 2000). Thus, different experiences would be expected based on gender (Carless, 1998). Gender role theory has found that gender roles can have real effects on individuals' relationships, on their self-perceptions, and on other lifestyle aspects such as leisure activities and health (Williams et al., 2009). For example, girls are expected to lean towards mothers' responsibilities, and be more emotional, while boys are expected to be interested in other activities such as athletics (Walsh, 1997). Thus, males and females experience their roles depending

20

on their gender role and socialisation. Gender differentiation in social roles, therefore, produces gender differences in behaviours, abilities, and dispositional traits‖ (Marini, 1990). Eagly et al. (2000) provide evidence of these differences and similarities in leadership styles. They can be distinguished as agentic versus communal attributes. Agentic attributes such as independence, competitiveness and dominance are more associated with men than women. In contrast, communal attributes - for example sympathy, helpfulness and interpersonal sensitivity - refer more to women than men.

The Biology of Gender and Leadership

Leadership has been biologically determined, behaviourally demonstrated and refers innately to the male group (Appelbaum et al., 2003). Based on hormones, men and women experience the world differently. There is evidence from scientists that women and men have different experiences in their life, and studies have documented that leadership is influenced by genetics (Li et al., 2011). Also, Arvey et al. (2006) found that genetic factors are associated with a leadership role, occupancy role and personality. However, although the basic role of genetic factors could be influenced by other factors, the extent of inequality between males and females and the specific attributes of masculinity and feminism vary fundamentally across cultures (Peterson & Runyan, 2009). Arvey et al., (2006) found that genetic influences are weaker for those in enriched environments, compared to those who had relatively poorer social environments.

However, the gender reform approach asserts that gender differences are not based on biology and those men and women are similar in their common

21

humanity (Lorber, 2005). Most studies of gender and transformational leadership are in line with the gender reform perspective arguing that biological differences should be ignored to achieve gender equality in job opportunities (Lorber, 2005). According to this approach, sex- role socialisation perpetuates the view that women are less capable than men to compete in the business environment. Thus, if women develop the required traits and skills, they would be better trained to compete with men and would advance at comparable rates (Kark, 2004).

Leadership Behaviours

Attitude refers to a general and enduring positive or negative feeling about some person, object, or issue (Gardner, 1990). Attitudes have two elements, which decide how they affect leadership. The first element is how someone feels about doing something, while the second element is how they behave or act regarding how they feel about something. For the purpose of this study, the second reason will be discussed below (Gardner, 1990). There has been much argument about what it takes to be a successful gendered leader (Eagly and Carli, 2007, Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001, Eagly et al., 2003, Eagly et al., 1995 and Eagly et al., 1992). Eagly et al. (2003) provide empirical evidence of differences between men and women in leadership. Women leaders were perceived to be more democratic and participative than men and to engage in more collaboration and sharing in decision making. However, the size of the differences was small. Differences between transformational and transactional leadership styles are correlated with the distinction between agentic and communal attributes (Rowold and Rohmann, 2009).

22

Bass (1988) identifies that the best leadership style is one that integrates task- and relation-orientation in behaviour toward followers and colleagues. Task-orientation is regarded as more masculine, whereas relationship-orientation is seen as more feminine (Eagly, 2003). Bass (1985) argues that women are more likely to be transformational leaders than men. In contrast, men are more inclined toward management-by-exception and laissez-faire, so transactional leadership is a more masculine style and transformational leadership is more feminine. However, Mujtaba and Alsua (2011) found that male and female participants demonstrate the same pattern of being more oriented toward a relationship orientation.

Cause / Environmental Factors

Environmental factors are behind the complexity of the perception toward gendered leadership effectiveness/emergence (Appelbaum et al., 2003, Stelter, 2002). Kolb (1999) proposes that gender leadership emergence can be affected by three factors: masculine versus feminine, self-confidence and gender experience, he examined whether self- perceptions of masculine gender role characteristics predict individuals who are perceived by others as leaders. Results show that both attitudes toward leadership and leadership experience are stronger predictors of leader emergence than the masculine gender role. These results could indicate that masculine scales discriminate toward female leadership effectiveness. Also, this study highlights the importance of self-report toward leadership effectiveness.

Thus, this study supports the idea that stereotypical masculine behaviours are still considered important for leadership effectiveness. Individual attitude

toward leadership emergence can also be perceived stereotypically by male raters, and it can be affected by traditional factors (Eagly and Carli, 2007).

Communication Across Gender

Effective leaders need to have a range of communication techniques to deliver messages effectively, solicit feedback, motivate others, and create readiness for change (Hackman and Johnson, 2004). Appropriate communication provides followers with feedback which enables them to make better decisions and generate creative ideas (Gilley et al., 2009). Communication is a basic part of the dyadic exchange process. Emotional communication skills are important to motivate followers inspirationally in order to deliver and receive effective and accurate information (Mayfield et al., 1998). Thus, leaders and their followers need to exchange and understand messages, so mutual communication is important to achieve goals.

Moreover, there are differences between women and men in response to various situations. For example, women are more sensitive in non-verbal communication, while men's behaviour is characterised by a tendency to take a leading and controlling roles during social interactions, such as meetings. Men are considered to express authoritative opinions and generally, their voices are more forceful and confident. Also, they are more listening oriented in conversation, whereas women are more inclined to ask questions or express a personal viewpoint and their voices are reassuring and placatory (Kakabadse & Kakabadse, 1999 and Oakley, 2000). Gender difference in communication might be a major key for

women to surpass their counterparts and display transformational leadership effectively.

Empirical Review

Empirical Studies on Leadership Styles, Leader's Gender and Employee Performance

Various studies have been carried out on leadership styles and gender, whether it is the concept of the leadership styles and gender or the dimensions and its effects on employee performance. For instance, Lewis and Fagenson-Eland (1998) studied whether self-ratings are more stereotypic on initiating structure and consideration. Female leaders from a federal government agency rated themselves as less task-oriented, but not more interpersonally oriented, than male leaders, but ratings by their supervisors did not show this stereotypic difference.

In a study of transformational leadership in branch managers of an international bank, Carless (1998) found that both supervisors and managers themselves rated female managers higher on transformational leadership than men. Subordinates evaluated female and male leaders equally. Thus, Carless found self-ratings to be more stereotypical than subordinates' ratings. The results for the supervisors in these two studies are, however, contradicting each other. Park (1996) postulates that leadership style and gender are related, and this ultimately influences decision making in an organisation. These gender researchers and authors suggest that societal norms promote a general stereotype of gender roles cultured through a process of social learning. These socialization practices encourage the development of skills, traits and behaviours that men and women exhibit differently, which in

25

the eyes of many men and women are perceived as contrary to those required in management circles (Kanter, 1997).

In two studies on the same sample of university hall directors, Komives (1991; 1991) finds that rater type has no effect on comparisons between male and female leaders. One study used self-ratings, the other subordinate ratings on transformational and transactional leadership, and both reported no significant sex differences on either leadership style. Effect sizes were smaller, however, for the subordinate ratings than for the self-ratings. Women tended to be less transactional and less transformational on both type of rater instruments, but more so for the self-ratings. Thus, in contrast with the results of Carless (1998), if we forget significance for a moment, self and other ratings were counter-stereotypical for transformational leadership and stereotypical for transactional leadership.

Appelbaum and Shapiro (1993) also hold the view that women have an interactive style of leadership that includes more people oriented and participative in nature than men. They suggested that women are more relationship oriented, cooperative, nurturing and emotional in their leadership roles than men and these views are like. These arguments are consistent with sex-role stereotypes which include the notion that men tend to be more task-oriented whereas women also tend to be more people oriented.

Hare, Koenigs and Hare (1997) compared 130 female managers with 130 male managers with similar background characteristics who took part in a workshop. No differences between self-ratings and peer ratings were found on the democratic versus autocratic dimension. Both self-raters and peer raters considered

26

the female managers more democratic and interpersonally oriented than male managers. Similarly, in a role-playing experiment by Korabik, Baril, and Watson (1993), students with and without management experience were asked to resolve a conflict. The behaviour and outcomes were registered and compared with the evaluations of the leaders and subordinates in the role-play, so both leader-subordinate and rating-behaviour comparisons could be made. The only difference found was that the self-ratings by inexperienced leaders were more stereotypical, they rated themselves higher on the feminine styles than inexperienced male leaders. The observation measures, that showed no sex differences, suggest that we should interpret this finding as a bias.

Johnson (1993), on the other hand, found no differences between self, subordinate and observational instruments on sex comparisons of the directive and supportive behaviours by students acting as leaders in an organisational simulation. None of these instruments showed a sex difference in stereotypical direction. Furthermore, Helgesen, 1990) suggested that women have a different leadership style which can bring benefits to the organisation. In their view, women are more inclined to take a fresh perspective, identify what is not working and develop new solutions. Helgesen (1990) further argued that compared with their male peers, women leaders are more willing to share power, make decisions and solve problems based on shared ideas and information. Women are also willing to encourage the participation of subordinates at work and allow free expression whereas men are less likely to do the same.

Sakata and Kurokawa (1992) also reported similar results from behavioural observations and self-ratings. The Japanese female students in their simulation

27

study were more task oriented and less interpersonal oriented, thus in counter stereotypical direction, on both behavioural and self-rating instruments. To McShane and Glinow (2000), leadership studies have generally found that male and female leaders do not differ in their levels of task-oriented leadership. In agreement with these views, Powell (1990) and Dobbins and Platts (1986) also added that the reason why men and women do not differ in leadership styles is that real-world job requires similar behaviour from male and female workers. For example, a military person in the Ghana Armed Forces, whether male or female, would have to obey commands and behave in the same way.

Again, Rosener (1990) describes the style adopted by women as an interactive leadership style consisting of behaviours that represent power-sharing, energizing, encouraging participation, mutual trust and respect, and enhancing self-worth. She stated that the women described themselves in ways that characterize "transformational" leadership – getting subordinates to transform their own self-interest into the interest of the group through concern for a broader goal" (Rosener, 1990). On the contrary, male managers, according to her, were more likely to use their positions as a source of power and employ methods based on formal authority. In short, men are more likely to adopt „transactional leadership" methods whilst women practice transformational leadership style (Rosener, 1990; & Bass, 1990).

Finally, Ogbanna and Harris (2000) in their studies argue that organisational culture is influenced by leadership style and leadership style also affects organisational performance. Leadership styles have a strong influence on the effectiveness of corporate organisations and determine an individual's approach to

28

clients' needs thereby impacting greatly on the results of their organisation. Gronn (cited in Stewart &CJEAP, 2006) charges transformational leadership with being paternalistic, gender exclusive, exaggerated, having aristocratic pretensions and social-class bias, as well as having an eccentric conception of human agency and causality. Gronn outlined numerous shortcomings of transformational leadership: a lack of empirically documented case examples of transformational leaders; a narrow methodological base; no causal connection between leadership and desired organisational outcomes; and the unresolved question as to whether leadership is learnable.

Conceptual Framework

The researcher got information on gender, the age to help understand more on leadership styles adopted by males and females' leaders. In other words, the aim of the above conceptual framework is to see if the gender has any influence on the leadership styles at the workplace and the effects on employee performance. The conceptual framework of this study is based on two main independent variables which are leadership styles and leader's gender with the employee performance as the dependent variable. The influence of the independent variables on the dependent variable is illustrated in figure 1 below:

29

| **Independent Variable** | | **Dependent Variable** |

Leadership Styles:

- Transformational
- Transactional
- Laisser-Faire
- Autocratic

Gender:
- Male
- Female

Employee

Performance
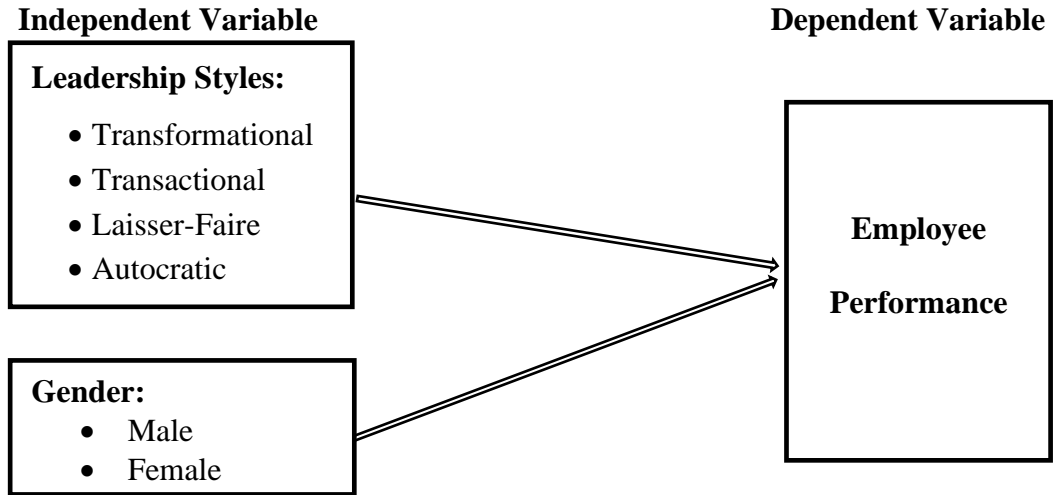
Figure 1: Conceptual Framework

Source: Field Survey, 2019.

This research seeks to identify different types of perceived attributes of leadership styles adopted by male and female leaders which in the context of this study include transformational, transactional, laisser-faire and autocratic and how they affect the employee performance in the Figure above. Leadership in an organisation plays an important role as several attentions have been paid to it in recent times. Leadership has been viewed as a transaction between a leader and his subordinates. It had also been defined as a process of influencing people towards an objective or goal. Whichever leadership style that is exhibited by a person is a combination of traits, characteristics, skills and behaviours. The situation also matters and will call for a totally different style in Ghana.

Chapter Summary

This chapter has discussed the literature review about the topic under study. In addressing the issue, the theories underpinning the study were first discussed. This was followed by the explanations of concepts and later the empirical analytical

literature on the leadership style and leader's gender and employee performance. Thus, the chapter was indirectly divided into two parts. Part one identified and explained the theoretical models and conceptual orientation on which the study was hinged. Finally, the last section focused on empirical literature of the relationship between leadership styles by leader's gender roles and employee performance with a conceptual framework within the context and scope of the study also discussed.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODS

Introduction

This chapter discussed in details and in systematic manner the methodology used for the study, and this includes the research setting, research design, the study population, sampling and sampling procedures adopted for the study, the instruments used, and procedures followed in the collection and analysis of data. Leedy and Ormrod (as cited in Williams, 2007) explained that research methodology is the general approach the researcher takes in carrying out the research project.

Research Approach

Yates (2004) asserted that there are two main approaches to conducting research namely, quantitative, qualitative and mixed approaches. Sekaran and Bougie (2016) postulated that, the epistemological underpinning of a quantitative motif holds that there exist definable and quantifiable social facts. The study therefore employed the quantitative research approach based on the nature of the study purpose under consideration, specific objectives, hypotheses and the nature of the primary data to be collected and analysed. Creswell (2014) asserted that quantitative approach deals with explaining phenomena by collecting numerical data that are analysed using mathematically based methods (statistics).

This approach typically begins with data collection based on a hypothesis or theory and it is followed with application of descriptive or inferential statistics (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2010). Quantitative methods are frequently described as

deductive in nature, in the sense that inferences from tests of statistical hypotheses lead to general inferences about characteristics of a population. Quantitative methods are also frequently characterized as assuming that there is a single "truth" that exists, independent of human perception (Lincoln, Lynham & Guba, 2011). It was also found that the findings from quantitative research can be predictive, explanatory, and confirming (Williams, 2007 as cited in Bernard & Bernard, 2012).

Research Design

Research methodology refers to the procedural framework within which a study or research is conducted (Anabila, 2010). Descriptive research design was adopted and used in this study. This is because the researcher intended to describe systematic facts and figures of a given population or area of interest factually and accurately and attempted to discover the relationships of variables with each other (Arnold & Randall et al, 2010). More so, surveys do not intervene in naturally occurring events, nor does it control such events (Arnold & Randall et al., 2010). Further, the use of this design helped in the assessment of people's knowledge, beliefs, preferences and satisfaction to measure these magnitudes in the general population (Kotler & Keller, 2013).

Study Area

The study was conducted at the Takoradi Polytechnic. It was one of the few established Public Technical advanced schools in Ghana to train people with technical skills in the country. It is found in the Western region of Ghana. Besides the technical divisions, the institution has several divisions, departments and sections under its Central Administration. These include the Centre for

33

International Education, Finance Section, Internal Audit, Directorate of Physical Development and Estate Management, Technical Library, Division of Academic Affairs, Division of Human Resource, Staff Training and Development, Academic Planning and Quality Assurance Unit, and Public Affairs Section. The various heads of the divisions, departments or sections have been tasked to empower their subordinate's performance through information sharing, granting of study leave (with or without pay), workshops among others. Takoradi Polytechnic was selected for the study, because of the convenience of collecting data from this institution.

Population

According to Leedy and Ormrod, (2010) can be seen as the target group about which the researcher is interested in gaining information and drawing conclusions. The population of the study covers teaching staffs of the Takoradi Technical University (TTU). Data acquired from the human resource directorate indicate that the university has 318 teaching staffs from five faculties in the University namely; Faculty of Engineering, Faculty of Applied Sciences, Faculty of Business Studies, Faculty of Applied Arts and Technology and Faculty of Built and Natural Environment. Employees from these faculties were used because of proximity and accessibility of the faculties.

Sample Size and Sampling Procedure

According to Malhotra, Birks and Wills (2013) sampling is the process of selecting a representative few or unit from a larger group or population, which is used as a basis of estimating certain characteristics or elements about the group or population. Arnold and Randall (2010) also held similar view when it was

concluded that sampling deals with the selection of respondents chosen in such a way that represent the total population as good as possible. From a population of 318 employees, a sample of one hundred and seventy-five (175) employees were selected for the study. The sample for this study were selected from the population, in accordance with a study conducted by Krejeie and Morgan (1970), which illustrates a table for determining the sample size from a given population, as depicted in Appendix B.

The study adopted a simple random sampling technique in determining the sample size for the study. According to Bryman (2016), the simple random technique is a probability sampling procedure that ensures each case in the population has an equal chance of being included in the sample. Therefore, this technique affords everyone in the population to have an equal chance of being included and selected in the sample. This technique was chosen to enable the researcher to elicit vital and quality information from respondents who have reasonable knowledge about issues under investigation and are in position to provide the information needed for the study.

From a population of 318 employees, a sample of one hundred and seventy-five (175) employees were selected for the study. The sample was distributed proportionally across the various faculties in the University and is displayed in Table 1 below.

Table 1: Sampled Employees for the Study

Faculties	Population	Sample size
Faculty of Engineering	70	40
Faculty of Applied Sciences	78	42
Faculty of Business Studies	70	40
Faculty of Applied Arts and Technology	51	30
Faculty of Built and Natural Environment	49	23
Total	**318**	**175**

Source: Field Work (2019)

Data Collection Instrument

The research instrument that was used for data collection was a questionnaire. This is very useful in social science research (Arnold & Randall, 2010). Questionnaire is a formalised set of questions for obtaining information from respondents (Malhotra, Birks & Wills, 2013). Close-ended questions were used to elicit responses needed to answer the research questions and achieve the objectives set for this study. The closed-ended questions require the respondent to choose from among a given set of responses and require the respondent to examine each possible response independent of the other choice.

The close-ended items employed checklist, a list of behaviour, characteristics or other entities that the researcher is investigating. It also employed a Likert scale, which is more useful when behaviour, attitude or other phenomenon

36

of interest needs to be evaluated in a continuum (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). Groves, Fowler, Couper, Lepkowski, Singer and Tourangeau (2011) posits that there are distinct advantages in using questionnaires rather than interview methodology. One of such advantage is that questionnaires are less expensive and easier to administer than personal interview. Groves et al (2011) indicates that mailed surveys, for example, are extremely efficient at providing information in a relatively brief period time at low cost to the researcher.

The questionnaire was made up of three subdivisions. These subdivisions were in line with the specific objectives of this study. section "A" covered the demographic information of the respondents. Section "B" on the other hand dealt with the leadership styles at TTU. Section ''C'' addressed performance of staffs at TTU. The leadership styles were assessed with the use of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Form (MLQ-5X) developed by Avolio, Bass and Jung (1995). The MLQ5X is a standardized instrument which seeks to measure transformational, transactional, autocratic and laissez-fair leadership behaviours. This instrument consists of 48 items that are used on a five-point Likert scale with the following description (1 indicating least level of agreement and 5 indicating highest level of agreement). The reported reliability for the MLQ-5X, ranges from .74 to .94 (Sutherland, 2010; Burkett, 2011).

Validity and Reliability

Reliability and validity are two key components to be considered when evaluating an instrument. The level of the reliability of an instrument is measured by Cronbach's Alpha value. Saunders and Lewis (2012) explained that internal

consistency involves correlating the responses to each question in the questionnaire with those to other questions in the questionnaire. The validity of an instrument, on the other hand, refers to how well and instrument measures the concept it supposed to measure (Saunders et al., 2012). They further argue that an instrument must be reliable before it can be valid, implying that an instrument must be consistently reproducible; and that once this has been achieved, the instrument can then be scrutinised to assess whether it is what it purports to be.

To ensure validity of questionnaires, the researcher reviewed other relevant literature that served as evidence and supported the answers found using the questionnaire, relevance being determined by the nature of their research question and their own judgement (Saunders, et al., 2012). This affirms the assertion by (Zickmund, Babin, Carr & Griffin, 2013) that unlike exploratory research, descriptive studies are conducted after the researcher has gained a firm grasp of the situation being studied. Further, the designed questionnaire was submitted to the project supervisor for vetting, correction and approval before distributing it to the respondents. The findings relating to reliability results for the research instrument are presented on Table 2.

The reliability of the constructs that made up the scale was measured with internal consistency approach (Cronbach's Alpha).

Table 2: Scale Reliability Results

No	Construct	Cronbach's Alpha	No. of items
1	**Transformational Leadership**	0.823	12
2	**Transactional Leadership**	0.784	6
3	**Autocratic Leadership**	0.712	6
4	**Laissez Faire Leadership**	0.841	6
5	**Employee Performance**	0.756	9

Source: Field Survey (2019)

It was also found that all the other constructs were reliable given their respective internal consistency scores: Transformational leadership (Cronbach's Alpha=0.823), Transactional leadership (Cronbach's Alpha=0.784), Autocratic leadership Cronbach's Alpha=0.712), Laissez faire leadership (Cronbach's Alpha=0.841) and Employee performance (Cronbach's Alpha=0.756). This was because all the constructs had Cronbach's Alpha value greater than the minimum cut off point of 0.7 (Pallant, 2013).

Data Collection Procedure

The purpose of the study was explained to the respondents and this paved way for the retrieval of the questionnaires from respondent without difficulty. Formal permission for the data collection was granted by management of various OMCs after introductory letter from School of Business had been submitted to them. The questionnaires were self-administered through drop-and pick method. This ensured high recovery rate (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). The questionnaires were

administered on 14th January 2019 and collected 22nd March 2019. One hundred and fifty-four (154) questionnaires, representing 88% return rate was recorded.

Data Processing and Analysis

Analysis of data is a process of editing, cleaning, transforming, and modelling data with the goal of highlighting useful information, suggestion, conclusions, and supporting decision making (Adèr & Adèr, 2008 as cited in Rampino & Colombo, 2012). The responses from the questionnaires were then edited, coded using Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 22.0 for processing. This statistical software is recommended for us in studies in social sciences (Zickmund et al, 2013). In analysing the data, categories were identified and put into themes for presentation and discussion. Both inferential statistics and descriptive statistics were computed. The first objective was analysed using mean and standard deviation. The second objective was analysed using an independent t-test to test differences in gender. A linear regression analysis was used in assessing the effect of an immediate leader's gender and leadership styles on employee performance in terms of the third objective of the study.

Ethical Considerations

According to Awases (2006), ethics is mostly associated with morality and deals with issues of right and wrong among groups, society or communities. It is therefore important that everyone who is engaged in research should be aware of the ethical concern (Rubin & Babbie, 2016). The study employed every effort to avoid as far as possible violation of ethical principles. Edginton et al. (2012) have identified the basic ethical consideration for research as; respondents being fully

informed about the aim's methods and benefits of the research, granting voluntary consent and maintaining the right of withdrawal. The rationale for the study, assurance of confidentiality and the right of withdrawal was explained to the participants. Also, respondents were assured of anonymity and confidentiality in answering the questionnaire.

Chapter Summary

This chapter has provided information as to how the primary data for the study was collected, organised, analysed and presented for easy comprehension. This chapter also presents information on the design of the study and scientific approach it took in terms of approach to data needs, statistical techniques and systematic enquiry into the investigation under consideration.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

In this study, the main research objective has been, to analyse leadership styles and gender and their influence on employees' performance at the Takoradi Technical University. Based on this main research objective, specific objectives were used to achieve the study goal. In line with these original research objectives and the method used, this chapter provides the findings and discussions which reflect on the core study specific objectives as outlined in Chapter one. The first section provides the demographic profile of the respondents. The second section of the chapter presents the results of the descriptive and inferential (correlation) statistics in accordance with the specific objectives of this study. Finally, a detailed discussion is provided for each finding.

Socio-Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

In order to understand the demographic characteristics of the respondents, the study deemed it fitting to find out the demographic data of the respondents. The demographic characteristics of respondents were in relation to gender, age, rank, length of service, and gender of immediate leader. Table 3 presents demographic statistics on the frequencies and percentages of responses to gender received from the respondents. The results obtained in relation to socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents are shown in Table 3.

Table 3: Demographic Characteristics for Respondents

		Frequency	Percent
Gender	Male	98	64
	Female	56	36
Age	20-30	23	15
	31-40	60	39
	41-50	45	29
	51 and above	26	17
Rank	Senior	73	47
	Junior	81	53
Academic Qualification	1st Degree	20	13
	Masters' Degree	75	49
	Professional	29	19
	PhD	30	19
Length of Service	1-4 years	27	18
	5-10 years	43	28
	11-15 years	39	25
	16 years+	45	29
Gender of Immediate Leader	Male	107	69
	Female	47	31
	Total	**154**	**100**

Source: Field Survey (2019)

Table 2 clearly illustrates that there were more male participants than their female counterparts in this survey. More than half of the respondents (64%) were males while the remaining respondents, (that is 36%) were females. This implies that a lot of males appeared to have been employed in the university. However, with respect to gender inequality in terms of employment in the country, it is surprising. For example, from the Annual Report of Ghana Statistical Service, (2014) it is generally known that labour force participation rate of females remains lower than that of males. In Ghana, the labour force participation rate of females has often trended below that of men even though females constitute over half of the entire population. In addition, the unemployment rate is estimated to be higher among women than men, whilst at the same time, the share of females in wage employment is also lower than that of males.

On the age distribution of the respondents, it was found out that most of the respondents (60) are between the ages of 31 and 40 years representing 39%. This higher percentage of lower level employees gives the impression that there are more inexperienced workers in the university. Again, the result shows that 45 respondents representing (29%) were between 41 to 50 years which implies that relatively a small percentage number of employees are matured and presumably experienced in their career in the. In addition, 26 of the respondents representing (17%) were between the ages of 51 and above. The least age group was those between 23 to 30 representing (15%) in the university. The overall implication is that in the service, a few of the respondents are in their prime age and that the university can be lacking a lot of potentials in terms of development in the future

The Table also shows that majority of respondents, that is, 81 representing (53%) of the sampled population were in junior workers positions, whilst 73 respondents representing (47%) of the population were in senior officers' positions. This implies that the bulk of workers fall within the junior officers' positions in the institutions. Also, with respect to academic qualification, it can be noted that 75 respondents representing (49%) had master's degree education from various fields, while 30 respondents representing (19%) had PhD education. However, a total of 29 representing 19% were the professional studies. With regards to first degree education, 20 of them representing (13%) were found to be in this category. The study results from the table highlight the significance that the university attaches to education as most workers in the institution are qualitatively gifted with educational prowess.

In terms of length of service in the university, it was found that most of them fell within 16 years and above. Within these years, 45 (29%) has worked within them, while 43 (28%) has worked within the years of 5 to 10 years. This is followed by those who have worked between 11 and 15 years with a total number of 39 (25%) while those who have worked between 1 and 4 years make up 27 (18%).

The Findings of the Main Study Objectives

This section presents results and analysis based on the three key questions of this study. Both descriptive and inferential statistics are used in analysing the data. As it has been indicated in the methods, the design of this research is descriptive and adopts a quantitative method. The results and analysis are presented chronologically based on the stated objectives of this study.

What is the Most Common Leadership Style At TTU?

The first research objective sought to assess the most common leadership style at TTU. The respondents were presented with four main types of leadership styles and these were Transformational, Transactional, Laissez-Faire and Autocratic. In this study, respondents were presented with statements that depicted some of the activities under the outlined leadership styles at TTU. This study measured the independent variable leadership styles using the Likert scale of 1-5. This was to show the extent to which these leadership styles were in the university. Thus, this subsection presents the results of the analysis of leadership styles based on the responses obtained from the respondents. The results are shown on table 4 below:

Table 4: Leadership Style at TTU

Leadership style in TTU	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Transformational leadership style	154	4.25	0.61
Transactional leadership style	154	3.74	1.08
Laissez-Faire	154	3.30	1.24
Autocratic	154	2.99	0.71

Source: Field Survey (2019)

The table 3 above helps us to understand the kind of leadership styles that leaders in Takoradi Technical University frequently performed in their positions. From the table, it is known that the mean value of transformational leadership (4.25) is the greatest, which is followed by the mean value of transactional leadership (3.74) and Laissez Faire (3.30) and autocratic (2.99). This means that

46

transformational leadership style is more perceived to be adopted by leaders as compared to the other styles. The implication here is that through the transformational leadership style the employees at TTU are motivated to achieve more rather than what was originally planned. The findings of this study confirm and are supported by loads of findings. Krishnan (2005) showed that the employees can go beyond expectations a leader adopting through the transformational leadership style. Moreover, with the transformational leadership style, the leaders can concentrate on promoting development and strategic thinking in the organisation and carries on the change process more effectively than others. The leaders take care for others and never discriminate based on race, colour, sex, religion, age or social class (Chemjong, 2004).

Hayward, et al (2003) also found transformational leadership to be more effective than transactional leadership in increasing employee performance. The research found a significant positive linear relationship between transformational leadership and employee performance. Again, Tsigu & Rao (2015) in their study "leadership styles: their impact on job outcomes in Ethiopian banking industry" found that transformational leadership style explained the variation on performance better than transactional leadership style. Hence, the researchers recommended that if organisations emphasize more on transformational leadership style dimensions, it would enable them to better satisfy and hence gain more output from their employees.

Thus, transformational leadership would be more effective in achieving higher levels of employee performance in the university. The current university

environment requires this innovative kind of leadership style; a style that empowers employees and raises employee performance to improve organisational performance and continued existence as was revealed in the study by Kotter (1988). The study indicated that transformational leadership style when adopted at the university can lead to increased employee performance at Takoradi Technical University.

What Is the Difference Between Male and Female Leadership Behaviours At TTU?

The second objective of the study sought to assess the difference between male and female leadership behaviours at TTU. Differences will be tested among all dimensions of the various leadership styles in the university. An independent sample T-Test was carried out to assess the difference in perception of the difference between male and female leadership behaviours. The nature of the test meets the underlining assumption of the independent T-test, since there are two categories measured on a nominal level and a continuous data (leadership styles).

48

Table 5: Group Statistics on Leadership Style and Leader's Gender

	Leader's Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Transformational	Male	107	4.0000	.37796	.07019
	Female	47	4.3120	.64026	.05727
Transactional	Male	107	4.1034	.90019	.16716
	Female	47	3.6560	1.10792	.09910
Autocratic	Male	107	2.66	.857	.159
	Female	47	3.06	.657	.059
Laissez-Faire	Male	107	3.1379	1.30176	.24173
	Female	47	3.3360	1.23095	.11010

Source: Field Survey (2019)

Table 5 presents the descriptive statistics of the independent t-test. With respect to the Transformational leadership style, it is evident that Female leaders have the higher leadership behaviour as compared to male leaders (Mean= 4.3120, SD= .64026), the standard deviation indicates that for the female leaders, the responses are dispersed around the mean. However, regarding Transactional leadership style the result indicates that male leaders have the higher leadership behaviour as compared to female leaders (Mean= 4.1034, SD= .90019), the standard deviation indicates that for the female leaders, the responses are dispersed around the mean.

Again, relating to Autocratic leadership style, it is evident that female leaders have the higher leadership behaviour as compared to male leaders (Mean= 3.06, SD= .657), the standard deviation indicates that for the female leaders, the

responses are dispersed around the mean. And the same pattern is repeated for Laissez-Faire. Also, from the results it is evident that female leaders have the higher leadership behaviour as compared to male leaders (Mean= 3.3360, SD= 1.23095), the standard deviation indicates that for the female leaders, the responses are dispersed away the mean. However statistical conclusions cannot be drawn out of the descriptive results, because just the values do not make statistical meaning. Therefore, Table 6 presents results on the statistical significance of the descriptive results to help give an understanding into whether the differing is just as a result of chances or are real statistical differences.

Table 6: Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Df	Std. Error Df	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Transformational	Equal variances assumed	28.144	.000	-2.520	152	.013	-.31200	.12379	-.55658	-.06742
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.444	70.623	.001	-.31200	.09058	-.49264	-.13136
Transactional	Equal variances assumed	3.131	.079	2.024	152	.045	.44745	.22109	.01063	.88426
	Equal variances not assumed			2.303	49.750	.026	.44745	.19433	.05708	.83781
Autocratic	Equal variances assumed	7.828	.006	-2.842	152	.005	-.409	.144	-.693	-.125
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.411	36.005	.021	-.409	.170	-.753	-.065
Laissez-Faire	Equal variances assumed	.001	.970	-.772	152	.441	-.19807	.25647	-.70477	.30863
	Equal variances not assumed			-.746	40.429	.460	-.19807	.26562	-.73474	.33860

Source: Field Survey (2019)

51

The null hypothesis of the Independent sample T-test is that; H_0: There is no significant difference between the groups. One key assumption that underlines Independent sample T-test is the Homogeneity of Variance and this is tested by the Levene's test for equality of variance. With respect to the Transformational leadership style, the Levene's test show a p-value of 0.000 and this is less the p-value of 0.05, hence the variance is not equal. According to Pallant (2015), if the Levene's test is significant, then we reject the Null hypothesis that; H_0: The is significant difference in the variance of the groups. Since our p-value in the test 0.000<0.05, we reject the null hypothesis. This means that the variances are not equal. Therefore, the significant value with respect to Transformational leadership style (equal variances not assumed) is 0.001 and this is less than the p-value of 0.05, this leads to the conclusion that there is a statistically significant difference between male and female leadership behaviour with respect to Transformational leadership style. Thus, female leaders exhibit higher transformational leadership behaviour as compared to male leaders as expressed in Table 5.

Again, an independent t-test was conducted to compare Transactional leadership style between male and female leaders. The results indicate there was no significant difference in mean scores for Male (M= 4.1034, SD=.90019) and Female (M= 3.6560, SD= 1.10792), p = .079. The results indicate that male leaders have a higher perception of leadership behaviour with respect to transactional style than female leaders, and the significant value is equal to 0.05, P=0.05. At best it can be concluded that the difference could be down to mere chance. Hence, male

52

leaders exhibit higher transformational leadership behaviour as compared to female leaders as expressed in Table 5.

Also, with respect to the Autocratic leadership style, the Levene's test show a p-value of 0.006 and this is less the p-value of 0.05, hence the variance is not equal. According to Pallant (2015), if the Levene's test is significant, then we reject the Null hypothesis that; $H_{0:}$ The is significant difference in the variance of the groups. Since our p-value in the test 0.006<0.05, we reject the null hypothesis. This means that the variances are not equal. Therefore, the significant value with respect to Autocratic leadership style (equal variances not assumed) is 0.021 and this is less than the p-value of 0.05, this leads to the conclusion that there is a statistically significant difference between male and female leadership behaviour with respect to Autocratic leadership style. Thus, female leaders exhibit higher autocratic leadership behaviour as compared to male leaders as expressed in Table 5.

Finally, an independent t-test was conducted to compare Laissez-Faire leadership style between male and female leaders. The results indicate there was no significant difference in mean scores for Male (M= 3.1379, SD= 1.30176) and Female (M= 3.3360, SD= 1.23095), p = .970. The results indicate that female leaders have a higher perception of leadership behaviour with respect to Laissez-Faire leadership style than male leaders, and the significant value is greater than 0.05, P=0.441. At best it can be concluded that the difference could be down to mere chance. Hence, female leaders exhibit higher Laissez-Faire leadership behaviour as compared to male leaders as expressed in Table 5.

What is the Effect of Leadership Styles and Leader's Gender on Employee Performance?

The third research objective sought to ascertain the effect of **leadership styles and** leader's gender on employee performance. In this study, respondents were presented with statements related **leadership styles and** leader's gender. This study measured the independent variable leader's gender under male and female. This was to show the gender of leader was existent in the organisation. The results were transformed and regressed against employee performance level. The summary of the model of **leadership styles and** leader's gender on employee performance is presented in Table 7.

Table 7: Model Summary of Leadership Styles and Leader's Gender on Employee Performance

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.504[a]	.254	.249	.48836

a. Predictors: (Constant), Leadership Styles and Leader's Gender

Source: Field Survey (2019)

The results from Table 7 show two values of concern, the R- Correlation Coefficient and the R-Square Coefficient of Determination. The coefficient of Determination indicates the relationship between the Independent and the Dependent variable. It is the proportion of variation in the dependent (employee performance) variable explained by the regression model. An R Square value of .254 indicates that about 25.4% of the variation in the performance of staffs at Takoradi Technical University is accounted for by leadership styles and leader's

54

gender; the remaining variation in performance may be due to other factors not captured in this study. The R value represents the Pearson Correlation coefficient. The R-value of 0.504 indicates a large relationship between leadership styles and leader's gender and employee performance.

Cohen (1992) suggests the following guidelines for the interpretation of the magnitude of correlation coefficient; r=.10 to .29 or r=−.10 to −.29 small, r=.30 to .49 or r=−.30 to −.4.9 medium, r=.50 to 1.0 or r=−.50 to −1.0 large. The results indicate a significant positive relationship between employee performance and leader's gender. Table 8 assess the statistical significance of the regression model.

Table 8: ANOVA[a] of Leadership Styles and Leader's Gender on Employee Performance

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	12.367	1	12.367	51.853	.000[b]
	Residual	36.252	152	.238		
	Total	48.619	153			

a. Dependent Variable: Performance

b. Predictors: (Constant), Leadership Styles and Leader's Gender

Source: Field Survey (2019)

The results of the ANOVA form Table 8 indicate a statistically significant figure of p=.000, as held up by Fidell, Tabachnick, Mestre & Fidell (2013), a significant level of less than or equal to .05 is necessary for social science research. If such a condition is met, then the independent variable does a good job explaining the variation in the dependent variable. In this analysis, the ρ-value is well below .05 (ρ = .000). Therefore, it can be concluded that the R and R^2 Between Leadership

Styles and Leader's Gender and Employee Performance is significant and therefore Leadership Styles and Leader's Gender can significantly influence employee performance. However, the ANOVA fails to indicate the extent of the effect. Table 7 indicates the magnitude of the impact of Leadership Styles and Leader's Gender on the staff performance at Takoradi Technical University.

Table 8: Coefficients[a] of Leadership Styles and Leader's Gender on Employee Performance

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	3.155	.091		34.792	.000
Leadership Styles and Leader's Gender	.725	.101	.504	7.201	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Staff Performance

Source: Field Survey (2019)

The table in the SPSS output labelled coefficients (table 8) provides information that is useful for understanding the regression equation. Under the column marked unstandardized coefficient and sub-column B, the numerical value for the first row, labelled (constant), is the value for the intercept (a) in the regression equation. The significant value p= 0.000 is less than 0.05 for both the independent variable and the constant. Pallant (2015) points out that a significant value of <0.05 indicates that the variable has a significant impact on the dependent variable. It can, therefore, be concluded leadership styles and leader's gender has a significant impact on the staff performance of Takoradi Technical University. The

table further shows a Beta of .504 which indicates a strong impact of the independent variable on the dependent.

Table 9: Mean Level of Performance Based on Leader's Gender

Leader's Gender	Mean	N	Std. Deviation
Male	3.1552	107	.68274
Female	3.8800	47	.43255
Total	3.7435	154	.56371

Source: Field Survey (2019)

Following from the positive effect of leadership styles and leader's gender on employee performance at TTU, the study sought to assess the mean performance level of teaching staff at TTU based on the gender of their immediate leader. The results as shown in Table 9 indicates that staffs with female leader report an average performance higher than their staffs with male leaders (Mean= 3.88, SD= .43), employees with male leaders (Mean= 3.16, SD= .682). The results affirm the fact that a leader's gender with a leadership styles is key in stimulating higher employee performance and it can be concluded that, within institutions of higher learning, female leadership is key to achieving higher employee performance levels.

The third research objective sought to ascertain the effect of leadership styles and leader's gender on employee performance at TTU. The respondents of the study believe that female leadership is key to achieving higher employee performance levels at Takoradi Technical University. This confirms study findings according to Appelbaum and Shapiro (1993) also hold the view that women have an interactive style of leadership that includes more people oriented and participative in nature than men. They suggested that women are more relationship

oriented, cooperative, nurturing and emotional in their leadership roles than men and these views are like. These arguments are consistent with sex-role stereotypes which include the notion that men tend to be more task-oriented whereas women also tend to be more people oriented.

Johnson (1993), on the other hand, found no differences between self, subordinate and observational instruments on sex comparisons of the directive and supportive behaviours by students acting as leaders in an organisational simulation. None of these instruments showed a sex difference in stereotypical direction. Furthermore, Helgesen (1990) suggested that women have a different leadership style which can bring benefits to the organisation. In their view, women are more inclined to take a fresh perspective, identify what is not working and develop new solutions. Helgesen (1990) further argued that compared with their male peers, women leaders are more willing to share power, make decisions and solve problems based on shared ideas and information. Women are also willing to encourage the participation of subordinates at work and allow free expression whereas men are less likely to do the same.

Thus, increasing the number female supervisors enhances employee's productivity. The study indicated a positive relationship between female leader and employee performance meaning that adopting feminine leadership at the university can lead to increased employee performance at Takoradi Technical University.

Chapter Summary

The chapter has provided an analysis of the data with respect to the key objectives of the study. The chapter began with a provision of key descriptive

characteristics to understand the nature of the respondents of this study. The key demographic results have indicated that males are more than female at the organisation and the young age group are more than the older. The first research objective sought to assess the most common leadership style at TTU. This means that transformational leadership style is more perceived to be adopted by leaders as compared to the other styles. The implication here is that through the transformational leadership style the employees are motivated to achieve more rather than what was originally planned.

The second objective of the study sought to assess the difference between male and female leadership behaviours at TTU. The results showed that with respect to the Transformational leadership style, it was evident that Female leaders have the higher leadership behaviour as compared to male leaders. Regarding Transactional leadership style the result indicated that male leaders have the higher leadership behaviour as compared to female leaders. Again, relating to Autocratic leadership style, it was evident that female leaders have the higher leadership behaviour as compared to male leaders. Finally, relating to Laissez-Faire, it was evident that female leaders have the higher leadership behaviour as compared to male leaders.

The third research objective sought to ascertain the effect of leadership styles and leader's gender on employee performance at TTU. The respondents of the study believe that female leadership is key to achieving higher employee performance levels at Takoradi Technical University. The results showed that

adopting feminine leadership at the university can lead to increased employee

performance at Takoradi Technical University.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter presents a summary of the findings that emerged from the study and data analysis. It draws conclusions and makes recommendations on how best they can sustain and promote a proper working environment in order to increase employees' performance of the organisation. Finally, the suggestion for future research is also made.

Summary of the Study

The purpose of this study was to analyse leadership styles and gender and their influence on employees' performance at the Takoradi Technical University as an organisation. There were three main specific objectives, which the study aimed to achieve, and these included:

1. to assess the most common leadership style at TTU,

2. to test the difference between male and female leadership behaviours at TTU, and

3. to assess the effect of leadership styles and leader's gender on employee performance at TTU.

The study was based on the views of 154 employees from the study area. A self-administered questionnaire was the main research instrument. The questionnaire contained several questions (items) and was subdivided into subscales. The instrument consisted 48 items that are used on a five-point Likert

61

scale with the following description (1 indicating least level of agreement and 5 indicating highest level of agreement).

Key Findings

The results from the survey were analysed with the help of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS 22.0 version) software. The major findings as they related to the specific objectives of the study have been summarized as follows. The first research objective sought to assess the most common leadership style at TTU. The respondents were presented with four main types of leadership styles and these were Transformational, Transactional, Laissez-Faire and Autocratic. The study measured the independent variable leadership styles using the Likert scale of 1-5. This was to show the extent to which these leadership styles were in the university. The results indicated that the mean value of transformational leadership is the greatest, which is followed by the mean value of transactional leadership and laissez faire and autocratic. This means that transformational leadership style is more perceived to be adopted by leaders as compared to the other styles.

The second objective of the study sought to assess the difference between male and female leadership behaviours at TTU. Differences were tested among all dimensions of the various leadership styles in the university. With respect to the Transformational leadership style, it was evident that Female leaders have the higher leadership behaviour as compared to male leaders. However, regarding Transactional leadership style the result indicated that male leaders have the higher leadership behaviour as compared to female leaders. Again, relating to Autocratic

leadership style, it was evident that female leaders have the higher leadership behaviour as compared to male leaders. And the same pattern is repeated for Laissez-Faire. Also, from the results it was evident that female leaders have the higher leadership behaviour as compared to male leaders.

The third research objective sought to ascertain the effect of leadership styles and leader's gender on employee performance. This study measured the independent variable leader's gender under male and female. The significant value p= 0.000 is less than 0.05 for both the independent variable and the constant. Pallant (2015) points out that a significant value of <0.05 indicates that the variable has a significant impact on the dependent variable. The results also indicated a strong impact of the independent variable on the dependent. The study further sought to assess the mean performance level of teaching staff at TTU based on the gender of their immediate leader. The results indicated that staffs with female leader report an average performance higher than their staffs with male leader, employees with male leader.

Conclusions

The study assessed leadership styles of Takoradi Technical University staff by gender and how it affects performance of employees in the university. The key areas the study analysed include analyses of how gender relates to staff leadership styles in the University as well as ways men and women lead in the institution. The study concludes by examining the relationship between leadership styles being practiced by staff and their efficient performance and productivity. It was discovered that gender determines staff leadership styles. Although both male and

63

female staff in the university practiced transformational leadership characteristics than the other leadership behavioural traits, female staff slightly dominated their male counterparts in the practice of transformational leadership styles whilst the male staff also exceeded the female staff in the practice of transactional leadership styles.

The study concludes that transformational leadership styles were more likely to promote efficient performance and productivity of staff than transactional, autocratic and laissez-faire leadership styles.

Recommendation

On the bases of the above conclusions, the following recommendations are made. From the conclusions made in the study, it is recommended that the University authority should not concentrate on monitoring staff mistakes, deviations and irregularities as these would demoralise and reduce their efficient performance. The management should rather allow self-direction among staff to encourage innovative behaviour among them. In addition, the University authority should encourage the use of consensus building in decision making and allow participation of all staff, irrespective of their sex or ranks, in policy formulations and implementations. These would inculcate into the staff a sense of belongingness and the need for them to contribute their quota to the development of the university.

Also, it is recommended that university authority should encourage female-staff participation in Academic Board and its sub-committees so that the they would not only be liberated from marginalisation but would also access the necessary platform to influence the developmental change the institution wants to achieve.

64

The study also proved that transformational behavioural characteristics lead to more efficient performance and productivity among staff than other leadership styles. For this reason, the study recommends that staff should adopt more of leadership characteristics which are transformational in nature than other leadership characteristics.

It is further recommended that the university authority and management in general should regularly offer leadership trainings to staff. These will expose them to knowledge of best leadership practices required for efficient performance and productivity in corporate institutions. Finally, it is recommended that further research be conducted into other aspects of leadership such as leadership styles of public and private sector workers, leadership styles, factors influencing people's leadership styles and effects of leadership styles on labour turn-over in the Ghanaian tertiary institutions.

Suggestions for Future Studies

Against the background of the limitations of this study, future studies could use the mixed method to further explore the relationship between leadership styles, organisational characteristics, and employees' performance. Alongside the quantitative method, the mixed method could help the use of qualitative approach which could help explore in details employees' perceptions of leadership styles and organisational performance. The second recommendation is that researchers in the future could use a longitudinal study for evaluating the effectiveness of the various leadership styles. This will help in understanding how leadership operates over time and learning the extent to which leadership influences faculty job performance.

REFERENCES

Adèr, H. J. (2008). *Advising on research methods: A consultant's companion*. Johannes van Kessel Publishing.

Appelbaum, S. H., & Shapiro, B. T. (1993). Why Can′t Men Lead Like Women? *Leadership & Organisation Development Journal*, *14*(7), 28-34.

Armstrong, M. (2006). *A handbook of human resource management practice*. Kogan Page Publishers.

Arvey, R. D., Rotundo, M., Johnson, W., Zhang, Z., & McGue, M. (2006). The determinants of leadership role occupancy: Genetic and personality factors. Leadership Quarterly, 17, 1–20.

Awadh, A. M., & Wan Ismail, W. (2012). The impact of personality traits and employee work-related attitudes on employee performance with the moderating effect of organisational culture: the case of Saudi Arabia. *Asian Journal of Business and Management Sciences*, *1*(10), 108-127.

Awases, M. H. (2006). Factors affecting performance of professional nurses in Namibia [PhD. thesis]. *University of South Africa*.

Bass, B. M. (1997). Does the transactional–transformational leadership paradigm transcend organisational and national boundaries? *American psychologist*, *52*(2), 130.

Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1995). MLQ multifactor leadership questionnaire technical report. *Binghamton University, NY: Center for Leadership Studies*.

66

Bass, B. M., & Riggio, R. E. (2006). *Transformational leadership*. Psychology press.

Bass, B. M., & Stogdill, R. M. (1990). *Bass & Stogdill's handbook of leadership: Theory, research, and managerial applications*. Simon and Schuster.

Bass, B.M. (1985) Leadership & Performance Beyond Expectations. New York, NY: Free Press.

Bennis, W. (2009). *On becoming a leader*. Basic Books.

Bern, S. L. (1981). Gender schema theory: A cognitive account of sex typing. *Psychological Review*, *88*, 354–364.

Bernard, H. R., & Bernard, H. R. (2012). *Social research methods: Qualitative and quantitative approaches*. Sage.

Blau, P. 1964. Exchange and power in social life. New York: Wiley

Bolton, S., & Muzio, D. (2008). The paradoxical processes of feminisation in the professions: the case of established, aspiring and semi-professions. *Work, employment and society*, *22*(2), 281-299.

Bryman, A. (2016). *Social research methods*. Oxford university press.

Burns, J.M. (1998), "Transactional and transforming leadership", in Hickman, G.R. (Ed.), Leading Organisations, Sage Publications, Thousand Oaks, CA, pp. 133-4.

Calas, M. B., & Smircich, L. (1996). From "the women's" point of view: Feminist approaches to organisation studies. In S. Clegg, C. Hardy, & W. Nord (Eds.), *Handbook of Organisation Studies*. London: Sage.

Carless, S. A. (1998). Gender differences in transformational leadership: An examination of superior, leader, and subordinate perspectives. *Sex roles*, *39*(11-12), 887-902.

Chandrasekar, K. (2011). Workplace environment and its impact on organisational performance in public sector organisations. *International journal of enterprise computing and business systems*, *1*(1), 1-19.

Chemjong, M. (2004). Transactional or transformational leader. *Spotlight*, *24*(2), 261-63.

Cohen, J. (1992). A power primer. *Psychological bulletin*, *112*(1), 155.

Creswell, J. W. (2014). *A concise introduction to mixed methods research*. SAGE publications.

Cuadrado, I., Morales, J. F., & Recio, P. (2008). Women's access to managerial positions: An experimental study of leadership styles and gender. *The Spanish Journal of Psychology*, *11*(1), 55-65.

Darwin, C. (1859). *The Origin of Species; And, the Descent of Man*. Modern library.

Davidson, L., Gordon, L. K., Kramer, L., Huck, G., & Heim, H. (1979). *The sociology of gender*. Rand McNally College Pub. Co.

DeCremer, D. (Ed.). (2007). *Advances in the psychology of justice and affect*. IAP.

Dobbins, G. H., & Platz, S. J. (1986). Sex differences in leadership: How real are they? Academy of Management Review, 11, 118-127.

Dulewicz, V., & Higgs, M. (2005). Assessing leadership styles and organisational context. *journal of Managerial Psychology*, *20*(2), 105-123.

Eagly, A. H. (2013). *Sex differences in social behaviour: A social-role interpretation*. Psychology Press.

Eagly, A. H., & Carli, L. L. (2003). The female leadership advantage: An evaluation of the evidence. *The leadership quarterly*, *14*(6), 807-834.

Eagly, A. H., & Johannesen-Schmidt, M. C. (2001). The leadership styles of women and men. *Journal of social issues*, *57*(4), 781-797.

Eagly, A. H., & Johnson, B. T. (1990). Gender and leadership style: A meta-analysis. *Psychological bulletin*, *108*(2), 233.

Eagly, A. H., & Karau, S. J. (2002). Role congruity theory of prejudice toward female leaders. *Psychological review*, *109*(3), 573.

Eagly, A. H., Eagly, L. L. C. A. H., & Carli, L. L. (2007). *Through the labyrinth: The truth about how women become leaders*. Harvard Business Press.

Eagly, A. H., Johannesen-Schmidt, M. C., & Van Engen, M. L. (2003). Transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles: a meta-analysis comparing women and men. *Psychological bulletin*, *129*(4), 569.

Eagly, A.H., Wood, W., Diekman, A.B., 2000. Social role theory of sex differences and similarities: A current appraisal. In: Eckes, T., Trautner, H.M. (Eds.), The Developmental Social Psychology of Gender. Erlbaum, Mahwah, NJ, pp. 123–174.

Edginton, M., Enarson, D., Zachariah, R., Reid, T., Satyanarayana, S., Bissell, K., & Harries, A. D. (2012). Why ethics is indispensable for good-quality operational research. *Public Health Action*, *2*(1), 21-22.

Fernandez, S. (2008). Examining the effects of leadership behaviour on employee perceptions of performance and job satisfaction. *Public Performance & Management Review*, *32*(2), 175-205.

Fidell, S., Tabachnick, B., Mestre, V., & Fidell, L. (2013). Aircraft noise-induced awakenings are more reasonably predicted from relative than from absolute sound exposure levels. *The Journal of the Acoustical Society of America*, *134*(5), 3645-3653.

Forrester, R. (2000). Empowerment: Rejuvenating a potent idea. Academy of Management Executive, 14(3), 67-79.

Fortune, A. E., Lee, M., & Cavazos, A. (2007). Does practice make perfect? Practicing professional skills and outcomes in social work field education. *The clinical supervisor*, *26*(1-2), 239-263.

Gardner, J. W. (1990). On leadership. Toronto, Ontario, Canada: Maxwell Macmillan.

Gardner, J., & Gardner, J. W. (1993). *On leadership*. Simon and Schuster.

Ghana. Statistical Service. (2014). *2010 population and housing census report*. Ghana Statistical Service.

Gilley, A., Gilley, J. W., & McMillan, H. S. (2009). Organisational change: Motivation, communication, and leadership effectiveness. *Performance improvement quarterly*, *21*(4), 75-94.

Goktope, J.R. and Schneier, C.E. (1988), "Sex and gender effects in evaluating emergent

Groves, R. M., Fowler Jr, F. J., Couper, M. P., Lepkowski, J. M., Singer, E., & Tourangeau, R. (2011). *Survey methodology* (Vol. 561). John Wiley & Sons.

Hackman, M. Z., & Johnson, C. E. (2004). *Leadership: A communication perspective*. Long Grove, Ill: Waveland Press.

Hare, A. P., Koenigs, R. J., & Hare, S. E. (1997). Perceptions of observed and model values of male and female managers. *Journal of Organisational Behaviour: The International Journal of Industrial, Occupational and Organisational Psychology and Behaviour*, *18*(5), 437-447.

Hayward, B. A., Davidson, A. J., Pascoe, J. B., Tasker, M. L., Amos, T. L., & Pearse, N. J. (2003, June). The relationship between leadership and employee performance in a South African pharmaceutical company. In *Society for Industrial and Organisational Psychology 6th Annual Conference* (pp. 25-27).

Helgesen, S.: 1990, The Female Advantage: Women's Ways of Leadership (Doubleday, New York).

Howell, J. P. (1997). "Substitutes for leadership: Their meaning and measurement"—An historical assessment. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *8*(2), 113-116.

Ibrahim, A. B., Soufani, K., Poutziouris, P., & Lam, J. (2004). Qualities of an effective successor: the role of education and training. *Education+ training*, *46*(8/9), 474-480.

Johnson, C. (1993). Gender and formal authority. *Social psychology quarterly*, 193-210.

Johnson, K. L., Gill, S., Reichman, V., & Tassinary, L. G. (2007). Swagger, sway, and sexuality: Judging sexual orientation from body motion and morphology. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 93, 321-334.

Kahn, W. A. (1990). Psychological conditions of personal engagement and disengagement at work. *Academy of management journal*, *33*(4), 692-724.

Kakabadse, A., & Kakabadse, N. (1999). *Essence of leadership*. Cengage Learning EMEA.

Kanter, R. M. (1997). Rosabeth Moss Kanter on the frontiers of management.

Kark, R. (2004). The transformational leader: Who is (s) he? A feminist perspective. *Journal of Organisational Change Management*, *17*(2), 160-176.

Kim, H. S., & Shim, S. (2003). Gender-based approach to the understanding of leadership roles among retail managers. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, *14*(3), 321-342.

Knudsen, K., & Wærness, K. (2009). Shared or separate? Money management and changing norms of gender equality among Norwegian couples. *Community, Work & Family*, *12*(1), 39-55.

Kolb, J. A. (1999). The effect of gender role, attitude toward leadership, and self-confidence on leader emergence: Implications for leadership development. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, *10*(4), 305-320.

Komives, S. R. (1991). Gender differences in the relationship of hall directors' transformational and transactional leadership and achieving styles. *Journal of College Student Development*.

Komives, S. R. (1991). The relationship of same-and cross-gender work pairs to staff performance and supervisor leadership in residence hall units. *Sex Roles*, *24*(5-6), 355-363.

Korabik, K., Baril, G. L., & Watson, C. (1993). Managers' conflict management style and leadership effectiveness: The moderating effects of gender. *Sex roles*, *29*(5-6), 405-420.

Kotler, P., & Keller, K. L. (2013). Marketing Management Horizon edition. *Englan: Pearson Education*.

Kotter, J.P. (1990). A force for change: How leadership differs from management. New York: Free Press.

Krejcie, R. V., & Morgan, D. W. (1970). Determining sample size for research activities. *Educational and psychological measurement*, *30*(3), 607-610.

Krider, E. P., & Radda, G. J. (1975). Radiation field wave forms produced by lightning stepped leaders. *Journal of Geophysical Research*, *80*(18), 2653-2657.

Krishnan, J. (2005). Audit committee quality and internal control: An empirical analysis. *The accounting review*, *80*(2), 649-675.

leadership in small groups", *Sex Roles*, 19 (1-2), pp. 29-36.

Leedy, P. D., & Ormrod, J. (2010). E. 2010. Practical Research: Planning and Design. *Ohio, Merrill Prentice Hall*.

Lewis, A. E., & Fagenson-Eland, E. A. (1998). The influence of gender and organisation level on perceptions of leadership behaviors: A self and supervisor comparison. *Sex Roles*, *39*(5-6), 479-502.

Li, W. D., Arvey, R. D., & Song, Z. (2011). The influence of general mental ability, self-esteem and family socioeconomic status on leadership role occupancy and leader advancement: The moderating role of gender. *The Leadership Quarterly*, *22*(3), 520-534.

Lincoln, Y. S., Lynham, S. A., & Guba, E. G. (2011). Paradigmatic controversies, contradictions, and emerging confluences, revisited. *The Sage handbook of qualitative research*, *4*, 97-128.

Lorber, J. (2005). *Breaking the bowls: Degendering and feminist change*. New York: WW Norton.

Malhotra, N. K., Birks, D. F., & Wills, P. (2013). *Essentials of marketing research*. Harlow: Pearson.

Marini, M. M. (1990, March). Sex and gender: What do we know?. In *Sociological Forum* (Vol. 5, No. 1, pp. 95-120). Kluwer Academic Publishers-Plenum Publishers.

Mayfield, J., and M. Mayfield. 1998. "Increasing Worker Outcomes by Improving Leader Follower Relations." Journal of Leadership Studies, 5(1): 72-81.

McLeod, S. (2007). Bowlby's attachment theory. *Simply Psychology*.

McShane, S.L. and Von Glinow, M.A. (2000) Organisational Behaviour. Burr Ridge, IL: Irwin/McGraw-Hill.

Mishler, E. G. (1995). Models of narrative analysis: A typology. *Journal of narrative and life history*, *5*(2), 87-123.

Mujtaba, B. G., & Alsua, C. J. (2011). Task and relationship orientation of Americans: a study of gender, age, and work experience. *Journal of Behavioral Studies in Business*, *3*, 1.

Nayab, N. (2010). Characteristics of Transformational Leadership. *What is transformational Leadership*.

Newman, A., Thanacoody, R., & Hui, W. (2010). The Impact of Employee Perceptions of Training on Organisational Commitment and Turnover Intentions: A Study of Multinationals in the Chinese Service Sector.

Nicholson, N., & West, M. (1988). *Managerial job change: Men and women in transition*. Cambridge University Press.

Nikezic, S., Puric, S., & Puric, J. (2012). Transactional and transformational leadership: Development through changes. *International Journal for Quality Research*, *6*(3), 285-296.

Niranjana, P., & Pattanayak, B. (2005). Influence of learned optimism and organisational ethos on organisational citizenship behaviour: A study on Indian corporations. *International Journal of Human Resources Development and Management*, *5*(1), 85-98.

Oakeley, A. (1972): Sex, Gender and Society: Towards a New Society, London, Maurice Temple Smith Ltd.

Oakley, J. G. (2000). Gender-based barriers to senior management positions: Understanding the scarcity of female CEOs. *Journal of business ethics*, *27*(4), 321-334.

Odumeru, J. A., & Ifeanyi, G. O. (2013). Transformational vs transactional leadership theories: Evidence in literature. International Review of Management and Business Research, 2, 355– 361.

Ogbonna, E., & Harris, L. C. (2000). Leadership style, organisational culture and performance: empirical evidence from UK companies. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, *11*(4), 766-788.

Özaralli, N. (2003). Effects of transformational leadership on empowerment and team effectiveness. *Leadership & Organisation Development Journal*, *24*(6), 335-344.

Pallant, J. (2015). SPSS Survival Manual. Open University Press, Berkshire.

Park, D. (1996). Gender role, decision style and leadership style. *Women in management Review*, *11*(8), 13-17.

Peterson, V. S., & Runyan, A. S. (2009). *Global gender issues in the new millennium*. Westview Press.

Pollitt, Christopher, and Geert Bouckaert. 2004. Public management reform: A comparative analysis. 2d ed. Oxford: Oxford University Press

Polston-Murdoch, L. (2013). An Investigation of path-goal theory, relationship of leadership style, supervisor-related commitment, and gender. *Emerging Leadership Journeys*, *6*(1), 13-44.

Powell, G.N. (2000) 'The Glass Ceiling: Examining the Good and the Bad News'. In Davdison, M.J. and Burke, R.J. (eds) Women in Management: Current Research Issues, Vol. II. London: Sage Publications.

Prasetya, A., & Kato, M. (2011, April). Employees' perception towards the performance assessment system and salary system. In *Proceeding from ICETD (International Conference on Economics, Trade, and Development)-Bali Island* (pp. 196-200).

Rampino, L., & Colombo, S. (2012). Toward a taxonomy of design-research methods. *Design Research: Between Scientific Method and Project Praxis. Notes on Doctoral Research in Design 2012: Notes on Doctoral Research in Design 2012*, 109.

Rast III, D. E., Hogg, M. A., & Giessner, S. R. (2013). Self-uncertainty and support for autocratic leadership. *Self and Identity*, *12*(6), 635-649.

Rohmann, A., & Rowold, J. (2009). Gender and leadership style: A field study in different organisational contexts in Germany. *Equal opportunities international*, *28*(7), 545-560.

Rosener, J. B.: 1990, 'Ways Women Lead', Harvard Business Review 68, 119-125.

Rubin, A., & Babbie, E. R. (2016). *Empowerment series: Research methods for social work*. Cengage Learning.

Sakata, K., & Kurokawa, M. (1992). Sex differences in leader behavior from the perspective of attitudes toward sex roles and influence strategies. *The Japanese Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *31*(3), 187-202.

Saks, A. M. (2006). Antecedents and consequences of employee engagement. Journal of Managerial Psychology, 21(7), 600-619.

Saunders, M. N., & Lewis, P. (2012). *Doing research in business & management: An essential guide to planning your project*. Pearson.

Schein, E. H. (2010). *Organisational culture and leadership* (Vol. 2). John Wiley & Sons.

Schriesheim, C. A., Wu, J. B., & Scandura, T. A. (2009). A meso measure? Examination of the levels of analysis of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). *The Leadership Quarterly*, *20*(4), 604-616.

Sekaran, U., & Bougie, R. (2016). *Research methods for business: A skill building approach*. John Wiley & Sons.

Seligman, M. (2011). *What you can change... and what you can't: the complete guide to successful self-improvement*. Hachette UK.

Sosik, J. J., & Jung, D. I. (2010). Full range leadership development: Pathways for people, profit and planet. New York, NY: Rutledge

Sosik, J. J., Avolio, B. J., & Kahai, S. S. (1997). Effects of leadership style and anonymity on group potency and effectiveness in a group decision support system environment. *Journal of applied psychology*, *82*(1), 89.

Spence, J. T., & Helmreich, R. L. (1979). Comparison of masculine and feminine personality attributes and sex-role attitudes across age groups. *Developmental Psychology*, *15*(5), 583.

Spreitzer, G. M., & Mishra, A. K. (1999). Giving up control without losing control: Trust and its substitutes' effects on managers' involving employees in decision making. *Group & Organisation Management*, *24*(2), 155-187.

Stangor, C., & Ruble, D. N. (1987). Development of gender role knowledge and gender constancy. *New Directions for Child and Adolescent Development*, *1987*(38), 5-22.

Stelter, N. Z. (2002). Gender differences in leadership: Current social issues and future organisational implications. *Journal of Leadership Studies*, *8*(4), 88-99.

Stewart J. and CJEAP (2006). ''Transformational Leadership: An Evolving Concept Examined through the Works of Burns, Bass, Avolio, and Leithwood''. Canadian Journal of Educational Administration and Policy, Issue #54, June 26, pp.1-29

Sullivan, K. W. & Decker, S. B. (2001). Perceived Intergrity of Transformational Leaders in Organisational Settings. *Journal of Business Ethics,* Vol. 35 No.2 pp.75 - 96.

Tashakkori, A., & Teddlie, C. (2010). Putting the human back in ''human research methodology'': The researcher in mixed methods research.

Tichy, N. M., & Ulrich, D. O. (1984). SMR forum: The leadership challenge--A call for the transformational leader. *Sloan Management Review (pre-1986)*, *26*(1), 59.

Tsigu, G. T., & Rao, D. P. (2015). Leadership styles: their impact on job outcomes in Ethiopian banking industry. *ZENITH International Journal of Business Economics & Management Research*, *5*(2), 41-52.

Waldman, D. A., Ramirez, G. G., House, R. J., & Puranam, P. 2001. Does leadership matter? CEO leadership attributes and profitability under conditions of perceived environmental uncertainty. Academy of Management Journal, 44: 134-143.

Walsh, M. R. (Ed.). (1997). *Women, men, & gender: Ongoing debates*. Yale University Press.

Williams, C. (2007). Research methods. *Journal of Business & Economics Research (JBER)*, *5*(3).

Williams, D., Consalvo, M., Caplan, S., & Yee, N. (2009). Looking for gender: Gender roles and behaviours among online gamers. *Journal of communication*, *59*(4), 700-725.

Wood, W., & Eagly, A. H. (2010). Gender. In S. T. Fiske, D. T. Gilbert, & G. Lindzey (Eds.), *Handbook of social psychology* (5th ed., Vol. 2, pp. 629-667). New York: Wiley.

Xiaoxia, P., Xiaoxia, P., & Jing, W. (2006). Transformational leadership VS. *Transactional leadership: the influence of gender and culture on leadership styles of SMEs in China and Sweden (Unpublished master dissertation).* Kristianstad University, Sweden.

Yukl, G. (2012). Effective leadership behaviour: What we know and what questions need more attention. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, *26*(4), 66-85.

Zikmund, W. G., Carr, J. C., Babin, B., & Griffin, M. (2013). *Business research methods*. Nelson Education.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: INTRODUCTORY LETTER

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

SCHOOL OF BUSINESS

DEPARTMENT OF HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

Telephone:	**03321 32440/32444 Ext. 219/220**	**UNIVERSITY POST OFFICE**
Direct:	**03321 37870**	**CAPE COAST, GHANA**
Telegrams:	**University, Cape Coast**	
Telex:	**2552, UCC, GH.**	

Dear Sir/Madam,

INTRODUCTORY LETTER FOR HELLEN WILSON ENYI OKPA

The bearer of this letter, Hellen WILSON ENYI OKPA is an MBA (Human Resource Management) student of the School of Business. He is writing his dissertation on "Effect of Leadership Style and Leader's Gender and Employee Performance: Evidence from Takoradi Technical University".

We would be grateful if you could assist him with the filling of the questionnaires and any other information that he may need to complete his work.

We appreciate your co-operation.

Yours faithfully,

Signed

R. O. M.
HEAD

82

APPENDIX B: QUESTIONNAIRE

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

SCHOOL OF BUSINESS

DEPARTMENT OF HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

Dear Sir/Madam,

I am a student researcher from the above University pursuing an MBA programme in Human Resource Management and undertaking a research study on the topic "**EFFECTS OF LEADERSHIP STYLES AND LEADER'S GENDER AND EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE: EVIDENCE FROM TAKORADI TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY**". Information is needed from you for the success of this study by responding to the questions below. Kindly be assured that your responses would be treated with utmost confidentiality and will only be used for the purpose of this academic research. Thank you for your time.

Section A: Demographic Information of Respondents

1. Please indicate your gender

    a. Male [   ]   b. Female [   ]

2. Please indicate which age group you fall into

    a. 20-30 [   ]   b. 31-40 [   ]   c. 41-50 [   ]   d. 51years and above [   ]

3. What is your position in the university? Tick appropriately.
    a. Senior [   ]   b. Junior [ ]

4. What is your level of education?

    a. PhD   [   ]   b. Master's [   ]   c. 1st Degree [   ] d. Professional [   ]

5. How long have you been a staff of the University?

    a.   1-4yrs [   ]   b. 5-10yrs [   ]   c. 11-15yrs [   ]   d. 16yrs+ [   ]

6. Please specify the gender of your immediate head or supervisor

    a. Male [   ]   b. Female [   ]

SECTION B: LEADERSHIP STYLE EXHIBITED AT THE UNIVERSITY

The sets of statements in the table below are aimed at helping you assess your perceptions of the leadership style of your immediate supervisor. You are requested to rate your head against each statement to indicate your level of agreement with what the statement is suggesting, where the following ratings are

Where: 1- indicates least in agreement and 5-indicating the highest level of agreement.

Please place a tick (√) or a mark (x) in the box (cell) that represents your appropriate level of agreement

TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP					
Idealized Influence (II)	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
1. My supervisor makes others feel good to be around him / her					
2. I have complete faith in my supervisor					
3.I am proud to be associated with my supervisor					
Inspirational Motivation (IM)	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
1. My supervisor expresses in a few simple words what we could and should do					
2. My supervisor provides appealing images about what we can do					
3. My supervisor helps me find meaning in my work					
Intellectual Simulation (IS)	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
1. My supervisor enables others to think about old problems in new ways					
2. My supervisor provides others with new ways of looking at puzzling things.					
3. My supervisor gets others to rethink ideas that they had never questioned before.					
Individual Consideration (IC)	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
1. My supervisor helps others develop themselves					
2. My supervisor lets others know how he /she thinks we are doing					
3. My supervisor gives personal attention to others who seem rejected.					

84

TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP					
Contingent Reward (CR)	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
1. My supervisor tells others what to do if they want to be rewarded for their Work					
2. My supervisor provides recognition/rewards when others reach their goals.					
3. My supervisor calls attention to what others can get for what they accomplish.					
Management by exception (MBE)	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
1. My supervisor is always satisfied when others meet agreed-upon standards					
2. If things are working, my supervisor do not try to change anything					
3. My supervisor tells us the standards we have to know to carry out our work					
AUTHORITATIVE LEADERSHIP	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
1. Our leader believes employees need to be supervised closely they are not likely to do their work.					
2. As a rule, our leader believes that employees must be given rewards or punishments in order to motivate them to achieve organisational objectives.					
3. I feel insecure about my work and need direction.					
4. Our leader is the chief judge of the achievements of employees.					
5. Our leader gives orders and clarifies procedures					
6. Our leader believes that most employees in the general population are lazy.					
LAISSEZ FAIRE LEADERSHIP	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
1.In complex situations Our leader allows me to work my problems out on my own way					
2. Our leader stays out of the way as I do my work					
3. As a rule, our leader allows me to appraise my own work.					
4. Our leader gives me complete freedom to solve problems on my own.					
6. In general Our leader feels it's best to leave subordinates alone.					

SECTION C: EMPLOYEE PERFORMANCE AT THE UNIVERISTY

Instruction: Please, based on the leadership style of your head or supervisor, assess your job performance in carrying out your duties by ticking the most appropriate level of agreement to the statements below.

Where: 1- indicates least in agreement and 5-indicating the highest level of agreement.

Statement	1	2	3	4	5
1. I am able to meet my work and sales deadlines. (Work output)					
2. I adequately complete my assigned duties (Work efficiency).					
3. I fulfil the responsibilities specified in my job description.					
4. I perform the task that are expected of me professionally (Quality of work done)					
5. I am able to use time effectively and staying focused to ensure work is completed					
6. I relate well to all people – up, down and across – internally and externally in the School/Department					
7. I am able to take independent action when appropriate					
8. I Involve others as needed to ensure quality and commitment of decision					
9. I am able to cope effectively and developing effective approaches to deal with pressure or stress					

Thank you for completing the questionnaire

APPENDIX B

Krejcie and Morgan's sample size determination table

N	S	N	S	N	S
10	10	220	140	1200	291
15	14	230	144	1300	297
20	19	240	148	1400	302
25	24	250	152	1500	306
30	28	260	155	1600	310
35	32	270	159	1700	313
40	36	280	162	1800	317
45	40	290	165	1900	320
50	44	300	169	2000	322
55	48	320	175	2200	327
60	52	340	181	2400	331
65	56	360	186	2600	335
70	59	380	191	2800	338
75	63	400	196	3000	341
80	66	420	201	3500	346
85	70	440	205	4000	351
90	73	460	210	4500	354
95	76	480	214	5000	357
100	80	500	217	6000	361
110	86	550	226	7000	364
120	92	600	234	8000	367
130	97	650	242	9000	368
140	103	700	248	10000	370
150	108	750	254	15000	375
160	113	800	260	20000	377
170	118	850	265	30000	379
180	123	900	269	40000	380
190	127	950	274	50000	381
200	132	1000	278	75000	382
210	136	1100	285	1000000	384