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The American University in Cairo  
School of Global Affairs and Public Policy

**Gender and Leadership in Egypt's Public Sector**  
**The Case of the Ministry of Finance**

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A Thesis Submitted to the Public Policy and Administration Department in partial  
fulfillment of the requirements of the degree of Master of Arts

By

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January 2010

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## Abstract

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**University:** The American University in Cairo

**Thesis Title:** Gender and Leadership in Egypt's Public Sector: The Case of the Ministry of Finance

**Student Name:** Ola Gamil El-Taliawi

**Advisors:** Jennifer Bremer, Ph.D.; Hamid Ali, Ph.D.; and Meredith Newman, Ph.D.

There is a radical difference in the number of males versus females in leading positions around the world, both in public and private business structures. This may reflect an underlying perception that women are not apt to lead and if put in leadership positions, they would be less competent and not as qualified as men. The purpose of this study was to answer the main research question of whether leadership style differences exist between Egyptian men and women working in the public sector in Egypt, taking the case of mid-level managers in the Ministry of Finance. The objective was to determine whether the alleged differences were based on reality or a mere perception. This would allow us either to realize that leadership style differences between men and women do exist, or to base the call for more equality in pay, promotion and opportunities for women on firmer ground that such differences are a mere stereotype. Respondents were examined on their degree of association with six aspects of leadership: Initiation of Structure, Role Assumption, Production Emphasis, Integration, Consideration, and Tolerance and Freedom.

The study findings indicate that no leadership style differences exist between men and women with regards the six aspects. Women do not tend to be more Communal than men, nor do men tend to be more Agentic.

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## INTRODUCTION

This thesis was developed to address the question of whether leadership style differences exist between men and women working in the public sector in Egypt. This specific research question emerged based on a perception that exists around the world that males have more leadership capabilities than females or that leadership styles differ between the two genders. This perception is supported by a general trend towards favoring men in promotion, pay; and access to opportunities. The disparity; the barriers that stand in front of women; and the stereotypes that exist in the workplace affect women's advancement; lead to decreased utilization of human potential; and unbalanced HRM practices. This thesis therefore tries to determine whether the alleged leadership style differences between men and women are based on reality or a mere perception. If no differences exist, then the call for more equality in pay, promotion, tasks, and opportunity can be based on a more factual basis.

This thesis was conducted in the Egyptian Ministry of Finance, as a case study of the Egyptian Public Administration, and was facilitated under the umbrella of the Equal Opportunity Unit operating within the Ministry. The uniqueness of this study lies in the scarcity of empirical work found on gender and leadership in the Arab world in general and in the public sector in specific. The thesis begins with a discussion of the severity of the problem; gives a background on public sector employment in Egypt, the Ministry of Finance, and the Equal Opportunity Unit; as well as a general review of the literature on leadership differences as affected by sex. Following this introduction, the methodology

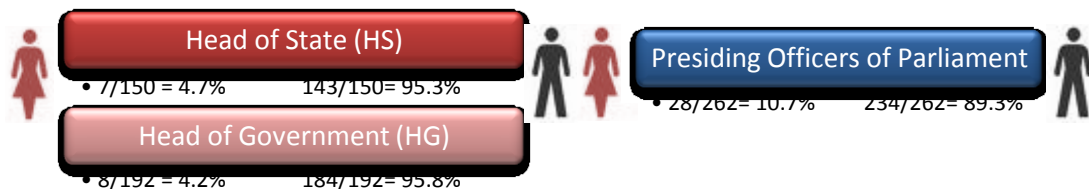
adopted in the study is explained and the data collected is described and analyzed. Findings from the data are presented along with implications for future research. Finally, general conclusions are summed up with emphasis on broader implications on the field of study.

## **CHAPTER ONE: Statement of the Problem and Why it is Worthy of Study**

Ever since creation there has been a division in the roles of females and males not only in everyday social life, but also in the workplace. One of the major proofs of such a phenomenon is the radical difference in the number of males versus females in leading positions, whether in public structures or in the private business world. There is a reluctance to hire women in key managerial positions (Eyring and Stead, 1998), so female leaders are consequently given job assignments with lower visibility and fewer chances to make important contacts (Ohlott et al, 1994). They tend to earn significantly less compared with men in equivalent occupations, they frequently find high-level promotions difficult, and experience barriers when seeking mentors (Mostafa, 2003). Such a phenomenon is not only country specific, but transcends across the globe to manifest itself even in the developed world. Taking the US as an example, even though women make up approximately 40% of its work force, only 0.5% of the highest paid managerial positions in the U.S. are held by women (Stelter, 2002). In 2009, the percentage of women on the senior management of privately-held businesses was 24%. In Japan and Germany, the percentage was a mere 7% and 17% respectively (Thornton, 2009). This proves that even though block equality, pertaining to horizontal levels within organizations, has been achieved, segmented equality at the vertical levels remains unrealized (Newman, 1994). In terms of salary-scale discrimination, according to the U.S. Department of Labor, women in 2000 earned about 76% of what men earned across all industries (Guy et al, 2004).

On the political level, women fare much more poorly than do men with regards to political representation and the holding of public office, as shown in figure (1) below. This arena needs special consideration, since the active and passive representation of women in the political sphere can greatly improve their overall status in all other dimensions of life. Their passive representation in Senates and Parliaments, for example, would ensure that such structures reflect the social characteristics of their people, while women’s active representation would ensure that they push for the needs and interests of other women (Ricucci et al, 2003). Only they can ensure that women’s problems and concerns are translated into programs and issues on the government and public agenda.

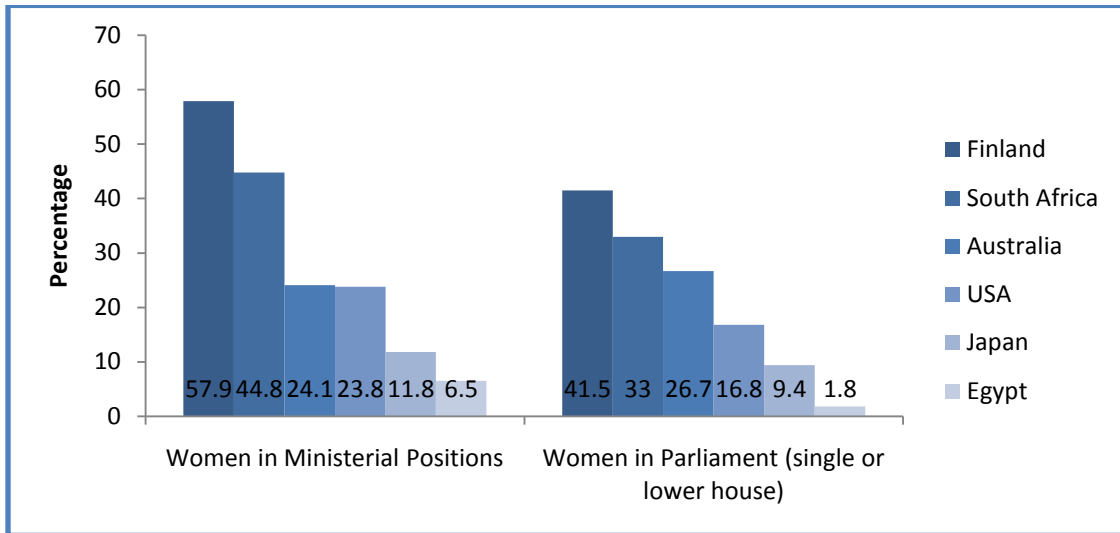
**Figure 1:** Women in the Highest Positions of State on a Global Basis - 1 January 2008



Source: IPU and the UN Division for Advancement of Women (2008)

Egyptian women are also affected by this phenomenon, where their work life is perceived to be less central than men’s; they are under-represented in leadership and managerial positions, and Egyptian and Arab culture are still dominated by “patriarchal values where men have structural control over politics, legal, economic and religious institutions” (Mostafa, 2003). The status of Egyptian women is specifically weakened relative to other countries of the world regarding their position in the political arena, as shown by figure (2).

**Figure 2:** Women in Ministerial Positions and Parliament - 2008



Source: IPU and the UN Division for Advancement of Women (2008)

Women are pressured yet again to quit their jobs in the face of instances of child misbehavior and in spite of women's advancement in the work force; they still hold the position of the "reserve army of labor". Furthermore, a study estimating male-female earnings differentials for a sample of university graduates in Egypt found out that "just over one-quarter of the gross earnings differential between men and women remains unexplained, which is usually taken to be the result of discrimination" (Mostafa, 2003).

One of the reasons behind this phenomenon is the stereotype which exists among both males and females and which claims that women are not apt to lead and if put in leadership positions, they would be less competent and not as qualified as males. The study of whether such differences exist and whether they are gender related or personality related would allow us to better utilize female potential especially in the public arena, and contribute to a more effective and stereotype-free workforce where there would be no

restrictions to females reaching top positions and taking part in public life. It is not only a human rights concern, since all productive citizens have the right to equal participation and representation (Noble & Moore, 2006), but it is also an HRM concern, because the negative evaluation of women and minorities in leadership can result in “decreased individual well-being and unbalanced HRM practices” (Stelter, 2000). Gender discrimination has been proven to negatively affect professional advancement and job satisfaction among female workers (Newman et al, 2007), thus depriving organizations of the unique talent and perspective that they can impart (Appelbaum et al, 2003). Egypt, being a developing country, is specifically in dire need of utilizing all its human potential, since it has already been proven that overall development is a variable of female participation in public life, the economy, politics and all other forms of public participation (UNDP, 2002). Their exclusion from leading roles in the work place and in society is a matter that needs to be thoroughly researched and examined.

## **Major Research Question and Investigative Questions**

### *Major Research Question:*

- Examining leadership style differences between Egyptian men and women working at the Ministry of Finance in Egypt.

### *Investigative Questions:*

- Do women and men lead their subordinates differently?
- If so, what differences exist in their leadership styles?

## **CHAPTER TWO: Background**

### **Women in Egypt's Public Administration**

According to the World Bank's Gender Overview Report (2007), in 2005, 24% of the total labor force in Egypt was composed of female participation (including ages 15-64). This might be a small figure, but this actually evolved over years due to increased modernity, educational opportunities, and the pressing economic need that drove many women to join the workforce. The public sector in specific is considered women's major employer, where they comprised in 2005 of about 35% of all government employees, as opposed to only 18% in the private sector. This of course indicates the importance of making reform policies, such as privatization and restructuring as gender-sensitive as possible, since as evident, women are highly reliant on this sector and would be affected by any changes in a major way (Livani, 2007).

Promotion in the Egyptian public administration is based on seniority rather than merit. However, the percentage of females in decision making and leadership positions in the public administration is still low in comparison to men. In 1988 it was a mere 7% that continued to increase over the years to reach 20% in 1999. Since then, however, this percentage has decreased to 16.2% according to official government statistics (CAPMAS, 2009). This is a puzzling trend given the increased awareness of the importance of gender equality, and the educational status of women that improves with time as they get more access to education and development and governmental programs focus their efforts on increasing the enrollment rate of females in schools and universities. The 16.2% of

women appointed in 2005 to the total managerial and leadership positions of the Egyptian public administration, according to the same CAPMAS statistics are broken down according to job title as follows:

**Table 1:** Percentage of Women Appointed in the Highest Levels of Public Administration -2005

<b>Minister</b>	3.8%
<b>Deputy Minister</b>	7.1%
<b>Grade Excellent</b>	13.4%
<b>Grade High</b>	21.7%
<b>General Manager</b>	15.4%

Source: CAPMAS (2009) “The State of Women in Egypt”

Even though the Egyptian Labor Law requires that women and men get equal pay for equal work done and that no discrimination should be made based on their sex, a remuneration gap seems to exist between them, as indicated by the statistics provided by the Central Agency for Public Mobilization and Statistics (CAPMAS) in Egypt. Taking the public health sector as an example, men get an average of 23% more pay than women. This remuneration gap is even more evident in the private sector, but this is beyond the scope of our study.



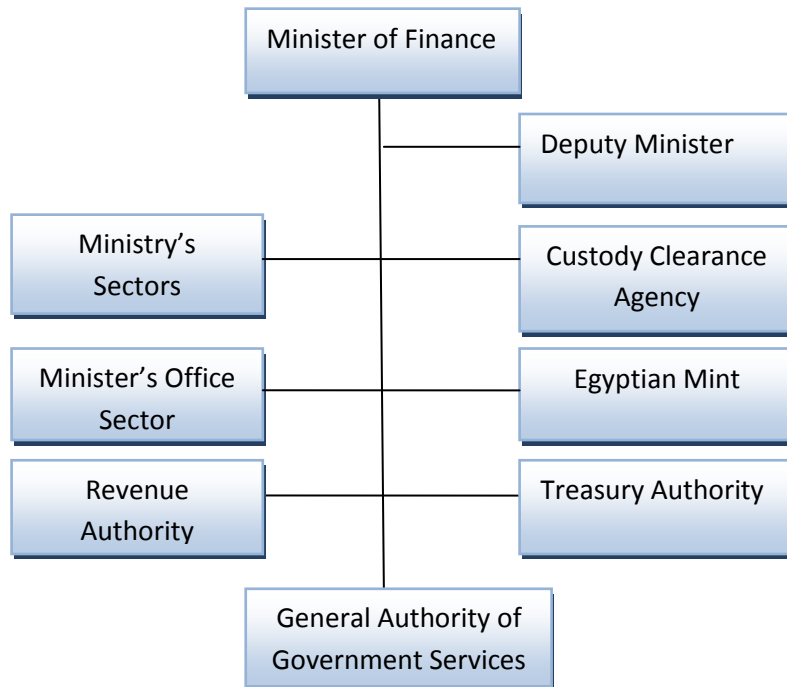
According to Newman (1993), allowing women limited access to training indicates a failure to invest in women. As regards training in Egypt's public administration, a total of 150,000 employees get training opportunities yearly. Of such a figure, only 32.2% are females. In addition, this figure even decreased from 2003, when it registered 40%. Training programs that were specifically tailored to address supervisory skills for public administrators witnessed a 42.1% of female participation. As for leadership skills development programs that were offered in 2003 for example, 27% of participants were women. However, the figures do not specify to which levels these programs were offered, therefore we cannot determine how far this is equitable (CAPMAS, 2009).

Women's participation in professional syndicates and trade unions has also witnessed an increase over the years, but is still low compared to men. According to the World Bank (2007), only 3% of those elected to trade union committees in 2007 were women, and the percentage of women participating in syndicates amounts to 17%.

### **The Egyptian Ministry of Finance**

A brief note on the Ministry provides a useful context for the study. It was first created in 1876 and its roles, organizational structures and procedures have evolved over time considerably. It now has the responsibility of planning for and preparing the State budget, managing public debt, developing financial legislation, and designing taxation policies, among many other tasks and functions. Its organizational structure is as follows:

**Figure 3:** The Ministry of Finance Organizational Structure



Source: MOF (2009) Extracted from <http://www.mof.gov.eg/English/About%20MOF/OrgChart>

The percentage of women working in the Ministry as opposed to men in 2006 was 37%. The percentage of women holding leadership and managerial positions in the Ministry in the same year was 30.2% (EOU, 2006). As for 2009, this rate increased to 40.1% of females as opposed to 59.9% of men holding leadership positions within the Ministry (EOU, 2009). This may be due to the role of the Equal Opportunity Unit presiding within the Ministry, under which the study was implemented. A background on the unit follows.

## The Equal Opportunity Unit

The unit was created in 2001 and became officially active as the result of a ministerial decree in 2005, with the aim of promoting equal opportunities for men and women working in the Ministry of Finance. This unit is considered the communication link between the Ministry and the National Council for Women and it is comprised of 1 unit head, 1 manager, 4 subordinates and 18 representatives from the 18 departments within the Ministry. The unit's objectives include:

- Promoting the idea of gender responsive budgeting in the State budget.
- Developing employees' political and cultural awareness, as well as their understanding of gender sensitivity issues in the workplace (EOU, 2006).
- Documenting data and statistics on the status of women working at the Ministry (SMEPOL, 2007).
- Building the capacity of employees working in the Ministry through holding training sessions on monitoring and evaluation, leadership, and team building, with the cooperation of the United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM).
- Preparing seminars and other forums of discussion to correct stereotypes surrounding women's roles.

In the year 2008/2009, the number of employees who attended the seminars organized by the unit from the different Ministry departments and sectors reached 483; 67% of whom were women and 33% were men. As for the workshops and training sessions held in the same year, 749 employees attended; divided equally between males and females. The

employees were trained on communication skills, report writing, effective management, strategic planning, and other managerial skills (EOU, 2009).

## **CHAPTER THREE: Literature Review**

### **Introduction**

The topic of leadership which has long been debated over the years is very rich in context and provides many avenues for study and research. My focus while reviewing the literature was limited to leadership as influenced by gender. Differences in leadership styles and behaviors between males and females and the various theories which addressed such concepts were synthesized in order to determine concepts relevant to Egypt and to highlight gaps that exist and that commend further research and investigation.

In this review, leadership as a general topic is first briefly treated, followed by an introduction of female leadership as an emerging subject for research. Schools of thought governing the controversy between scholars and researchers regarding whether differences exist in the leadership styles of females and males are subsequently presented, as well as supporting evidence of both schools found in the literature, followed by a discussion of the various factors shaping men and women's leadership behaviors.

### **Discussion**

- **Leader, Gender and Sex Defined**

Leadership is an abstract and highly controversial topic where definitions and concepts overlap and in some cases contrast. They vary from one source to another and change according to the researcher's point of view or the scope of his/her study. In order for us to

understand leadership as influenced by gender and whether differences exist between men and women with regards to their leadership styles, first we need to identify who a leader is. Some of the prevailing attributes of a leader and which have occurred concurrently in the literature include: skillful communicator; motivator; inspirational; achiever; empowering; committed to the development of others; and a change catalyst (Porterfield et al, 2005 and Gregoire et al, 2004).

It is equally important to understand the difference between the concepts of gender and sex. Most often what is known about them is they are synonymous. However, “sex” pertains to the biological categories known as male and female, whereas “gender” is the social construction based on these categories and which gives them social expectations of behavior, viewpoints, and roles of mothering for females, and protection for males. Gender is “how we come to understand, and often to magnify, the minor differences that exist between biological males and females”. It results in the construction of what is known to be “feminine” and what is known to be “masculine” (Duerst-Lahti et al, 1995).

- **The Rise of Female Leadership as a Field of Study**

Due to the relative increase, over the years, in the number of women who have engaged in public life and emerged as leaders in their fields; whether civic activists, parliamentarians or heads of corporations, the study of leadership evolved over time to include female leadership as a specific case worthy of study. Examples such as Oprah Winfrey, Queen Elizabeth II, Indira Gandhi, and others triggered the initiative of scholars to study female leadership as an emerging force. Further, in the Arab World today, more

women are gaining access to education, entering the workforce, and outperforming men at many levels. Thus they are gaining influence in the governmental, educational and business spheres every day and it is essential to understand their leadership aptitudes in order to equip them to assume leadership roles in the public and private corporate world (Neal et al, 2007).

- **The Gender Discourse in Leadership**

Over the years, each gender group has been proclaiming the superiority of its own leadership style (Porterfield & Kleiner, 2005), and following the introduction of female leadership as a field of study, a heated debate ensued regarding whether differences exist between male and female leadership approaches; which style was superior and whether such alleged differences are personality based or gender based.

#### *The Equity vs. the Complementary View*

Two contrasting views regarding the difference in leadership approaches of men and women, present themselves in the literature:

#### The Complementary-Contribution View:

It advocates that men and women each contribute differently, but in an equally significant way. This approach tries to recognize and signify the value of those differences by raising the French slogan “Vive La Difference” (Gibson, 1995). Trinidad and Normore (2005) also support this notion by advocating that “the integration of women in leadership roles

is not a matter of “fitting in” the traditional models, but “giving in” the opportunities for them to practice their own leadership styles” and that the real issue in leadership differences lies in “the equity in selecting the right person with the appropriate skills and qualities to ensure the effectiveness and success of the organization” (Bass and Avolio, 1994).

Researchers in support of this view advocate that there are differences that can be accounted for in leadership styles between males and females. Gibson (1995), for one, in her review of the literature supports this claim and advocates that leadership styles do differ according to sex. She classifies such differences in terms of Agentic and Communal qualities. Communal qualities include concern for the welfare of others and awareness of their feelings; nurturance, affection and sympathy; ability to devote one self to others; emotional expressiveness; and helpfulness, while, Agentic qualities include assertiveness; self-reliance; dominance; directness; decisiveness; aggressiveness; ambition; and self-sufficiency.

Empirical studies that were conducted by researchers and which attempted to test such a thesis were of the general conclusion that females tended to be more characterized by Communal qualities and, males by Agentic ones. Furthermore, Eagly & Johnson’s (1990) account of the difference in leadership style between men and women found that differences “occurred in the tendency for women to adopt a more democratic or participative style and for men to adopt a more autocratic or directive style”, which supports the Communal-Agentic classification as well as the complementary-contribution thesis stated above.



### The Equity View:

The equity-based view, on the other hand, is one that is also expressed more frequently in the literature. It acts as the ground floor for most gender advocates. It holds that women are similar to men and seeks to maintain equality among them in all aspects of their lives. Such a view is based on psychological conviction that no differences can exist as attributed to a person's sex, but rather differences are due to differing personality traits across individuals. Therefore, any barriers to the leadership of women are not due to their inadequacy to lead in comparison to men, but due to external forces which hinder their progress.

Dobbins (1986) after conducting a meta-analytic review of 17 studies that were done in the field, concluded that, on the basis of initiating structure, consideration and subordinate satisfaction; leaders' sex did not affect any of the dependent variables, which is in accordance with studies that have not found differences between males and female styles based on their sex.

### *Gender Differences in Transformational, Transactional, and Charismatic Leadership Styles*

With the development of the field of leadership studies over the years, new classifications began to be introduced, including those that classified leadership into transformational, transactional and charismatic leadership (Mandell and Pherwani, 2003). Later on these classifications also became grounds for studying female versus male leadership approaches.

## Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership was defined by Bass and Avolio (1994) as “the ability to stimulate interest among followers to view their work from a new perspective, generate an awareness of the mission or vision of the organization, develop followers’ potential, and motivate them to look beyond their own interests towards those of the whole group”. Ashkanasy and Tse (2000) later added an emphasis on interpersonal skills, emotional intelligence, and intuition (Groves, 2005), while Klenke (2002) identified motivational ability and the creation of a dramatic change in individuals, groups and organizations as a whole as important attributes of such leadership style.

Some researchers, who have studied the correlation between sex and transformational leadership, did not find any significant differences between male and female managers in that regard (Mandell and Pherwani, 2003), thus supporting proponents of the equity school. On the other hand, other researchers found results that revealed that females in their studies tended to be more transformational than males and more able to give individualized consideration (Groves, 2005 and Mandell et al, 2003).

## Charismatic Leadership

A charismatic leader is identified as one who is able to “demonstrate personal risk regarding followers’ visions; communicate with followers in a powerful, confident and dynamic manner; and display unconventional behavior”. It is comprised of 3 main

components: vision, vision implementation, and a charismatic communication style (Groves, 2005).

In support of the complementary contribution view, empirical studies revealed that women may be more likely to show charismatic leadership than men (Gibson, 1995). However, equity advocates argue that charisma is a personal attribute that we have witnessed in many male and female leaders alike and therefore we cannot assign it to a specific sex. Examples of undeniable charismatic leadership such as Winston Churchill, Mother Teresa, Gandhi, Margaret Thatcher and others speak for themselves as to the inaccuracy of a gendered notion of charisma.

### Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership, on the other hand, has been defined as a style of leadership that depends on reward and punishment; focuses on task completion and goals; emphasizes employee compliance; and the importance of adherence to performance measurements (Bass et al, 1994 and Mandell et al, 2003). Again, some researchers have found that men were more likely to display transactional leadership than women; a similar conclusion to the Agentic and Communal classification, since they propose – in essence – similar differences (Groves, 2005); if men are more transactional then women are more transformational and possess Communal qualities versus males who possess Agentic ones.

### *Gender Differences Based on Flamholtz's Leadership Framework*

Flamholtz's leadership framework (1986) also classifies leadership into a set of behaviors and styles, which were later used as the ground basis for the heated debate between advocates of both the equity and the complementary-contribution views. Studies were further conducted to classify differences between male and female leadership styles according to this framework. Not only does it shed light on this debate, but it also helps us better understand the styles and behaviors that advocates of the complementary-contribution view consider as "female" versus "male".

On a continuum from **directive to non-directive**, Flamholtz proposes the following six leadership styles, described in more detail in Appendix 1:

**Figure 4:** Flamholtz's Leadership Styles



The behavioral dimensions of this framework were adopted from Bowers and Seashore's (1966) Four-factor Leadership model, and include:

**Figure 5:** Flamholtz's Leadership Behaviors <sup>1</sup>



Some empirical studies have shown that males tend to be more characterized, according to Flamholtz's model, by goal emphasis, work facilitation and directive styles, while females are characterized by interaction facilitation, personnel development and non-directive approaches (Gibson, 1995).

However, such results are disputed. According to Gibson (1995), while a person's style is permanent and unchanging, his/her behavior is not; it can change from one situation to the other depending on the circumstances; what is referred to as situational or contingency leadership style. Furthermore, Chapman (1975) verifies that female, and sometimes male, behavior in organizational and societal contexts changes more often due to sex stereotypes rather than to personal attributes and characteristics; "Women tend to

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<sup>1</sup> Find a more detailed explanation of all the behavioral dimensions in appendix 1.

display more relationship-oriented leadership behaviors that are more congruent with societal expectations” that do not in turn normally apply to men. Many authors speculate that the reason for an observed female tendency to adopt transformational and charismatic leadership styles, which we discussed earlier, is that “they are socialized - from the very first- to perform nurturing and development behaviors” (Groves, 2005), rather than because of their own personal aptitudes and ambitions. Sometimes women are pressured to alter their leadership styles to “fit” in with organizational cultures and expectations, by adopting a “male-leadership” approach, thus performing their tasks with more masculinity than men (Gardiner et al, 1999). This is also referred to as “sex-role crossover”, which is “the manner by which a man or a woman acts in a way ‘appropriate’ for the opposite sex” (Duerst-Lahti et al, 1995).

Following the same line, one of the reasons cited to explain Agentic and Communal differences of males and females is the “division of labor with a disproportionate share of domestic activities assigned to women”. Since such activities need communal qualities to be more effectively performed, females inherit the necessity to adopt such qualities; while males adopt Agentic qualities which help them survive outside the home and in the workplace. As a consequence, females and males develop different leadership behaviors that are not always reflective of their true selves (Gibson, 1995).

- **Factors Shaping Men and Women's Leadership Behavior**

### *Sex-Role Socialization*

Socialization has been defined as “the process by which an individual selectively acquires the knowledge, skills and dispositions needed to perform a social role effectively” and more specifically as “the manner in which an individual learns that behavior appropriate to his position in a group through interaction with others who hold normative beliefs about what his role should be and who reward and punish him for correct or incorrect actions” (Trinidad and Normore, 2005). Hence, women derive their values and beliefs as they develop from this sex-role socialization process. Such beliefs are then translated into behaviors that shape their leadership styles and make their behaviors different from men's.

### *Culture of Origin*

Culture is defined as the “patterned ways of thinking, feeling, and reacting; acquired and transmitted mainly by symbols, constituting the distinctive achievements of human groups, including their embodiments in artifacts; the essential core of culture consists of traditional (i.e. historically derived and selected) ideas and especially their attached values”. Therefore, similar leadership behaviors and styles are found to occur among countries sharing same cultural orientations or cultural clusters (Gibson, 1995).

Studies have revealed that cultural values are one of the factors that influence followers' perception and evaluation of leadership performance. As a result, women in leading

positions are pressured to signify their feminine values only, depending on each culture's degree of acceptance, but no further. One of the disadvantages of the influence of culture on women's roles and behavior mentioned is the image of nurturance and caring that they become accustomed to as they grow up and which pushes them to lead supportive roles whereas men occupy leading ones (Trinidad & Normore, 2005).

### *Organizational Culture*

Organizational culture refers to “the set of assumptions, beliefs, values and norms that are shared by members of an organization and is influenced by its past, environment and industry” (Trinidad & Normore, 2005). This organizational culture defines the leadership styles and behaviors which are accepted, tolerated and even encouraged within the boundaries of that organization. This is where the “Glass Ceiling” phenomenon comes into play. “Glass ceiling” is a term often used to describe “the invisible barrier which women face as they attempt to climb the corporate – or organizational – ladder” (Ryam and Haslam, 2006). The glass ceiling theory relates women's difficulty of attaining leadership roles “to the social model of expectations and beliefs which limits traditional perspectives of leadership on masculine-oriented concepts” and creates perceptions of “good” and “bad” leadership orientations (Stelter, 2000). Sexual static, which exists in organizations, is another factor contributing to the glass ceiling phenomenon. Sexual static derives its source from:

- Role confusion
- Communication differences



- Problems associated with changing from an exclusive (men only) to an inclusive type of organization (men and women).

As a result of such static, men feel a sense of discomfort while working with women and keeping the glass ceiling in place is their subconscious way of escaping such necessity. Consequently, it is important for organizations, in order to overcome such static, “to raise awareness of the sources of such static and develop policies to minimize it”.

Other reasons cited for the glass barriers, which women face in organizations, include:

- The notion that, even though women might not have initially created the glass ceiling situation, in reality, they contribute in maintaining it, because women, who do reach top positions do not then help other women.
- Personal attributes
- Learned management styles

The glass ceiling is not the only phenomenon which plagues organizations; other phenomena include the “Glass Borders”, “Glass Wall”, and “Glass Cliff” that also hinder the progress of women. The “glass borders” phenomenon enlightens the “under-representation of women in international management positions and which excludes women from promotions and power due to their lack of international experience” (Van der Boon, 2003). The “glass wall” refers to the horizontal segregation that exists and which limits women’s contribution to “pink-collar” relational jobs such as nursing, teaching and social services, whereas men are given more technical and scientific opportunities in the fields of engineering, medicine, and banking (Guy et al, 2004). The

“glass cliff”, conversely, refers to the phenomenon where “women find themselves hired in leadership positions where companies are already performing poorly, something which puts them at risk of being blamed for negative events set even before their appointment” (Ryan and Haslam, 2006).

## **Conclusion**

In this literature review I have discussed, in brief, general leader characteristics which are prevalent in the literature, followed by an introduction of the rise of female leadership as a field of study. My main focus was on introducing the different schools of thought, which govern the study of leadership differences between men and women. Proponents of the Equity view believe that no differences exist between female and male leadership styles that can be attributed to their sex; rather differences that may exist are due to their differing personality traits, biased cultural values or sex-socialization roles which women are brought up to assume. On the other hand, advocates of the contrary view believe that women and men are essentially different, but have equally significant contributions. A discussion of the different leadership styles and behaviors as well as evidence supporting both views has been presented along with the factors identified by researchers as shaping men and women’s leadership behavior and which might hinder the development of female potential.

After this review of the literature, I have concluded that research material examining the differences in leadership styles between men and women dedicated to the Egyptian context in specific is minimal. This may be due to the late entry of women into the labor

force in qualitative and quantitative terms (Mostafa, 2003) and as mentioned earlier also due to the prevailing perception that work is not as central to women as it is to men. However, in my research I will be filling this gap by examining whether differences exist between Egyptian female and male leadership styles working in the public sector.

## **CHAPTER FOUR: Methodology**

### **Basic Aim of the Research**

The aim of my research is to conduct an empirical, formal study in which I examine whether differences exist in the leadership styles of Egyptian men and women working in public organizations in Egypt, taking the case of the Ministry of Finance as an example. The final outcome of this study would then enable us to determine whether the alleged leadership style differences between men and women are based on reality or a mere perception. If differences do exist, the result of this study can lay down the foundation for a future formal study, which would, in turn, examine the reasons behind such differences; whether they are culturally induced due to socialization; encouraged through organizational medium; or personality based. However, in the case that the result of this research shows no substantial difference based on the participants' sex, the call for more equality in pay, promotion, tasks, and opportunity can be based on a more factual basis. Further, this study would allow us not only to examine the fertile ground of female leadership study in Egypt, but also to identify the variables that need to be changed, which currently hinder the progress of Egyptian women as leaders and create barriers and stereotypes.

Some of the more relevant methodologies found in the literature that have embarked on investigating whether differences in leadership styles exist between males and females include:

Chapman (1975), who conducted a quantitative survey to investigate the relationship between biographical and situational variables and male and female leadership styles. Biographical and leadership questionnaires were distributed to a randomly selected sample of practicing male and female leaders in one military and one civilian organization. Males and females chosen had the same job responsibilities and formal authority. The sample size included 146 male and 60 female military personnel; and 49 male and 28 female civilian supervisors at the departmental level. Fiedler's Least Preferred Co-worker questionnaire was used and analyzed to measure the leader's perception of his/her least preferred co-worker.

Davidson & Ferrario (1992), who also conducted a quantitative study to ascertain whether differences in management styles exist between men and women. A Leadership Behavior Questionnaire (LBDQ XII) was distributed to 124 female and 95 male managers in the UK, who varied in their managerial positions and who were in the age range of 36-50 years.

I have chosen to do an empirical field-setting study, because the amount of literature in the field and which is specific to the Egyptian context is minimal. In addition, empirical studies that are derived from the field are more conveying of the real environment.

**Figure 6:** Descriptors of Research Design

Research Question Crystallization	• Formal Study
Method of Data Collection	• Communication Study
Researcher Manipulation of Variables under Study	• Ex post facto
Time Dimension	• Cross-sectional
The Topical Scope	• Statistical
The Research Environment	• Field Setting
Purpose of Study	• Descriptive

Source: Cooper, D. & Schindler, P. "Business Research Methods" (2006) McGraw Hill, 9<sup>th</sup> edition, p.139.

## Sample Design

- **Target Population**

The target population of this study was Egyptian men and women working at the Ministry of Finance in Egypt in mid-level management positions. I have chosen this population to ensure that the sample is as representative as possible of the whole population of Egyptian men and women with leadership responsibilities working in public organizations in Egypt, while at the same time being homogenous, since employees working in such an environment tend to be of broadly similar social, educational, and cultural background, which would convey more reliable results and decrease the degree of variability within the sampling frame.

- **Parameters of Interest**

Female and male participants included in our sample were based on the following criteria:

- Egyptian nationals.
- Working at the Egyptian Ministry of Finance.
- In a supervisory position in which they are required to manage one or more professionals.
- For every female surveyed, a male peer was included in the sample with an equivalent degree of authority and job responsibilities.
- Willing to participate.

- **Sampling Frame**

For the sampling frame a list of Egyptian public organizations was first constructed. From this list several organizations were shortlisted on the availability of access. This approach was the only possible one to doing the study within a public organization, due to surveying and information gathering difficulties in Egypt. All shortlisted organizations were targeted simultaneously. From these organizations, the Ministry of Finance was selected as offering a large population of mid-level managers and having a supportive institutional environment for the study. A sampling frame was then developed based on the parameters of interest, and the staffing structure within the Ministry, but included only those levels of staffing that could be targeted, rather than a list of all employees.

- **Sampling Method**

To conduct my study, a non-probability sampling method based on convenience was utilized, but one which was not biased and was restricted to the parameters of interest. The sampling was done through the Equal Opportunity Unit, and was the best available approach to reaching participants. This method might not have given all elements in the target population an equal chance to be represented, but it ensured access to employees who might have been otherwise difficult to survey. It also reduced the time spent on reaching the desired number of elements; ensured greater speed of data collection; and higher response rate.

- **Sample Size**

Since the exact total population size was unknown and the data was categorical, a sample size equation was run given 95% confidence level and 10% error:

$$n = \frac{Z^2 P(1 - P)}{E^2} = 1.9697$$

Hence, the optimal sample size collected depending on this equation turned out to be 97, preferably divided equally between male and female representation. This was realistic, since each element was planned to take an average of 30 minutes of data collection, thus the sample size was based on rendering reliable results, while at the same time being feasible in application.



## Data Collection Plan

- **Data Items**

The following data items examined were a description of the leadership style of participants. They were examined on their degree of:

1. Initiation of Structure
2. Tolerance and Freedom
3. Role Assumption
4. Consideration
5. Production Emphasis
6. Integration

According to the literature, the six dimensions can be categorized into either Communal (Tolerance and Freedom, Consideration, and Integration) or Agentic (Initiation of Structure, Role Assumption, and Production Emphasis). Supporters of the claim that women and men differ in their leadership styles, as discussed earlier in the literature review, categorize such styles into Communal and Agentic, where Communal qualities of tolerance and integration tend to be more female, and Agentic qualities of production emphasis tend to be more male. Thus respondents were examined on each dimension and an overall grouping was done to analyze whether women tend to be more Communal and men more Agentic.

- **Method of Obtaining Information for the Data Items**

The method of obtaining information for such data items was the distribution of a questionnaire based on the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaires (sometimes called LBDQ XII) developed by the Fisher School of Business at Ohio State University. This questionnaire was developed to describe the behavior of a leader in any type of group or organization, and had been administered previously to ministers; leaders in community development activities; United States Senators; and presidents of corporations, labor unions, colleges and universities (Stogdill, 1963). I chose this tool specifically since its reliability and validity had already been tested and it had been administered to investigate similar topics of research such as the study done by Davidson and Ferrario (1992) (explained earlier). It was also chosen since it was composed of simple phrases that could easily be translated to the Arabic language without causing confusion.

The original questionnaire was modified to reduce the number of questions and increase the response rate, especially since the original questionnaire composed of 100 questions would have been very difficult to administer in Egypt, given surveying difficulties explained later in the limitations. To shorten it, only 6 out of the original 12 dimensions were chosen to be studied. Each of the 6 dimensions that were originally allocated 10 questions was reduced to include only 5 for each, with the exception of the Integration dimension, which was originally allocated 5 and remained as it is. Questions that were removed were those with repetitive meaning or phrasing and which were originally included to test the reliability of the questionnaire. Finally, the record sheet and scoring

key were both modified accordingly. A manual including the scoring key and the questionnaire itself can be found in Appendix 2.

- **Method of Data Collection**

The method of data collection depended on self-administered surveys; primarily distributed through the Equal Opportunity Unit or personally distributed whenever the context allowed. This distribution method was chosen to ensure higher response rate and increased cooperation on the part of respondents, as well as the ability to choose participants that exactly fit the parameters of interest. However, this targeting was in no way biased or planned in advance.

## CHAPTER FIVE: Description of Data Collected

An overall number of 99 questionnaires were collected from the Ministry of Finance; of those only 79 questionnaires were fit for use due to the lack of necessary information provided such as the respondent's sex. Respondents were not told that this was a gender study so as not to bias the results. The questionnaire used was composed of 30 questions excluding data on the respondent's job position, sex, and the number of people they supervise. Questions regarding respondents' job positions and their number of supervised personnel were seen as necessary to attempt to group the sample within a specific hierarchical and supervisory level within the Ministry to ensure as much homogeneity as possible.

A pretesting of the questionnaire was done on 12 employees at the Ministry of Finance who fit the parameters of interest, but no significant changes were made. The survey was done under the umbrella of the Equal Opportunity Unit within the Ministry and it took around 2 months to collect the data required. The questionnaire gathered data pertaining to the six data items aforementioned which include:

1. Initiation of Structure: clearly defines own role and lets followers know what is expected of them.
2. Tolerance and Freedom: allows followers scope for initiative, decision and action.
3. Role Assumption: actively expresses the leadership role rather than surrendering leadership to others.

4. Consideration: regards the comfort, well being, status, and contribution of followers.
5. Production Emphasis: applies pressure for productive output.
6. Integration: maintains a closely knit organization; resolves inter-member conflicts.

Each data item was assigned a specific number of questions (included in the scoring sheet found in appendix 2) and respondents were asked to rate their own behavior on an ordinal scale from always to never. Following the directions of the original questionnaire scoring key, answers were given scores of 1 to 5 that were later re-coded using SPSS to group respondents into high and low categories. Those in the high category were respondents who answered “always” or “often”, while those in the low category answered “seldom”, “often”, or “occasionally”. This grouping was done due to the ordinal nature of the data.

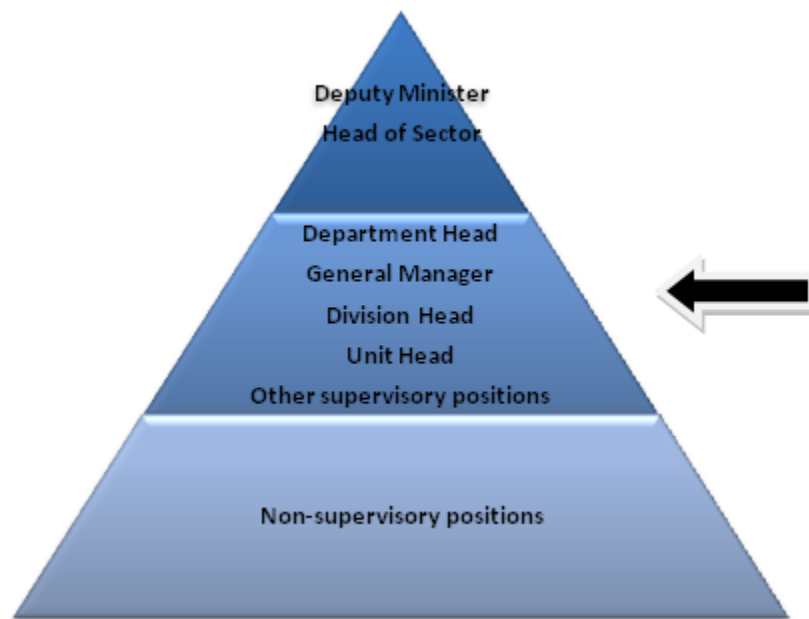
The sample obtained was composed of 58% female respondents and 42% male respondents, which was the closest possible to the target of keeping the distribution of both sexes equal. Survey respondents broken down according to their supervisory positions are as follows:

**Table 2:** Respondents' Positions

	<b>F</b>	<b>M</b>	<b>Total</b>
Department Heads	<b>17</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>22</b>
General Managers	<b>13</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>27</b>
Division and Unit Heads	<b>2</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>5</b>
Senior Researchers	<b>6</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>8</b>
Other various titles	<b>8</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>17</b>
<b>Total</b>	<b>46</b>	<b>33</b>	<b>79</b>

Restricting the surveying only to one supervisory level was not possible; however, all respondents belonged to the following hierarchical level, which was based on data provided by the Equal Opportunity Unit (2009):

**Figure 7:** Hierarchy of positions sampled



The total number of General Managers working in the Ministry in 2009 was reported to be 5,059; 41.3% of which are females, and 58.7% are males. Department Heads were reported to be 138; 20% of which are females and 80% are males (EOU, 2009). These figures give an indication of the average number of employees in this category, but more specific data to the other levels was not accessible whether from the Ministry or from the Central Agency for Organization and Administration (CAOA), the civil service authority.

According to the number of supervised people, 2 categories were created based on the calculation of their mean: large (supervising more than 32 people), and small (supervising less than 32 people). This comparison was created to observe whether males supervise more employees on average than females. According to the results, 6.8% of females supervised more than 32 people as opposed to 32% of males, while females who supervised fewer than 32 people were more than males accounting for 93.2% of the former and 68% of the latter. However, a deeper look will be taken in the next chapter to determine whether this difference is truly significant or not.

## **Limitations**

- Surveying within the Egyptian public administration was a very challenging task. Even with the cooperation of the Equal Opportunity Unit, the 99 questionnaires originally collected were the greatest number we were able to collect. Extending the time allocated for data collection might have increased the total number, but it is still questionable that we could have gotten the different units to respond, especially that the questionnaire was sent to them the first time enclosing an

official request sent from the Equal Opportunity Unit, and had been met with no response.

- The fact that I was not able, in some cases, to personally administer the questionnaire to the respondents might have been the reason behind the 20 questionnaires that were eliminated. However, the Ministry operates in a centralized manner and I was not able to be present in all cases. This of course might have affected the accuracy in filling out the data required for the questionnaire to be considered within the sample.
- The slow response time of the different units was a major time constraint. This time lag caused great uncertainty as to whether doing the study within the Ministry would be feasible or not. Other courses of action had to be pursued simultaneously, and only at the last minute was the total number of questionnaires close enough to the optimal sample size, that it was determined to focus only on the Ministry.
- The lack of a surveying culture in Egypt also posed a great challenge, since people are not accustomed to filling out surveys and cooperating in data collection processes. The lack of transparency and the existence of rules regulating access to information create a culture of silence regarding giving out any kind of information within the public bureaucracy.
- Information on the total number of employees working at the Ministry or the different hierarchical levels that exist, besides information that was provided earlier, was not obtainable. The Central Agency for Organization and Administration (CAOA) was contacted, but no response was provided.



- It would have been preferable to obtain a random sample rather than a sample based on convenience, but due to the limitations provided above, this was not feasible. For the context of this study the sampling might not necessarily have affected the results since it was not biased; respondents were not targeted specifically.
- The size of the bureaucracy in Egypt, around 5.7 million employees (Abdelhamid et al, 2009), is so large that obtaining a truly representative or random sample is not feasible. Therefore, the study focuses on the Ministry of Finance in specific.

## **CHAPTER SIX: Analysis of Data**

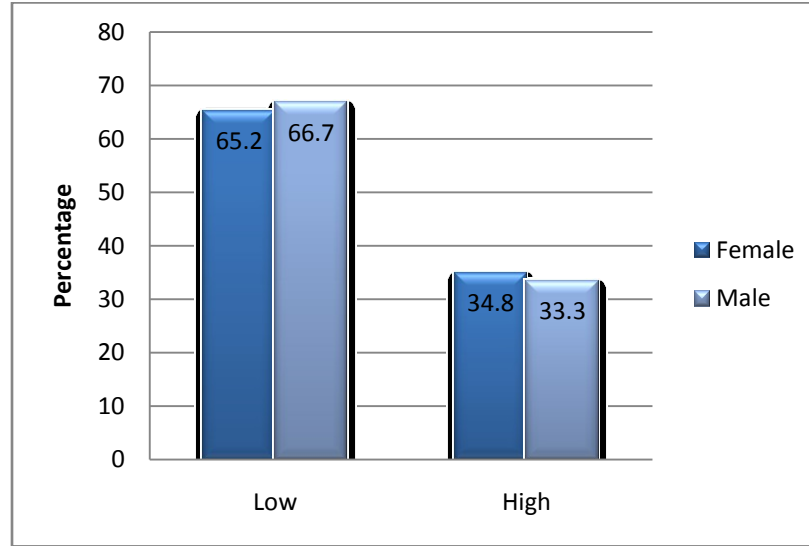
The data was analyzed using the 16<sup>th</sup> version of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Variables were described in terms of frequency and percentage. The tests conducted included Chi-square (two tailed test) and Spearman's coefficient of correlation (one tailed test). Other tests, such as the t and the Z-test, were excluded due to the categorical nature of the data. The significant level was measured according to P value (probability), where  $P > 0.05$  is insignificant and  $P < 0.05$  is significant.

### **Examination of the Difference between Males and Females on the Six Data Items**

In this section an examination of whether significant differences exist between males and females on the six data items is conducted to test the null hypothesis. This hypothesis assumes that no differences exist between men and women. Responses, as mentioned earlier, were recorded in two categories: Low and High. Those categorized as high were people who exhibited the most on any given data item, whereas those categorized as low exhibited the least on any given item.

- **Initiation of Structure:**

**Figure 8:** Initiation of Structure vs. Sex



**Table 3:** Initiation of Structure vs. Sex Cross-tabulation

			Initiation of Structure		Total
			High	Low	
Sex	Female	Count	16	30	46
		% within Sex	34.8%	65.2%	100.0%
		% within Initiation of Structure	59.3%	57.7%	58.2%
		% of Total	20.3%	38.0%	58.2%
Sex	Male	Count	11	22	33
		% within Sex	33.3%	66.7%	100.0%
		% within Initiation of Structure	40.7%	42.3%	41.8%
		% of Total	13.9%	27.8%	41.8%
Total	Count	27	52	79	
	% within Initiation of Structure	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	34.2%	65.8%	100.0%	

The above dimension, as mentioned earlier, measures the extent to which the respondent defines his/her own role and lets followers know what is expected of them. On the high category specifically, 34.8% of females scored on this category, as opposed to 33.3% of males, which is not a big difference. The low category also showed somewhat similar results, where the percentage of women within the female sample who scored low on Initiation of Structure were 65.2, as opposed to 66.7% of males within the male sample. This may be due to the fact that men with high “typical” initiation of structure skills leave the public sector for the private sector, which is well known to be more competitive, and that males who settle for public sector positions that are less remunerative and less demanding would not exhibit such “typical” male characteristics of leadership.

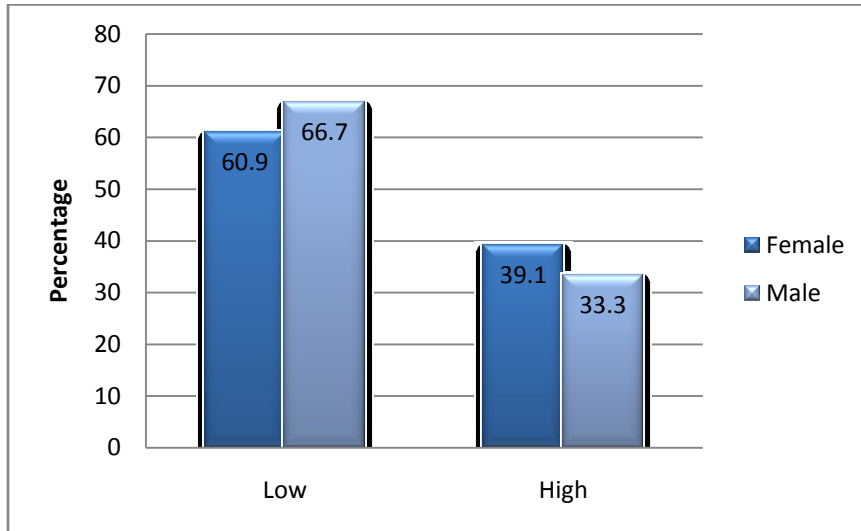
**Table 4:** Initiation of Structure vs. Sex Chi-Square Test

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.018	1	.893

The Chi-square (two tailed) test conducted to test the null hypothesis on this dimension turned out to be 0.018, with 0.893 significance (p-value). Since, the p-value is greater than the nominal level 0.05 (predetermined level); this indicates that there is no significant difference between males and females on this dimension. Therefore, we do not reject the null hypothesis.

- **Tolerance and Freedom**

**Figure 9:** Tolerance and Freedom vs. Sex



**Table 5:** Tolerance and Freedom vs. Sex Cross-tabulation

			Tolerance & Freedom		Total
			High	Low	
Sex	Female	Count	18	28	46
		% within Sex	39.1%	60.9%	100.0%
		% within Tolerance & Freedom	62.1%	56.0%	58.2%
		% of Total	22.8%	35.4%	58.2%
Sex	Male	Count	11	22	33
		% within Sex	33.3%	66.7%	100.0%
		% within Tolerance & Freedom	37.9%	44.0%	41.8%
		% of Total	13.9%	27.8%	41.8%
Total	Count	29	50	79	
	% within Tolerance & Freedom	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	36.7%	63.3%	100.0%	

The above figures indicate that males and females are somewhat similar in their degree of tolerance and freedom that describes the extent to which respondents allow their followers the scope for initiative, decision and action. More women and men exhibited a low degree of initiation of structure than those who exhibited a high degree on this dimension. This result could be due to the culture of rigidity that is characteristic of the public administration in Egypt and which manifests itself in the behavior of all employees regardless of their sex.

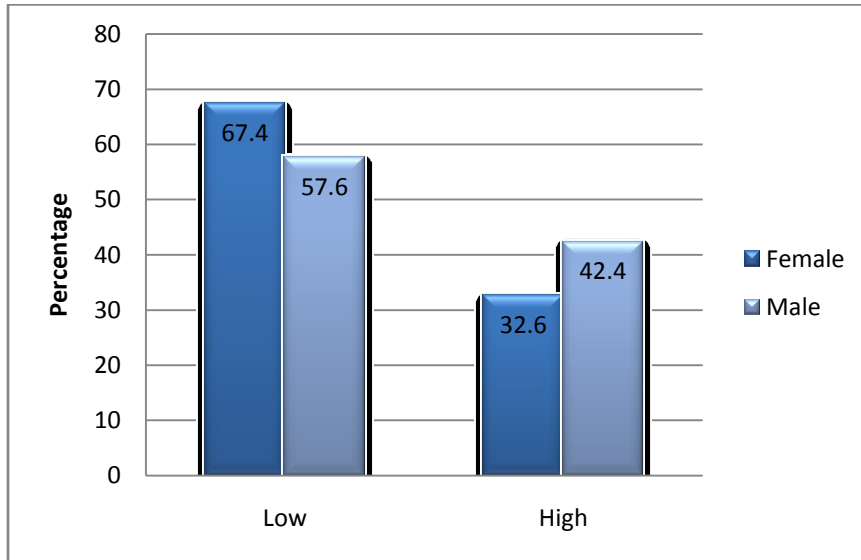
**Table 6:** Tolerance and Freedom vs. Sex Chi-Square Test

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.278	1	.598

The Chi-square of this dimension is 0.278, with 0.598 significance (p-value). Since, the p-value is greater than the nominal level 0.05 (predetermined level) as mentioned earlier; this indicates that there is insignificant difference between males and females with regards Tolerance and Freedom. Therefore, we cannot not reject the null hypothesis that no differences exist between them.

- **Role Assumption**

**Figure 10:** Role Assumption vs. Sex



**Table 7:** Role Assumption vs. Sex Cross-tabulation

			Role Assumption		Total
			High	Low	
Sex	Female	Count	15	31	46
		% within Sex	32.6%	67.4%	100.0%
		% within Role Assumption	51.7%	62.0%	58.2%
		% of Total	19.0%	39.2%	58.2%
Sex	Male	Count	14	19	33
		% within Sex	42.4%	57.6%	100.0%
		% within Role Assumption	48.3%	38.0%	41.8%
		% of Total	17.7%	24.1%	41.8%
Total	Count	29	50	79	
	% within Role Assumption	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	36.7%	63.3%	100.0%	

On this dimension, more men than women tend to express their leadership roles rather than surrender them to others. The small difference between the male and female samples on this dimension might be due to the fact that women on such managerial levels have a high degree of Role Assumption, or they are pressured to behave in such a way in the workplace to be able to keep their image as figures of authority. This phenomenon was also explained in the literature, where some studies found that female administrators in organizations had to “out-male” the men in their behavior in order to succeed (Duerst-Lahti et al, 1995).

**Table 8:** Role Assumption vs. Sex Chi-Square Test

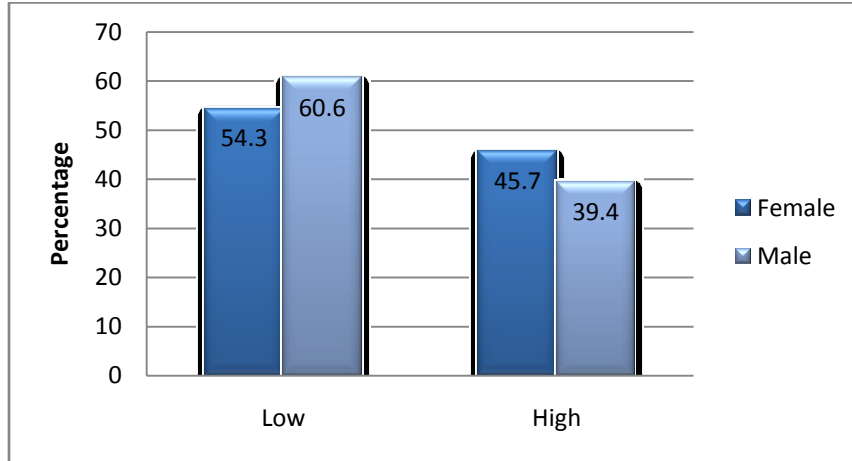
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.797	1	.372

The Pearson Chi-Square estimate of this dimension turned out to be 0.797, with 0.372 significance (p-value). This indicates that the sex is also independent from the Role Assumption dimension and that there is no significant difference between men and women regarding this data item. Thus, we cannot reject the null hypothesis that says that no differences exist between them.



- **Consideration**

**Figure 11:** Consideration vs. Sex



**Table 9:** Consideration vs. Sex Cross-tabulation

			Consideration		Total
			High	Low	
Sex	Female	Count	21	25	46
		% within Sex	45.7%	54.3%	100.0%
		% within Consideration	61.8%	55.6%	58.2%
		% of Total	26.6%	31.6%	58.2%
Sex	Male	Count	13	20	33
		% within Sex	39.4%	60.6%	100.0%
		% within Consideration	38.2%	44.4%	41.8%
		% of Total	16.5%	25.3%	41.8%
Total	Count	34	45	79	
	% within Consideration	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	43.0%	57.0%	100.0%	

This dimension also witnessed little variance between males and females. Respondents who regarded the comfort, well being, status, and contribution of followers with a low degree in the female sample were 54.3% versus 45.7% who were high. More men and women exhibit low Consideration. This refutes the stereotype that exists that women are more considerate than males in the workplace.

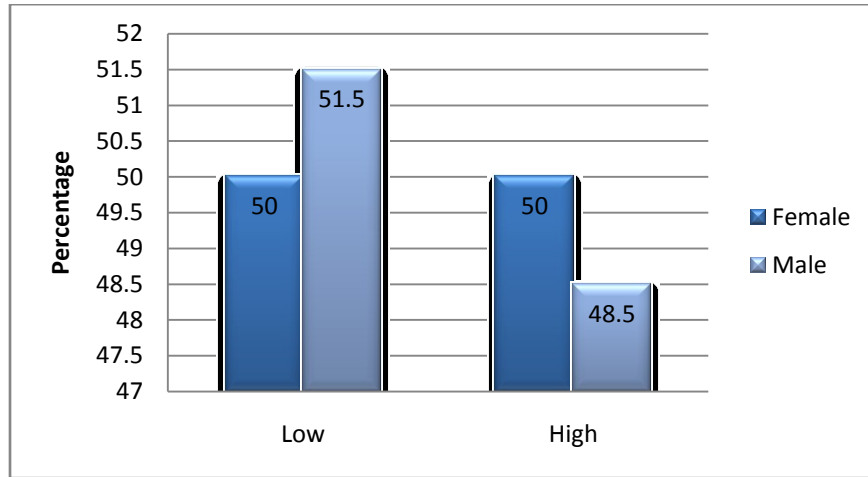
**Table 10:** Consideration vs. Sex Chi-Square Test

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.307	1	.580

The Pearson Chi-Square estimate of Consideration is 0.307, with 0.580 significance (p-value). This indicates that there is no significant difference between men and women regarding Consideration. They could both be as equal on Consideration as each other. Results show that we cannot reject the null hypothesis that says that no differences exist between them.

- **Production Emphasis:**

**Figure 12:** Production Emphasis vs. Sex



**Table 11:** Production Emphasis vs. Sex Cross-tabulation

			Production Emphasis		Total
			High	Low	
Sex	Female	Count	23	23	46
		% within Sex	50.0%	50.0%	100.0%
		% within Production Emphasis	59.0%	57.5%	58.2%
		% of Total	29.1%	29.1%	58.2%
	Male	Count	16	17	33
		% within Sex	48.5%	51.5%	100.0%
		% within Production Emphasis	41.0%	42.5%	41.8%
		% of Total	20.3%	21.5%	41.8%
Total	Count	39	40	79	
	% within Production Emphasis	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	49.4%	50.6%	100.0%	

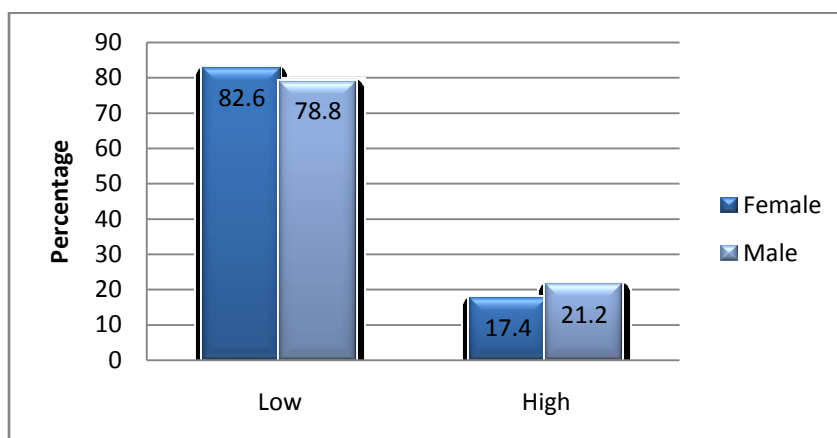
This dimension, which relates to whether respondents apply pressure for productive output, shows equal distribution within the female sample, and almost equal distribution within the male sample. They are both almost divided by 50% between the low and high categories. The Pearson Chi-Square estimate of this dimension, as indicated in the table below, is 0.018; with 0.894 significance (p-value). This shows that there is no significant difference between men and women regarding Production Emphasis. We cannot reject the null hypothesis.

**Table 12:** Production Emphasis vs. Sex Chi-Square Test

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.018	1	.894

- **Integration:**

**Figure 13:** Integration vs. Sex



**Table 13:** Integration vs. Sex Cross-tabulation

			Integration		Total
			High	Low	
Sex	Female	Count	8	38	46
		% within Sex	17.4%	82.6%	100.0%
		% within Integration	53.3%	59.4%	58.2%
		% of Total	10.1%	48.1%	58.2%
	Male	Count	7	26	33
		% within Sex	21.2%	78.8%	100.0%
		% within Integration	46.7%	40.6%	41.8%
		% of Total	8.9%	32.9%	41.8%
Total	Count	15	64	79	
	% within Integration	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	19.0%	81.0%	100.0%	

**Table 14:** Integration vs. Sex Chi-Square Test

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.182	1	.669

On this last data item examined, results are skewed towards the low category in both the male and the female samples. 82.6% of the female sample and 78.8% of the male sample maintain a closely knit organization and resolve inter-member conflicts with a low degree. This is contrary to the perception that the culture of the civil service in Egypt is generally integrative, and based on ties and social relations rather than competition and conflict. The Pearson Chi-Square test of this dimension shows that there is no significant difference between males and females with regards this data item.

The results of Spearman's one tailed test also confirm the statistical significance results indicated earlier; no significant differences exist between respondents' sex and any of the six data items.

**Table 15:** Spearman's Coefficient

			Initiation of Structure	Tolerance	Role Assumption	Consideration	Production Emphasis	Integration
Spearman's rho	Sex	Sig.-1 tailed	0.448	0.302	0.189	0.293	0.448	0.337
		N	79	79	79	79	79	79

### Examination of Differences between Males and Females on Agentic and Communal Qualities

In this section, the six data items were grouped into Agentic and Communal qualities and examined within the female and the male samples separately. A testing of the hypothesis was done to reject or fail to reject the assumption that there is no difference between males and females with regards the exhibition of Agentic and Communal characteristics.

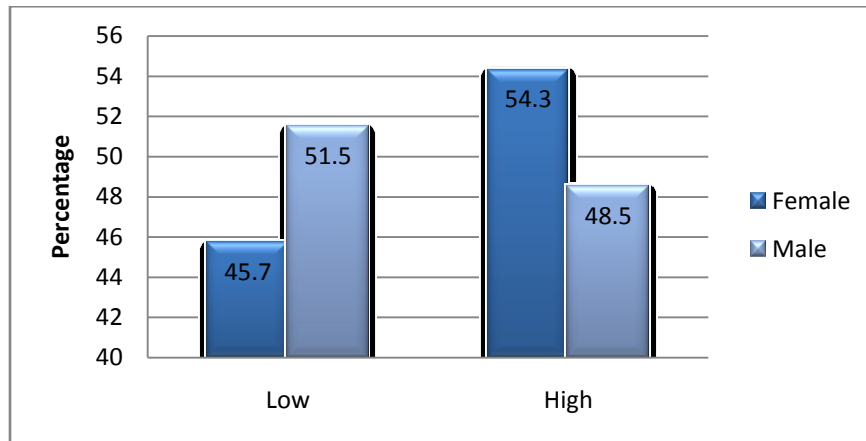
- **Agentic:**

**Table 16:** Agentic - Female and Male Samples

Female Sample			
		Frequency	Percent
Valid	High	25	54.3
	Low	21	45.7
	Total	46	100.0

Male Sample			
		Frequency	Percent
Valid	High	17	51.5
	Low	16	48.5
	Total	33	100.0

**Figure 14:** Agentic Qualities- Both Samples



According to the above figures, the percentage of females exhibiting a high degree of Agentic qualities of Initiation of Structure, Role Assumption, and Production Emphasis within the female sample is higher than that within the male sample. However, this is the contrary situation upon comparison of the low category, where 51.5% of men exhibited a low degree of Agentic qualities in comparison to 45.7% of women.

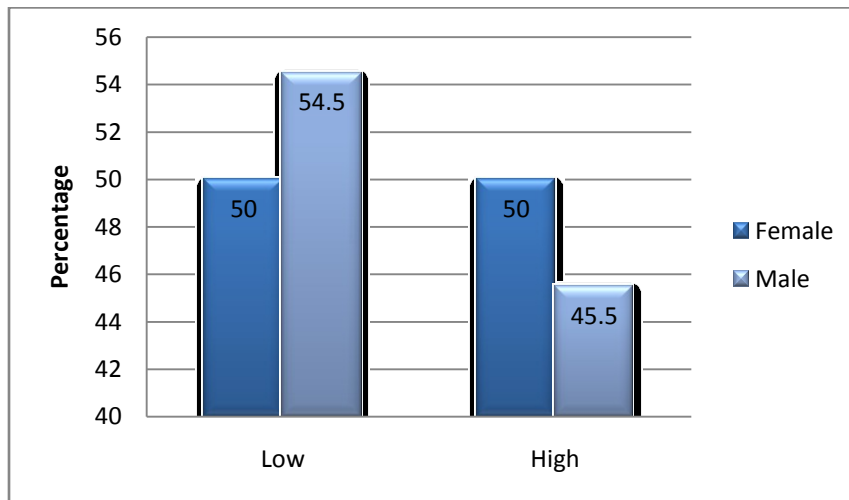
- **Communal:**

**Table 17:** Communal - Female and Male Samples

Female Sample			
		Frequency	Percent
Valid	High	23	50.0
	Low	23	50.0
Total		46	100.0

Male Sample			
		Frequency	Percent
Valid	High	15	45.5
	Low	18	54.5
Total		33	100.0

**Figure 15:** Communal Qualities - Both Samples



On the Communal dimension composed of the Consideration, Integration, and Tolerance and Freedom data items, the female sample was divided equally. More males, however, exhibited low Communal qualities than those males who exhibited high.



The Pearson Chi-Square test in the female sample and male samples (below) indicate that no significant difference exists between males and females with regards Communal and Agentic qualities. Males and females may exhibit such qualities with the same degree and we cannot reject the null hypothesis that no differences exist between them.

**Table 18:** Agentic vs. Communal Chi-Square Test

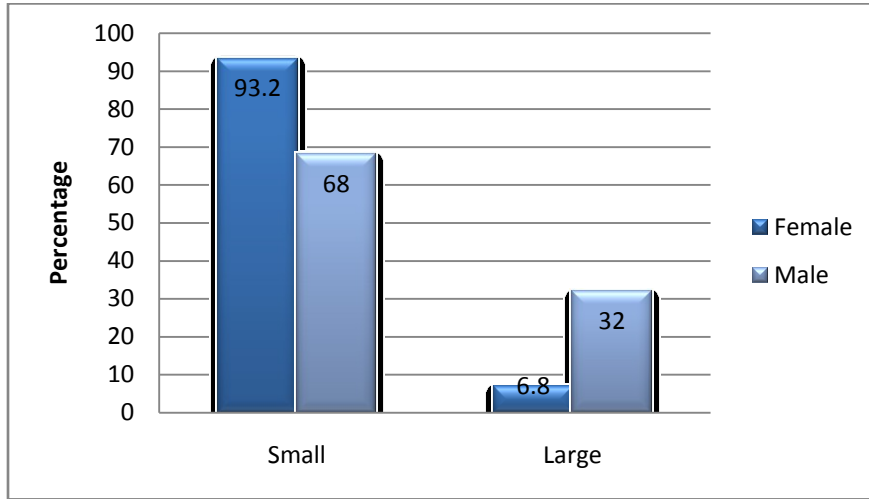
Male Sample			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2.528	1	.112

Female Sample			
	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2.190	1	.139

### **Examination of the Correlation between the Number of Supervised Personnel and Respondents' Sex**

An examination of whether there was a correlation between respondents' sex and the number of personnel they supervise was done to determine whether men supervise, on average, more employees than women, and to determine whether this correlation was significant or not.

**Figure 16:** Number of Supervised Personnel vs. Sex



**Table 19:** Number of Supervised Personnel vs. Sex Cross-tabulation

			No. of supervised Personnel		Total
			Large	Small	
Sex	Female	Count	3	41	44
		% within Sex	6.8%	93.2%	100.0%
		% within No. of supervised Personnel	27.3%	70.7%	63.8%
		% of Total	4.3%	59.4%	63.8%
Sex	Male	Count	8	17	25
		% within Sex	32.0%	68.0%	100.0%
		% within No. of supervised Personnel	72.7%	29.3%	36.2%
		% of Total	11.6%	24.6%	36.2%
Total	Count	11	58	69	
		% within No. of supervised Personnel	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	15.9%	84.1%	100.0%

According to the above figures, within the female sample, 93.2% supervised less than 32 people as opposed to 68% of the male sample. As for supervising more than 32 subordinates, men scored higher as much more men than women were represented in this category. This is an indicator that males in general supervise a larger number of employees than females. It is worthy to note that this difference might be due to the late entry of women into the workforce, which affected their seniority as opposed to males.

When the Pearson Chi-Square test was conducted, it was determined that there is significant difference between the number of supervised personnel and sex; both variables are correlated. Therefore, we reject the null hypothesis that no difference exists.

**Table 20:** Number of Supervised Personnel vs. Sex Chi-Square Test

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	7.544	1	.006

## CHAPTER SEVEN: Study Findings

The following findings were reached upon thorough examination and analysis of the previous data; and which can be used to answer the main research and investigative questions of this thesis:

1. Upon examination of the correlation between respondents' sex and the six data items discussed previously, the following major findings were concluded:
  - a. Women and men exhibited almost the same degree of Initiation of Structure. Most of the sample prefers with a low degree to clearly define its own role and lets followers know what is expected of them. There is no significant difference between males and females on the Initiation of Structure dimension.
  - b. Men exhibit a lesser degree of Tolerance and Freedom in the workplace than women, not allowing followers a high scope for initiative, decision and action. However no statistically significant difference exists between men and women on this dimension.
  - c. Both women and men tend to exhibit the same degree of Role Assumption, seeking to express their leadership roles rather than surrendering them to others. The percentage of men in the male sample with high Role Assumption is more than that of women in the female sample. However, this result renders no significant differences between males and females on this dimension.

- d. Males and females tend to exhibit the same degree of Consideration, thus no significant difference occurs between them on regarding the comfort, well being, status, and contribution of their followers.
  - e. Those who exhibited Production Emphasis were equally distributed between males and females, thus revealing that almost half the sample on both sides tends to apply with a degree pressure for productive output in their daily interactions with their followers. However, no significant difference on this scale occurs between men and women.
  - f. Most of the respondents scored low on the Integration dimension, thus exhibiting a low degree of maintaining a closely knit organization and resolving inter-member conflicts. No significant difference was accounted for between males and females.
2. When the six aforementioned dimensions were grouped in terms of Agentic and Communal categories, more females exhibited a high degree of Agentic qualities than those who exhibited low, whereas on the Communal category, women were divided equally between high and low. However, no significant differences were found between men and women with regards these two qualities.

The previously mentioned findings therefore provide an answer to the study's main research question. Based on the data provided from this sample, no significant differences can be accounted for in the leadership styles of Egyptian men and women working in the Ministry of Finance in the data items and categories under examination.

When comparing the findings of this study with that of Chapman (1975), there is generally no difference in the concluding findings, since Chapman concluded from his study that there are no differences in the leadership styles of men and women examined, and that women do not exhibit more interpersonal relationships than their male counterparts. Also he did not find that females were more task-oriented than males, even though the original assumption was that they might need to be as such to succeed in the male traditional environment in which they were operating.

Additional findings included the conclusion that men supervise more subordinates than women, and that sex is significantly correlated to this aspect. This is a revealing result, since promotion in the Egyptian public sector is supposed to be based on seniority especially at the managerial and leadership levels examined within this study. Thus this confirms that promotion and the allocation of leadership roles to women and men is subject to bias and needs to be re-examined. This will be discussed further in the coming chapter.

Finally, the results of this study can be concluded on the Ministry of Finance, but are generally not preferred to be generalized to the whole Egyptian public sector. This was a good sample to examine, for the specific reason that women and men are offered the same capacity building opportunities which downplayed possible bias due to the difference in professional capabilities between the female and male employees. However, not all ministries have Equal Opportunity Units embedded within their organizational structures, and which exist to raise the capacity of their employees by offering them

workshops on leadership skills and other managerial abilities. If we were to say we can conclude these findings to all other civil service organizations would be misleading, because this single factor may greatly affect the results. Even though there might be an underlying assumption that all public sector organizations are alike, such organizational cultures may differ. Additionally, due to the small sample size as compared to the total number of civil service employees in Egypt, it would definitely be inaccurate to say that this can be a representative sample.

## **CHAPTER EIGHT: Implications**

The findings of this study refute the perception that leadership style differences exist between men and women based on their sex at the Ministry of Finance. According to the results, men do not tend to have Agentic “male” qualities, and females Communal “feminine” qualities. Therefore, any bias in promotion, pay or delegation of responsibilities based on this stereotype should be challenged through available organizational mechanisms such as the Equal Opportunity Unit at the Ministry of Finance, which serves as a good example of gender mainstreaming in public organizations. Any sources of inequality, other than the mere perception, should be determined in order to be addressed. Further leadership programs should be developed that address the needs of women and men equally, but with more focus on the lag time women had in catching up with the labor train in Egypt. Women started to enter the work force late in time, as compared to other countries, where official government statistics show female participation in the labor force in the period between 1976 – 1982 as a mere 6% (Anker et al, 1989). Even if such rates are changing more rapidly, the long time it took women to catch up with men could have disfavored them in terms of acquired professional capabilities and skills. A further look needs to also be taken as to why men supervise a larger number of subordinates than women, even though promotion in the public sector is based on seniority and not employees’ sex. This might confirm the notion that promotions to higher levels even in the public sector are in favor of men rather than women or that women are not given the same supervisory opportunities as men. Even if the employees supervised are junior clerks, a larger number builds the leadership and supervisory skills



of managers. In addition, the mere difference is a clear prejudice especially considering that the number of female employees working in the Ministry in the managerial and leadership positions examined is almost equal to that of males. If this phenomenon is based on other reasons, such as competence rather than sex, this also needs to be analyzed and examined to determine the points of weakness in female employees' capabilities that need to be developed.

The findings of this study support the school of thought that advocates that no differences exist in leadership styles between men and women based on their sex, but differences may be due to the socialization that people go through as they grow up and from which women and men derive their values, beliefs and sense of wrong and right. Other factors behind such differences, as discussed previously in the literature, include the culture of origin which influences the orientation of people coming from the same cultural context. Organizational climate might alternatively be the factor behind such differences where phenomenon such as the glass ceiling, glass wall, glass borders, and the glass cliff come into play. This gives rise to other important research questions that can be asked in future studies including: what are the specific barriers facing the advancement of women in Egyptian public organizations? How do existing policies, rules and procedures limit their success? What policy efforts are being made to overcome such barriers and what facilitators exist to help women advance in their careers? Other important questions that need to be addressed: do differences between men and women make either one of them less effective in the workplace? What behaviors are considered acceptable for women in Egypt's public administration?

Some of the implications of this study indicate that a future study can be done adopting a different sampling technique that would be based on random sampling and include a larger total number of respondents. This would better allow for generalization on a larger scale. Better access to information can also allow for a more representative sample size to be drawn based on the total population figures needed. The scope of this study could also be either expanded within the same Ministry, or conducted between organizations in a comparative approach to determine whether a general systematic trend exists in public organizations. This can allow us to generalize results or limit them to elements under study.

Groves (2005), in a similar study in which he examines gender differences in leadership styles, not only examines leaders, but even a larger number of their subordinates. Since they are important in determining the leadership capabilities of a person, direct followers and peers of leaders can also be included in the study. This could also be done in a future expansion of the study, which would also utilize the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ XII) developed for followers by the Ohio State University, provided that followers have had an opportunity to observe their leader in action for some time to be able to evaluate his/her style. Another alternative would be to use a questionnaire already developed by a specialized institution that would be more recent, and shorter to allow for a higher response rate. Personal administration of the questionnaire would also be recommended to allow for more accurate information completion. As for the number of supervised people, a future study can group the sample according to one category that supervises the same number of employees, so that

comparison between respondents would be balanced. The supervision of a different number of people, especially if the difference in number is large might affect the accuracy of the results and how far they can be relevant in explaining the phenomenon.

Implications on future research includes examining the source of the leadership style differences witnessed between male and female employees at the Ministry, whether they are personality based or due to other factors. A comparative study can also be done in the private sector to compare the results, but the choice of target population and sampling method would have to be very accurate so as to keep the variance within the groups under comparison as low as possible. Organizational cultures need to also be examined whenever addressing a phenomenon within an organizational structure. A method must be devised to keep this variable constant, either by choosing two similar organizations, or by trying to determine the effect that the difference in cultures has on the results. Good access to the organizations under study is pivotal and access to information is important to ensure accuracy and availability of data needed. A further study can examine whether some organizations are more conducive to women's career advancement than others. This study can be based on the study done by Newman (1994) of the state of Florida Senior Management Service executives in which she sought a response to the same question and concluded that organizations are not alike on this account.

## SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

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This thesis was developed prompted by a general trend that favors men in pay, promotion, tasks, and opportunities. This is evident by the radical difference in the number of males versus females in leading positions, whether in public structures or in the private business world. One of the reasons behind this phenomenon is the stereotype which exists and which claims that women are not apt to lead and if put in leadership positions, they would be less competent and not as qualified as males. Thus, the need for a study to examine this allegation was evident. The study was conducted in the Ministry of Finance as the case of an Egyptian public organization and its main research question was whether leadership style differences existed between Egyptian men and women working in the Ministry of Finance in Egypt.

The relevant literature on leadership and gender can be divided into two different schools: advocates of the Equity view who believe that no differences exist between female and male leadership styles based on their sex, but rather differences that may exist are due to differing personality traits, biased cultural values or socialization roles which women are brought up to assume; and advocates of the contrary view who believe that women and men are essentially different even if they each have their equally significant contributions.

The methodology adopted in this study surveyed 46 females and 33 males working in managerial level positions at the Ministry of Finance. It examined their degree of Initiation of Structure, Role Assumption, Production Emphasis, Integration, Consideration, and Tolerance and Freedom. On all such dimensions, no significant

differences were found between men and women. Following, the six dimensions were grouped into Agentic and Communal qualities, as per the trend in the literature that classifies leadership style differences as Agentic “male” qualities of decisiveness and dominance, and Communal “female” qualities of nurturance and sympathy. Women and men were thus comparatively examined, with the result that again no significant differences were found between men and women. Women do not tend to have more Communal leadership qualities and men do not tend to have more Agentic ones. Upon examining the correlation between the number of supervised personnel and respondents’ sex, it was concluded that men supervised more employees than women and that this aspect is significantly correlated to sex.

Therefore, the answer to the main research question was that no differences exist in the leadership styles of Egyptian men and women working in the Ministry of Finance. Women and men cannot be grouped into typical Communal and Agentic qualities. This supports the view that the stereotype which exists is incorrect and should be refuted through the use of organizational, human resource, and policy mechanisms.

Some of the implications of the findings included the need for future studies to adopt a random sampling methodology, and get access to data and organizations to ensure accuracy of results and a degree of representation. Important research questions that need to be examined include: what are the barriers facing the advancement of women in public organizations in Egypt? What efforts are being done to overcome such barriers? Do differences between men and women make either one of them less effective in the workplace?

Finally, additional future studies that can be done in the same field and which would shed more light on the field of gender and leadership in Egypt, the Arab World and the public sector, include a comparative examination between public organizations and each other; as well as between chosen public organizations and private ones. This could be indicative of the effect organizational culture can have on employees' potential and performance.

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## Appendix (1) Leadership Styles and Behaviors

### Leadership Styles:

- Autocratic: Taking decisions without seeing the necessity to explain the rationale behind them
- Benevolent Autocratic: Taking decisions on his/her own, but explaining the rationale behind them.
- Consultative: Considers employee feedback and opinion before taking decisions.
- Participative: Works with employees in developing ideas but retains the final decision to him/herself.
- Consensus: Seeks group decisions and votes.
- Laissez-faire: Allows employees to make decisions on their own.

### Leader Behaviors:

- Goal emphasis: Leader's degree of emphasis on the achievement of goals.
- Interaction facilitation: Leader's ability to facilitate interaction among the group in an effort to develop an effective team.
- Work facilitation: Leader's degree of developing employees' skills to increase task performance.
- Supportive behavior: Leader's degree of providing feedback to employees.
- Personnel development: Leader's motivational ability and degree of analyzing employees' development needs (Gibson, 1995).

## Appendix (2): Questionnaire Manual

- **Subscales and their Definitions**

1. Initiation of Structure: clearly defines own role, and lets followers know what is expected. (5 items)
2. Tolerance and Freedom: allows followers scope for initiative, decision and action. (5 items)
3. Role Assumption: actively exercises the leadership role rather than surrendering leadership to others. (5 items)
4. Consideration: regards the comfort, well being, status, and contributions of followers. (5 items)
5. Production Emphasis: applies pressure for productive output. (5 items)
6. Integration: maintains a closely knit organization; resolves inter-member conflicts. (5 items)

- **Instructions:**

- The subject indicates his/her response by drawing a circle around one of the 5 letters (A, B, C, D, E). Items are scored A (5) B (4) C (3) D (2) E (1), except the starred items which are scored A (1) B (2) C (3) D (4) E (5).
- Each subscale is assigned specific questions represented in the record sheet. For example, the Consideration subscale consists of items 4, 10, 16, 22, and 28.

- Scores are written in the record sheet. The total score is then calculated, where the total score is the sum of the scores assigned to a subscale's items.

### Record Sheet

		<b>Item #</b>	<b>Score</b>								<b>Total</b>
1	Initiation of Structure	1		7		13		19		25	
2	Tolerance and Freedom	2		8*		14		20		26	
3	Role Assumption	3		9		15		21		27	
4	Consideration	4		10		16		22		28*	
5	Production Emphasis	5		11		17		23*		29	
6	Integration	6		12		18		24		30	



## Questionnaire

Please make sure of filling in the following information:

**Job Title:** .....

**Sex:** M / F

**Number of Supervised Personnel:** .....

On the following pages is a list of items that may be used to describe how you behave as a leader. This is not a test of ability. It simply asks you to describe as accurately as you can, how you behave as a leader of the group that you supervise.

Note: The term “group” as employed in the following items, refers to a department, division, unit or collection of people that you supervise.

The term “member” refers to all the people in the unit that you supervise.

Time Allocation: Please allot 30 minutes for answering this questionnaire.

Privacy Statement: All answers and information given on this sheet will remain private. It will never be used for assessment purposes. Please feel free to answer as honestly and candidly as possible.



**DIRECTIONS:**

- a. READ each item carefully.
- b. THINK about how you frequently engage in the behavior described by the item.
- c. DECIDE whether you Always, Often, Occasionally, Seldom, or Never, act as described by the item.
- d. DRAW A CIRCLE around **one** of the five letters (A B C D E) following the item to show the answer you selected.

<b>A</b>	<b>B</b>	<b>C</b>	<b>D</b>	<b>E</b>
Always	Often	Occasionally	Seldom	Never

- e. MARK your answers as shown in the example below.

Example: Often acts as described

A (B) C D E

		Always	Often	Occasionally	Seldom	Never
1	I let the group members know what is expected of them.	A	B	C	D	E
2	I permit the members to use their own judgment in solving problems.	A	B	C	D	E
3	I back down when I ought to stand firm.	A	B	C	D	E
4	I am friendly and approachable.	A	B	C	D	E
5	I encourage overtime work.	A	B	C	D	E
6	I keep the group working together as a team.	A	B	C	D	E
7	I decide what shall be done and how it shall be done.	A	B	C	D	E
8	I am reluctant to allow the members any freedom of action.	A	B	C	D	E
9	I let some members have authority that I should keep.	A	B	C	D	E

10	I put suggestions made by the group into operation.	A	B	C	D	E
		<b>Always</b>	<b>Often</b>	<b>Occasionally</b>	<b>Seldom</b>	<b>Never</b>
11	I stress being ahead of competing groups.	A	B	C	D	E
12	I settle conflicts when they occur in the group.	A	B	C	D	E
13	I assign group members to particular tasks.	A	B	C	D	E
14	I allow the group a high degree of initiative.	A	B	C	D	E
15	I take full charge when emergencies arise.	A	B	C	D	E
16	I look out for the personal welfare of group members.	A	B	C	D	E
17	I push for increased production.	A	B	C	D	E
18	I see to it that the work of the group is coordinated.	A	B	C	D	E
19	I schedule the work to be done.	A	B	C	D	E
20	I trust the members to exercise good judgment.	A	B	C	D	E
		<b>Always</b>	<b>Often</b>	<b>Occasionally</b>	<b>Seldom</b>	<b>Never</b>
21	I overcome attempts made to challenge my leadership.	A	B	C	D	E
22	I am willing to make changes.	A	B	C	D	E
23	I permit the members to take it easy in their work.	A	B	C	D	E
24	I help group members settle their differences.	A	B	C	D	E
25	I maintain definite standards of performance.	A	B	C	D	E
26	I let other persons take away my leadership in the group.	A	B	C	D	E
27	I am easily recognized as the leader of the group.	A	B	C	D	E
28	I act without consulting the group.	A	B	C	D	E

29	I urge the group to beat its previous record.	A	B	C	D	E
30	I maintain a closely knit group.	A	B	C	D	E