**Gordon Institute
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FEMALE LEADERSHIP IN SOUTH AFRICAN BUSINESS: PERSPECTIVES AS VIEWED THROUGH A GENDER, RACE AND GENERATIONAL LENS

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study is to examine how female leaders are perceived on the relational dimensions of leader-member exchange (LMX) through a gender, race and generational lens. The study further compares how the followers of female leaders compare the gender-stereotypical perception (think-manager think-male) of leadership through measuring the person- and task-oriented skills that female leaders portray. The purpose of the study is to understand whether there are differences in perception between followers from different genders, races and generations in the South African context.

The research instrument was administered to 115 followers of female leaders within the fast-moving consumer goods (FCMG) industry in South Africa. The followers scored female leaders on the degree to which they portray these leadership characteristics on a scale from one (strongly disagree) to five (strongly agree). The followers' responses were analysed and compared in relation to their gender, race and generational cohort using ANOVA.

The data showed that male respondents scored female leaders higher than female respondents did. There was no significant difference in scores between generations. There were differences on race level as Black and White respondents rated females higher on most items, than other races did. The significance of the findings was the intersection between race and gender. Coloured male and Indian female respondents rated female leaders lower than other races did. However, Black females rated female leaders higher than females in other races rated female leaders

The significance in the findings indicates the need for business to further understand and analyse the gender and race intersection and their implications within South African business. The followers' perception of female leadership through a gender and race lens is critical in understanding how to progress female leadership within South African business.

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KEYWORDS

Female leadership

Gender

Generations

Race

Leader-member exchange

DECLARATION

I declare that this research project is my own work. It is submitted in partial fulfilment to the requirements for the degree of Master of Business Administration at the Gordon Institute of Business Science, University of Pretoria. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination in any other University. I further declare that I have obtained the necessary authorisation and consent to carry out this research.

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Signature   Date

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1.1.2   The necessity of female leaders in business

The interest in females in business leadership and the congruence of leadership and gender studies has increased in the last five years. There have been about 3000 published articles since 1970 with 38% of these published since 2010, which indicates the increasing interest and relevance of the topic (Eagly & Heilman, 2016a). Hymowitz and Schnellhardt (1986) coined the term "glass ceiling" in a 1986 Wall Street Journal article. The article looked at the disparity between women entering the work force and the number of women reaching key profit and loss positions or positions where they "impact on company policy" (Hymowitz & Schnellhardt, 1986). The term has become synonymous with any gender-related discussion in public, business and academic circles and is as relevant today as 30 years ago.

In South Africa, a mere 11.6% of CEOs and Chairpersons are female, from a population that has 51.2% female representation (Business Women's Association of South Africa, 2015), and in the South African National Defence Force, the female representation is a mere 25% (Merreinne, 2016). However, the political sphere in South Africa is listed in eleventh place on a list of 138 other countries, with female ministers representing 41% of cabinet, compared to the world average of a slim 17% female representation (Inter-Parliamentary Union & United Nations Women, 2015). In business, female leaders in South Africa represent a mere 29.3% of executive management (Business Woman's Association of South Africa, 2015) which contradicts Koenig, Eagly, Mitchell and Ristikari's (2011) point that leadership is progressively understood to be androgynous, and therefore weakens the argument that gender stereotypes are still a relevant issue in business.

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The foundation of the urgency is that 60.8% of graduates in South Africa are females and female graduates outnumber male graduates across all sectors of Science, Technology, Engineering, Education, Business and Commerce and other Humanities (Statistics South Africa, 2014). However the numbers do not translate to the upper echelons of business, government and academia. Therefore, if females are not able to break through the unseen, invisible and often unrecognised barriers in the workplace, corporate South Africa will not be able to transform to capitalise on the diverse views, opinions and leadership styles females bring to the table.

Business leaders in South Africa today have inherited the deep-rooted legacy of apartheid that needs to be addressed on an organisational, team and individual level (Booysen, 2016). The imperative is for organisations to understand the racial, gender and generational intersection of the perceptions of female business leaders to be able to contribute to female advancement (Arifeen, 2013; Moolman, 2013).

Numerous studies look at female leadership from a 'self' perspective and from an 'other' perspective; however few have looked at the follower/team of the female leader to understand what their perception of females' leadership relationships and styles are, from a personal engaged view rather than an outsider view. Management students were not part of this study and therefore the followers' perceptions are experienced real views of female leadership rather than theoretical laboratory relationships (Heilman, M. E., Wallen, A. S., Fuchs, D. & Tamkins, 2004; Schmid Mast, 2004; Sczesny, 2003). The study therefore looks at the gender, racial and generational views of followers of female leaders.

If female leaders do not mindfully address how they manage stereotype threats, it could lead to a decrease in motivation and involvement, which in turn can affect their teams' performance and identification with leadership (Hoyt & Murphy, 2016; Koenig et al, 2011). Therefore, social cognitive theory plays an important role in how females can navigate the corporate world through effective self-regulation. Once females understand the racial, gender and generational perspectives of followers, they can adjust their cognitive thinking to assess the situation and effectively respond.

Furthermore, to enhance female leadership effectiveness within a team construct, a female leader has to understand her team's perceptions of female leadership across gender, race and generational cohorts.

Culture and race have been key constructs in organisational dynamics, and are even more relevant in post-apartheid South Africa. Leaders need to be well versed in nuances of race interactions and consequences to minimise misunderstandings (Booysen, 2016), even more so for female leaders that have to deal with the normal gender stereotypes (for example: think-manager think-male) daily (Schein, 2007). Relating feminist theory to the intersection of race, gender and generation brings forth another dimension of the dominant narrative of feminist theory seen through a White liberal lens, rather than understanding feminist theory through a racial, class and generational lens (Holvino, 2010). Therefore, the research will contribute in understanding and validating the findings.

Schewe and Meredith (2004) describe generational cohorts as groups of individuals born in the same era that "travel through life together". The cohorts evident in the workforce are the Baby Boomers (born between 1946 and 1964), Generation X (born between 1965 and 1980) and Generation Y also known as Millennials (born between 1981 and 1999) (Hoole & Bonnema, 2015). There are three generations in the workplace which impact on leadership styles and specifically how leaders are perceived in being effective or not. These perceptions are critical in understanding how female leaders can contribute to their own teams' effectiveness.

Lyons and Kuron (2013) analysed research conducted on generational differences in the workplace and found a modest suggestion of a tendency of individual success as a focus point for a leader, rather than the traditional view of group performance focus. Hence, if a female leader understands the generational, gender and race differences in perceptions of her leadership ability, this can be used to effectively create a more individualistic approach of managing her team, aligned to the leader-member exchange (LMX) principles.

At the heart of analysing perceptions of teams is the ever-present concept of dynamic relationships within the workplace. These relationships create the foundation for high-performing teams and therefore competent leaders to maximise efficient output. Core to these relationships are the interactions and personal connection between team members

and especially between the member and the leader, which bring us to the LMX position. Leader-member exchange theory has been around since the seminal work of Dansereau, Graen and Haga (1975) in the 1970s.

1.1.3   Managing different generations, cultures and genders in the workplace

Salkowitz (2008) believes that as generational cohorts go through life stages they will change, but fundamentally will retain their generational values, and therefore emphasizes the need for business to understand the values shaping their behaviour, interaction and performance. Joshi, Dencker, Franz and Martocchio (2010) positioned generational underpinnings in multiple facets, not merely on age, as the term 'generation' is commonly understood. The three facets they refer to are the view of age, the political/sociological-based view, and lastly, the view based on occupancy in a specific role (Joshi et al., 2010). The research will look at impacts on generational cohorts, however cohorts will be defined by their birth years.

Female leaders are faced with the double edged sword of performing in the workplace at equal or better levels than male counterparts, yet are expected to maintain their feminine qualities and run a household (Eagly & Carli, 2007; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Eagly, Makhijani, & Klonsky, 1992). The situation is self-perpetuating and when female leaders understand the dynamics of opinions, virtues and values within the confines of their teams, they will inevitably manage the dyadic relationships better. The research is aimed to give female leaders an insight to the intersection of race, gender and generation of their followers in the workplace.

1.2   Research problem

The research will determine whether the female-follower relationship corresponds to LMX principles. The study will aim to determine whether female leaders apply LMX principles within the teams they manage and to what extent gender, race and generational perspectives influence the LMX relationship.

Furthermore, the research views the followers' perceptions of female leadership styles through a gender, race and generational lens and the complication that arises as a result of

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the intersectionality and simultaneity of all three dimensions (Holvino, 2010). The style will be measured through traits and behaviours that the followers attribute and have experienced through the female leader. The traits are classified as person- and task-oriented and therefore link with the stereotypical classification of what is perceived to be male and/or female traits. Lastly, the research will attempt to understand the leadership changes the female leader need to address to ensure she builds effective relationships with her followers.

1.3   Research motivation

The motivation for the research is both personal and relevant to the current situation of female leaders in South Africa (Business Women's Association of South Africa, 2015). On a personal level, the researcher wants to understand how followers and employees from a gender, multi-racial and multi-generational perspective measure leadership effectiveness of female leaders against conscious and unconscious biases. When female leaders are conscious of these perceptions, they can actively manage perceptions to improve team coherence and performance, through knowing the unconscious views of team members. This will ultimately lead to long-term success for the organisation as well as the female leader's career development as an effective transformational leader of the future.

Key to the female leader's effectiveness is the need to infer LMX principles within her working team as well as consciousness around attribution traits linked to her effectiveness as a leader. There seems to be a gap in research regarding the linkage of LMX with effective team management (Allison, 2016), and therefore no research could be found in the researcher's examination of LMX and how effective female leaders are in applying the principles. Therefore, there seems to be a gap in understanding whether female leaders apply LMX and even more so how followers define leadership effectiveness.

Sczesny's (2003) study was used to understand the think-manager think-male stereotype among female and male respondents. Holden and Raffo (2014) used a leader's trait study to determine different perceptions of gender stereotypes amongst generational cohorts. Sczesny (2003) urged for a broader view than gender to conduct the analysis and Holden and Raffo (2014) recommended using Sczesny's (2003) leader trait survey to gain a

generational view on female leadership stereotypes. Therefore, the study will look at a gender, generation and race view of Sczesny's (2003) study combined with LMX principles within the South African context.

1.3.1 Current research

There seems to be a gap in current research that directly links perceptions of multigenerational cohorts of female leadership effectiveness, specifically looking at the multilevel domain of generations on the LMX relation (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). These perceptions affect team performance, dynamics, as well as generational impact on the wider perception and influence of others in their perception of female leadership effectiveness.

Key to the relevance is the follower perception under study and not as most other studies the leader self-assessment or perceptions of peer group members. Further relevance is on the type of respondents used in the research, as Hernandez Bark, Escartín, Schuh, and van Dick (2016) and Von Hippel, Wiryakusuma, Bowden, and Shochet (2011) used respondents (graduate students) with a perception of female leaders. However, the premise of the study is that the perception of the follower is directly linked to their female leader and therefore linked to the personal engagement and experience between leader and follower, and not merely a perception of conscious or unconscious bias based on the respondents' perceptions of female leadership in general.

Glass and Cook (2016) motivated future research to segregate the followers' age, race and generation on a demographic level, seeing that research has shown that Generation Y employees are more open-minded about female leaders than other generations. Therefore, the influx of new employees in the job economy motivates for an updated view of gender, race and generational views of female leadership.

Intersectionality in gender theory has been researched on a gender and race level (Arifeen, 2013; Holvino, 2010; Otonkorpi-Lehtoranta, Leinonen, Nikkanen, & Heiskanen, 2015), however the research seeks to understand the dynamics of adding a generational view to the current race and gender intersection.

1.3.2 Implications for South Africa

The research will be beneficial for companies that are driving female participation at management level, to go beyond tracking numbers and truly motivating for change through understanding underlying perception of employees at a racial, gender and generational view (Business Women's Association of South Africa, 2015). When the perceptions are managed constructively and with the right level of attention, the outcome might be unchanged or the creation of activists for female leadership might ensue. When employees understand the business case to ensure female leaders are equally represented and the value they deliver perceived by their male counterparts, it will create a more diverse and inclusive culture with a collective accountability to address female leadership at every level in the company (Booysen, 2016).

South African managers face an exceptional challenge of managing multicultural employees whose identities and values are inherently influenced by the socio-historic effects of apartheid, and these effects manifest directly in the workplace (Mayer & Louw, 2011). Therefore the antecedents of these experiences and how they manifest in the organisational context is critical for South African organisations to understand - even more so for female leaders to navigate potential prejudice through a gender, race and generational lens.

1.3.3 Academic case for the study

The research adds to the field of female leadership, leadership in general and the new era of management of different generations within the workplace.

The outcomes of the research could:
- Assist female leaders in their approach to a multicultural and generationally diverse work force. Through understanding the different generational landscapes of management with an added implication of possible gender bias, female leaders and human resource personnel will gain insight into possible programmes to facilitate better relationships between female leaders and their teams if these potential biases arise.
- Give leadership teams (both male and female, of the older generations, and of a particular race group) greater insight of their own biases and how these affect their perceptions of female leaders. These perceptions predicate how followers perceive

female leaders and how other leaders in the corporate environment treat and perceive female leaders.

- Assist male colleagues in understanding the double standards from their teams that females deal with instinctively, and enable male peers to become advocates for female managers and the value they deliver.

- Assist organisations and academic institutions in the development of female leadership courses to up-skill female leaders on the different leadership approaches needed to bridge the gap between different generations, gender and racial views of followers, to enable female leaders to address these unconscious biases through active engagement.

- Assist organisations to review their diversity initiatives in how female leaders' performance is assessed if there is a team assessment involved, or even if there are peers or leaders that have input to the performance evaluation. The insights from different followers' racial and generational perspectives may be valuable to the different peer group or leader group perspectives.

- Provide insight to the team members of female lead teams on the perceived effectiveness and how different race, generations and gender followers' views plays out in the day-to-day engagements and behaviour of the team.

1.4   Research scope

The scope of the research covers the multi-generational, multiracial and gender perceptions of female leadership within large South African corporations. Fundamental to these perceptions is whether female leaders apply LMX principles within their management style. Gender and intersectionality theory will be the basis for this study with LMX theory, generational, role congruity theory and social cognitive theory implied. The sample selection was limited to the followers of female leaders of any gender, race, generation or rank. Therefore, the only criteria were that they have to currently work for, or have worked for a female leader.

1.5   Conclusion

The introductory chapter introduces the concepts around the title of this study, motivates the need for the study as well as the benefits that will be derived from the findings from this

study. At the core of this is the challenge to make progress in the understanding of the role that female leaders could and should play in building business in South Africa.

2 THEORY AND LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter will discuss the gender role and how the theory evolved, thereafter the implication with social cognitive theory and role congruity theory between the female gender role and the leadership role that confronts many female leaders today. It includes a review of the generational aspects of leadership and the current nuances leaders face when generational differences impact the workplace. The gender of the followers is discussed and how that influences the perception of leadership competence. The final part of the triangular view of the research will be the leadership traits and styles that subordinates identify with most, but more so the gender differences of leadership traits and how this manifests itself in females' careers. The intersectional view of race and gender will be discussed, followed by the leadership evolution and why leader-member exchange becomes such a relevant topic in relation to gender studies.

2.1 Gender

2.1.1   Introduction

Wood and Eagly (2002) constructed their own biosocial theory through a cross-cultural analysis of the origins of gender differences between men and women. Their analysis found that "the origins of the division of labour and patriarchy lie primarily in female reproduction activity and secondary in male size and strength, explaining why profound changes occurred in the status of women in the 20th century in most industrialised countries" (Wood & Eagly, 2002).

The emergence and the call for gender studies followed the women's movement in the 1960s with the category of gender added to the United States of America's Civil Rights Act in 1964 (Huber, 1986). Initial gender-role research was expressive in nature in that that boys were portrayed as "independent, strong, brave and imaginative leaders" in children's books, and on the contrary, girls were portrayed as "dependent, timid, pretty and sweet followers". These findings were conclusive to adult gender stereotyping (Huber, 1986).

Friedl's (Friedl, 1975, cited in Huber, 1986) principles were to steer the study of multicultural gender stratification to look at the constructs on family-level and society-level. The family

level emphasizes the power in the household as "whoever can put more bread on the table", and on a societal level, it links to power gained through "the control and distribution of goods beyond the family". Therefore, through discrimination and traditional female roles, males tend to dominate both levels (Friedl, 1975, cited in Huber, 1986).

The Industrial Revolution followed, and with it came a shift in the family and societal norms as the role of females was transformed with influence and drive from five trends explained in Friedl's work: "mortality, education, fertility, woman's participation in the labour force, and men's domestic participation" (Friedl, 1975, cited in Huber, 1986). These factors were the foundation of the women's movement and the emancipation of women, seen as an independent field for exploratory study to further expand into gender studies rather than the sociological compounds known at the time (Huber, 1986).

The industrialised societies have weakened the out-dated separation of labour and patriarchy through women's choice of using contraceptives, comparatively safer abortions, the evident decline in the number of births, and finally the reduction in the number of industrious activities that require male strength and size (Wood & Eagly, 2002). In conclusion, through their biosocial perspective, Wood & Eagly (2002) found that persons from both genders could potentially fulfil any organisational role and any level, considering all influencing factors relevant in the current industrialised society.

The phrases "stereotype", "conscious and unconscious bias", "glass ceiling" are ever present in the field of gender. However, the nuances of the inherent impact they have on the progression of females in the work place and the constant power agenda at play when women eventually do make it to the upper echelons will be discussed in the study. (Eagly & Carli, 2007; Heilman, M. E., Wallen, A. S., Fuchs, D. & Tamkins, 2004; Hymowitz & Schnellhardt, 1986).

Schein (1973,1975) studied middle managers within the insurance industry, and used her Descriptive Index of the characteristics to determine what constitutes a successful middle manager. She found that both male and female respondents' feedback yielded a higher correlation of typical male characteristics with successful middle managers, more so than female characteristics. The findings of females also seeing leadership characteristics through a masculine lens further perpetuates the cycle that males are seen as better leaders.

Eagly, Makhijani & Klonsky (1992) found that female leaders were devalued by female subordinates, in some cases to a larger extent than male subordinates, when the assumed hypothesis of male subordinates devaluing female leaders were not significant.

Understanding the position of the perception what has mostly been the norm in business in relation to how people see gender roles and how males were seen as leaders purely because they occupied most leadership roles further propagates what people perceive to be the norm (Eagly & Carli, 2007), therefore becoming the narrative and further perpetuating the struggles females need to deal with.

Gender studies are broader and more intense than merely seeking an appreciation of the differences between genders, but rather expand through the intersectionality of implicating factors that contribute to a wider scope of exploratory variables that impact on the topic. Therefore, intersectionality looks at multiple differences between subjects, has been integrated into theoretical concepts for the last 25 years, and are still topical in gender studies (Otonkorpi-Lehtoranta et al., 2015)

2.1.2   Social Cognitive Theory and Role Congruity Theory

Social Cognitive Theory
The premise of social cognitive thinking and the relevance to gender studies are clear in the self-regulated manner in which, if applied in accordance to Bandura (1991), female leaders to self-adjust their behaviour, emotional reactions and thinking patterns to navigate the situation they find themselves in. These moments become clear when concise effort is made and tools are used to train themselves in self-regulated behaviour. Hence, if female leaders are conscious of the implication of diverse teams, their perceptions and the stereotypes that each brings to the workplace, they can self-adjust to effectively deal with them. Social cognitive theory provides a powerful tool for envisaging and realising an environment of which creating and adapting the circumstances that touch every aspect of life (Bussey & Bandura, 1999).

The norms of gender roles are underpinned through social cognitive aptitudes and social conduct at an early development stage, which links to the social and emotional functioning of adults in societal and organisational context (Braza et al., 2009). Braza et. al (2009) studied social cognitive behaviour through five year old children of both genders to

understand which of social intelligence, empathy, verbal ability or appearance-reality would impact on the social acceptance between boys and girls.

The study found that, contrary to existing belief, girls portray more empathy, and that boys and girls who showed empathy enjoyed greater social acceptance. Braza et. al (2009) also found that boys that show more verbal ability were more socially accepted than girls, and girls showing more appearance-reality had better social acceptance scores than boys. Contrary to the belief that person-oriented skills are more attributed to females than males, empathy as a trait has been proven to be equally beneficial to males and females in a social acceptance context (Sczesny, 2003).

According to Bandura (1991), social cognitive theory manifests through self-influence and therefore self-regulation. Self-regulative tools function through three sub-functions of: "self-monitoring of one's behavior", "judgement of one's behavior in relation to personal standards and environmental circumstances", and "effective self-reaction". Self-regulation also incorporates the self-efficacy mechanism, which plays an essential role in the use of individual agency by its solid impact on "thought, affect, motivation and action". These are essential for female leaders to master and navigate their career development, interactions and experiences.

Self-monitoring is the first sub-function in self-regulation and an essential part of it, which implies that if the performance indicators and measures are unclear the motivations and actions to influence them is unknown. The judgemental sub-function defines who the female leader (or follower) will compare themselves with, at what level the value is determined, and finally the perceived performance is derived dependent on whether there are individual or external contributions to success or failure. The last sub-function is self-reactive influences where people value self-respect and self-worth derived from attaining the predetermined goals. It affects how much fulfilment people derive from what they do and therefore it provides direction for performance and creates incentives (Bandura, 1991). The fundamental element for females is how self-reaction is magnified, and crucial in how relationships build and develop over time, which furthermore become reference points for observers' perception formation.

Role Congruity Theory

Eagly, Makhijani and Klonsky (1992) defined gender role congruency as the means in which leaders behave consistent with the gender-role anticipations. Therefore, the gender-role congruency of female leaders' behaviour should affect the manner in which they contradict what people anticipate their behaviour to be, as well as the role conflict it resumes.

The formative work of Eagly and Karau (2002) on role congruity theory found two types of detriments for female leaders: the perception of females lacking leadership ability more so than men, and when a female occupies a masculine leadership role, her behaviour is evaluated less favourably. Both of these detriments are conclusive with the perceptions of the leader role and the gender role, which is seen to be in conflict if a female occupies the leadership role.

A study on the penalties that females experience in male-typical roles found that being disliked by peers or followers had an impact on performance evaluations and work settings, which again speaks to the gendered stereotypical prejudice female leaders need to navigate in their careers (Heilman, M. E., Wallen, A. S., Fuchs, D. & Tamkins, 2004; Kark, Waismel-Manor, & Shamir, 2012).

2.1.3 Gender Styles and Effectiveness

Rosener (2011) interviewed women who participated in the International Women's Forum (IWF) survey of men and women leaders, and found similarities in characteristics of how money and children are perceived and valued - however clear differences in the leadership styles men and women perceived as crucial for leaders emerged (Rosener, 2011). From her interviews and research, she deducted that, contrary to the traditional command-and-control style seen as an effective leadership style in business, the understanding of these women and how they create relationships and leverage on their interactions with subordinates, generated the idea of "interactive leadership" (Rosener, 2011).

Interactive leadership has four underlying principles namely: encourage participation, share power and information, enhance self-worth of others, and energize others (Rosener, 2011). Another finding from the IWF survey is that "women use power based on charisma, work record and contacts (personal power) rather than power based on organisational position,

title and the ability to reward and punish (structural power)", like their male counterparts (Rosener, 2011).

Agentic or Communal

According to Eagly and Carli (2007), classifying people according to gender induces mental associations about what is seen to be feminine or masculine. Therefore, feminine associations are linked to more communal characteristics like the domestic role females play, displaying more nurturing, sensitive behaviours, and in terms of social-and-service-oriented traits (Bakan, 1966 cited in Heilman, 2001).

However, for males, the character view is of the occupation role claiming authority and seen as achievement-oriented traits classified as agentic (Eagly & Carli, 2007; Bakan, 1966 cited in Heilman, 2001)). These mental associations are therefore unconsciously linked to the perceivers' context and observations of behaviours, which determines the outlook for all associated with that group - in this case what should be the norm for females.

Research has shown that to be deemed a good leader, one needs to portray agentic characteristics as well as emotional control, related to being "stable, level-headed, rational, and consistent, tough-minded and not take things personally" (Brescoll, 2016). The belief that women are more emotional than men will have detrimental consequences for female leaders when they are evaluated (Brescoll, 2016). The inference of the assumption that showing outward emotion is a trade-off to being objective and level-headed is damaging to the perception that females can lead effectively (Shield, 2002 cited in Brescoll, 2016). Females are often seen as not showing enough "emotional toughness" and therefore are not deemed to be adequate for a leadership position, which, from great man theories link to traits of "hero", "self-centred" and "controlled" (Shield, 2002 cited in Brescoll, 2016).

Female leaders are perceived to display more communal characteristics, while male leaders display more agentic characteristics (Eagly & Carli, 2007; Eagly & Heilman, 2016b; Koenig & Eagly, 2014; Koenig, Eagly, Mitchell, & Ristikari, 2011; Rudman, 1998). However Kark, Waismel-Manor, and Shamir (2012) found that leaders that portray both agentic and communal characteristics (seen as androgynous) were perceived more positively than other leaders. Within their study, they found female leaders portray androgynous behaviour more than male leaders by 50% of the time (Kark et al., 2012). In Koenig et al.'s (2011) meta-

analysis, they found that through the publication years of their sample studies that the androgyny of leadership stereotypes became more evident over time, which is a positive indication for female leaders.

Descriptive and Prescriptive norms

Heilman (2001) described two alternative features relevant to gender stereotype, namely descriptive norms and prescriptive norms. Her findings concluded that descriptive norms are the preconceived perceptions of what women in a group are like compared to what people believe leaders should be like, which causes inherent disconnect and leads to gender bias. The 'should be' norms are aligned to Heilman's previous work done on Lack of Fit model (Heilman, 1983, 1985 cited in Heilman, 2001). The Lack of Fit model describes expectations of the role and what the descriptive norms of the person are. When these are misaligned, the perception of Lack of Fit perpetuates the stereotype, and the outcome will be unfavourable (Heilman, 2001).

The moment women have proven they can perform at equal levels and deliver in a masculine environment, the problem changes to one that conflicts with the gender role a woman needs to fulfil - what she *should* be doing as a female. The prescriptive norms she found to be what people thought a group of women should be like, and therefore deviated from the normative views, hence females are prejudiced through penalisation in social forms and instantly disliked (Heilman, 2001; Kark et al., 2012).

Egalitarian Qualities

Schmid Mast (2004) found that the stereotypical hierarchy gender type that men have outweighs the egalitarian, which evidence suggests females are more prone to display, however that the hierarchy gender type is only relevant at the start of the engagement and not for longer term engagements. The egalitarian side of females also supports the notion of females representing more social interaction behaviour than males, and therefore further perpetuates the notion of the double bind that females have to deal with (Eagly & Carli, 2007; Eagly & Karau, 1991, 2002; Heilman, M. E., Wallen, A. S., Fuchs, D. & Tamkins, 2004; Hernandez Bark et al., 2016; Sczesny, 2003).

Chizema, Kamuriwo, and Shinozawa (2015) found that more women in government and political leadership roles correlated positively with more females appointed to boards,

whereas societies that are more religious (traditional) tend to have fewer females on boards. The findings are conclusive to Eagly and Carli's (2007) findings that the visibility and presence of females in leadership positions supports the breakdown of the traditional norms that females do not belong in leadership roles. Therefore, the only way to break the perpetuating cycle of limited females in leadership roles is to elevate and publicise successful females in leadership roles. These findings are conclusive to Koenig and Eagly's (2014) findings of stereotypical attitudes are formed through social role observations.

Female leaders might feel the need to overcompensate their behaviours to prove their legitimacy, which in turn can develop a psychological state for the female leader if unsuccessful, and compromise follower cooperation and respect (Vial, Napier, & Brescoll, 2016). This illegitimacy feeds to the followers and the research done by Rudman (1998) confirmed that for female followers, leader self-glorification led to higher perceived aptitude, however lower social desirability. However, with male followers, leader pretentiousness decreased competence, but increased employability (Rudman, 1998). Therefore, as a female leader, there is a fine line in countering stereotypes that may impede overall respect and competence perceived by followers. In the context of the political realm the findings are consistent with Okimoto and Brescoll's (2010) study of the backlash female politicians observe when communities perceive the female politician as seeking power. The findings also conclude that male politicians seeking power do not have to endure the same social penalties, as it is seen aligned to the agentic masculine ideology of the male gender (Okimoto & Brescoll, 2010).

Eagly, Makhijani and Klonsky's (1992) meta-analysis on biases against female leaders confirmed that male followers have more to lose by supporting the female leadership movement, because they will be seen as less masculine and therefore more inclined to reject female leaders. To enhance the leadership acceptance, the female and the follower need to strengthen the dyadic relationship for the follower to become familiar with the female leader, and to move beyond a one-way relationship towards a mutually beneficial relationship unimpeded by stereotypical gender bias (Eagly et al., 1992; Paustian-Underdahl, Walker, & Woehr, 2014).

Queen Bee

The Queen Bee concept occurs when women separate themselves and pursue individual achievements in a male-dominated work setting. They do this through: portraying themselves more like men, materially and mentally distancing themselves from women, and validating and supporting gender inequality in work levels (Derks, Van Laar, & Ellemers, 2016).

Communication style

In response to stereotype threat, women who react in a masculine style received backlash for being less warm, and this in effect led to their requests not fulfilled by the follower (Von Hippel et al., 2011). The findings are not conclusive for all females, merely when females retaliate to stereotype threats. In this instance, there are perceived negative perceptions, which can lead to disliking and other implications as discussed by Heilman, Wallen, Fuchs & Tamkins (2004)

Think-Manager Think-Male

Schein (1973, 1975) studied and formulated the 'think manager – think male' attitude and revisited the findings almost 30 years later to find that the nuances were still very much alive and mounting in at the time of review (Schein, 2007)

Contrary to Shore and Thornton (1986) that found no difference in the ratings between male and female followers, Hansbrough, Lord, and Schyns (2015) found gender and race to be implicating factors when designing questionnaires for follower ratings of leaders, and therefore that these should be controlled. The aim of the study is to understand the implication of gender, race and generation and therefore the variables are key to the assessment going further.

Sczesny (2003) focused her work on gender stereotypes (specifically Schein's think-manager, think-male) and leadership attributes. Most studies on leadership attributes use a variety of attributes, from 92 in Schein's 1973 seminal work based on 60 traits, narrowed down by Sczesny (2003) to 20 person-orientated and 20 task-orientated traits to measure leadership effectiveness. Person-oriented traits are more aligned to communal (feminine) properties and task-oriented traits to agentic (masculine). Therefore, Sczesny's (2003) 20 by 20 traits divided in task and person-oriented skills (Table 1) will be used in combination

with LMX measures in this research to firstly measure the quality of the relationship (through LMX) and thereafter understand how the perceived leadership styles relate to how followers experience their female leaders.

Table 1 - Sczesny's(2003) person- and task-oriented Skills

Person-oriented skills (POS)		Task-oriented skills (TOS)	
Ability to make good judgments	Flexibility	Determination	Successful self-presentation
Ability to cooperate	Ability to solve problems	Authority	Self-discipline
Creativity	Fairness	Negotiation skills	Readiness to take risks
Ability to deal with conflicts	Intuition	Ambition	Ability to cope with stress
Sense of responsibility	Ability to work in teams	Self-initiative	Diligence
Ability to motivate others	Trustworthiness	Ability to delegate	Competitiveness
Empathy	Openness	Ability to organise	Self-confidence
Communicative manner	Balance	Innovative thinking	Striving for power
Consideration	Modesty	Objectivity	Self-assertiveness
Ability to admit one's owns errors	Tolerance	Persuasiveness	Career orientation

According to research, it is more likely that males ascribe to both person-oriented skills and task-oriented skills, however females tend to ascribe more to person-oriented skills than task-oriented skills (Sczesny, 2003). Therefore, the researcher will compare the feedback from male and female respondents within different gender, race and generational cohorts on the perception of task or person-oriented skills of the female leader.

2.2   Generations

Generational theory disputes the traditional belief that people alter, mature and improve their values, approaches and preferences as a role of age (Sessa, Kabacoff, Deal, & Brown, 2007). "A generation is a social creation rather than a biological necessity" according to Sessa, Kabacoff, Deal and Brown (2007) and therefore can only be called a generation if

there are life changing events that alter the social standing in a particular environment. In South Africa's case this can be seen as apartheid, or in the United States of America the Great Depression or Martin Luther King are pivotal moments shaping generational cohort identification (Booysen, 2016; Sessa et al., 2007).

Generations are relevant and present if acknowledged or not and therefore manifest themselves through the values, beliefs, communication styles, habits, attitudes and motivations of employees within the workplace (Salkowitz, 2008). Age diversity should be a burning platform for any human resource leader in these changing times as the expectations, development needs and communication styles varying between generations, will determine how talent is retained and leveraged (Meister & Willyerd, 2010).

Salahuddin (2011) found that there are differences between generations in the leadership styles they prefer and that these preferences arise from their core value differences. Baby Boomers were raised in optimistic times and therefore value teamwork, personal gratification and positive outlooks. However Generation X came from an era of a troubled economy and rising divorce rates and therefore values diverse global rationality, balance, technology, self-reliance and being pragmatic (Salahuddin, 2011). Generation Y was raised in an era where the child is the most important, and their core values revolve around optimism, civic duty, achievement, morality and diversity (Salahuddin, 2011).

There seem to be some similarities between the Baby Boomers and Generation Y and therefore Salahuddin (2011) found differences with the leadership styles the different generations preferred. According to Salahuddin (2011), Baby Boomers and Generation Y prefer more of a participative leadership style (including hints of transformational), whereas Generation X prefers the more directive, challenging-the-norm and straightforward style inherent to their values.

Arsenault's (2004) study found that succeeding generations ranked loyalty, honesty, caring and forward-looking lower than older generations and ranked optimism, dedication, support, trust and focus higher than old generations. Looking at the leadership styles valued by generations, Sessa, Kabacoff, Deal and Brown (2007) found that succeeding generations ranked resourceful, persuasive, delegation and forethought lower and ranked dedication, dependability, focus, support and optimism higher. Therefore, both these studies concur on

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the key leadership styles that generations prefer and highlight how Generation X is slightly different from Baby Boomers and Generation Y in the approach they prefer. Generation X is also seen to be technically capable, bringing hands-on tactics for problem solving and working well with diversity. However due to the diverse exposure of Generation X, they focus on similarities rather than dissimilarities (Sessa et al., 2007). Generation Y wants to be part of meaningful work and has grown up, like Generation X, distrusting organisations (Sessa et al, 2007.)

The researcher found that majority of studies compared Generations X and Y, with a few comparing all three (including Baby Boomer). This might be because Baby Boomers are nearing retirement age and therefore the sample representation might be compromised to draw conclusive evidence (Meriac, Woehr, & Banister, 2010; Posthuma & Campion, 2007; Salkowitz, 2008; Twenge, Campbell, Hoffman, & Lance, 2010).

2.2.1 Generational cohorts defined

Hoole and Bonnema (2015) used the uniform classification of generations: Baby Boomers (born between 1946 and 1964), Generation X (born between 1965 and 1980) and Generation Y, also known as Millennials, (born between 1981 and 1999).

However, within the South African context, Booysen (2016) classified the generations aligned to the historic apartheid implication:
The apartheid generation (born 1938-1960)
The struggle generation (born 1961-1980)
The transition generation (born 1981-1993)
The free generation (born 1994-2014)

As fundamental as these time periods are to the South African context, the researcher decided to use Hoole and Bonnema's (2015) classification for ease of comparability to other generational studies, because there are limited documents available that use the Booysen (2016) classification.

2.2.2   Differences between generations

Generalisations of different generational identities create a misunderstanding of relevance and therefore misrepresent the real caveats at play (Salkowitz, 2008). Lyons and Kuron (2013) argue that the theoretic justification for generational differences has been centred on age, but it presides in the emotional and cognitive evaluations which are individualistic in nature and therefore not always confined to a generalizable group construct. The researcher has summarised main findings from several studies on an overview of differences (Table 2):

Table 2 - Generational differences across three cohorts

Baby Boomers	Generation X	Generation Y (Millenials)
"Older employees have lower ability to learn than younger workers, depending on training type, material and time needed to master" (Posthuma & Campion, 2009)		
"Value of social interaction decline over generations" (Twenge, Campbell, Hoffman & Lance, 2010)		
"Employee age is less important to job performance than individual skill and health" (Posthuma & Campion, 2009)		
"Minimal evidence support that job performance declines with age, it often improves" (Posthuma & Campion, 2009)		
	"Place more value on leasure time - desire for work-life balance" (Twenge, Campbell, Hoffman & Lance, 2010)	
"Reported higher levels of work ethic compared to other cohorts" (Meriac, Woehr & Banister, 2010)	"Admires competency and honesty as leadership traits" (Holden & Raffo, 2014)	"Admires ambitiousness and determination as leadership traits" (Holden & Raffo, 2014)
"Passionate and concerned about participation and spirit in the workplace. Lots of communication, sharing responsibility and respect mutual autonomy. Despise traditional hierarchy" (Arsenault, 2004)	"Fair, competent, straightforward, do not respect authority prefer egalitarian relationships, thrive on change, brutal honesty is a trademark" (Arsenault, 2004)	"Prefer polite relationships with authority, want leaders who pull people together, believe in collective action, will to get things changed" (Arsenault, 2004)
"Born in era of optimism, opportunity and progress. Value loyalty, respect organisational hierarchy, wait their turn for advancement. Feel younger workers need to put in their time and carry more work load" (Chi, Maier & Gursoy, 2013)	"Born in era of rapidly changing social climate, advance in science and technology. Skeptical of the system, independent, like to be in control, view job freedom as a reward, seek training opportunities to enhance skill, want fast feedback. Unimpressed by titles and status, work to live rather than live to work" (Chi, Maier & Gursoy, 2013)	"Born in era of high-tech, neo-optimism. Thrive on direction, structure and stimulation. Tend to be social and a sense of civic duty. Committed to making a life, not just a living. View team-building, engagement and partnerships as essential to leadership" (Chi, Maier & Gursoy, 2013)
		"Want coaches and mentors on the job. Want experimental and personal learning" (Meister and Willyerd, 2010)

A study on the impact of age and development stage of people and how it impacts their view of feminine, masculine or androgynous traits was done in the United States of America. The findings suggest that younger and middle-aged females endorse and embody more masculine traits than older females (Strough, Leszczynski, Neely, Flinn, & Margrett, 2007). It was attributed to the emergence of key women's movement within their developmental stages and therefore older females have already established their social context, whereas

for younger women the second wave of women's movements were fundamental to their social context, implicating the policies and practices within the norm at the time (Huber, 1986; Strough et al., 2007; Twenge, 1997).

The study builds on work done by Twenge (1997) that found that however much masculine traits were more endorsed by females and males at the time, feminine traits were not more endorsed by males and remained flat. The emergence of masculine traits is used as a base to substantiate the findings of Strough et. al (2007). Therefore, the shift towards more andrygynous traits has been studied and found applicable from the 1990s, and therefore the differences between preference of masculine or feminine traits are weakened by the emergence of androgynous trait acceptance (Strough et al., 2007; Twenge, 1997; Twenge et al., 2010)

It remains open-ended as researchers debate the differences between groups. However, the ultimate appreciation of the topic manifests in the individual preference of leader traits and styles, specifically toward female leaders within the context of the study. Lyons and Kuron (2013) found that younger participants value leader behaviour on individual level rather than as a group and they seek leaders that are willing to engagement on a personal level. These findings correspond with the leader-member exchange dyads that promote an individualistic approach to leadership to enable total group performance (Matta, Scott, Koopman, & Conlon, 2015).

2.3   Race and Cultural Influence

Crenshaw (Crenshaw, 1991, cited in Moolman, 2013) coined the term intersectionality in a means to explain social identities and to look at social interaction through multiple dimensions. The term became synonymous with the black identification of feminism as earlier feminist studies are seen as a "hegemonic feminist theory" plagued by white privilege and therefore not representing the multiple layers of inequality faced by women of colour (Holvino, 2010). White females have been and are seen as privileged due to their position in the social order and therefore women of colour do not associate with the generalisation around the liberal feminist theories, which are seen as predominately a white view (Moolman, 2013). Therefore, not only are most management roles in South Africa occupied

by White males, White females hold more management roles than females of colour, emphasizing not merely the male dominance in South Africa, but also the white dominance in management (Booysen, 2001; Littrell & Nkomo, 2005)

Holvino (2010) argued that the liberal White view of feminism does not represent women of colour, however post structural, transnational and socialist feminist theories do. Socialist theories unlocked the multiple identities (race, gender, sexuality and class) of inequality fuelled by capitalism and patriarchy. However post structural feminism emphasizes theory making, analysis and language discourse between men and women with an element of 'other' to be considered (Holvino, 2010), whereas transnational (postcolonial) feminism reignited the critique of the White feminism emphasizing the insistence of the intersection of gender, class and sexuality (Holvino, 2010)

South African managers face an exceptional challenge of managing multicultural employees whose identities and values are inherently influenced by the socio-historic effects of apartheid, and these effects manifest directly in the workplace (Mayer & Louw, 2011). Historical social structures and power continue to plague black and coloured females in business, rooted in their employment as maids for white people (Littrell & Nkomo, 2005). The workplace is still seen as a social engagement environment and these nuances can still unfold within the relationships of employees and therefore impact social standing and performance.

Alderfer, Tucker, Morgan, and Drasgow (1983) looked at the description of racial dynamics in the workplace where blacks were allowed at the same levels as whites and therefore classified groups to facilitate the study. These groups were classified as a "function of individual internal dynamics, interpersonal dynamics within groups and characteristics within the environment" (Alderfer et al., 1983). By implication these groups can be identified within race, gender and generational compounds and therefore the definition will be used within the study.

2.3.1 South African context

Booysen and Nkomo (2010) used Schein's think-manager, think-male descriptive index on South African Black and White, males and females to understand not merely the gender view on findings, but also the racial implications. They found that Black and White men will

not attribute effective managerial features to women, with Black men having a greater tendency of not attributing success (Booysen & Nkomo, 2010).

In a post-apartheid context, organisations rely on leaders to facilitate the cross-cultural differences through interpersonal skills, inspiring followers and peers to enable engagement on an equal platform (Lee, 2011). Lee (2011) studied 205 South African managers who had to rank leadership traits. He found that race and gender have specific effects on observers' perceived value of leadership traits and the hegemony males and Whites previously obtained through leadership roles (Lee, 2011). Booysen's (2001) comparative study of Black and White South Africans found that Whites scored higher on uncertainty avoidance, assertiveness, future orientation and individualism, whereas blacks scored higher on present orientation than future, collectivism and humane orientation (emphasis on fairness).

Lee (2011) found that South African managers overall appreciated the "credibility" trait of competence, honesty and inspiration most. For managers, the lowest ranking scores were ambition and imagination, however for subordinates it was caring, loyalty, determination and ambition (Lee, 2011). White managers value honesty higher than competence, whereas Black managers value competence higher than honesty (Lee, 2011). Men overall rank honesty higher than females, who rank competence higher. These findings correspond with Kinnear and Ortlepp's (2016) findings that previous disadvantaged groups (females and Blacks) tend to value competence as a means of legitimacy especially due to post-apartheid constructs.

Mayer and Louw (2011) concluded that stereotypes are intertwined through cultural clusters with racial belonging and therefore find it inevitable that cultural differences will unfold within the organisation context.

Within the South African context, Khan (2010) studied the impact of multi-cultural interactions between employees in determining leadership effectiveness. She compared work diversity interactions and social diversity interactions and found significant differences in leadership ratings between different races. White respondents were negatively correlated with social diversity interactions, whereas Black and Coloured respondents were positively correlated with social diversity interactions. Black respondents however were negatively correlated with work diversity interactions, therefore aligning to Booysen (2001), who found

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that Black managers do not feel compelled to socially engage at an individual level at work across races (Khan, 2010).

Khan (2010) also found that older employees were negatively correlated with social diversity interaction, but positively correlated with work diversity interaction. This suggests that older workers are more engaged and open to diverse engagements with other races at work, however they are not willing to do so at the same level in the social interactions. Khan (2010) concluded that race plays an influencing role that influences employee opinions of leadership attributes.

A study in the USA by Harris (1994) looked at differences of endorsing masculine or feminine traits between cultures. The study found that African-Americans (Blacks) tend to rate more of the traits (masculine and feminine) to both genders rather than progressively rating masculine traits more towards males found in Anglo-American (Whites). The history looks at the prevalence that black males were used to females needing to work and do home chores during the oppression years, whereas White woman merely needed to work in the home at that time, and therefore White men are not as accustomed to women having to work for a living (Harris, 1994). These contradict the findings in Booysen (1999) that found Black males more critical of female leaders and hence the role congruity that comes with it (the masculine traits that female leaders need to embody).

2.4   Leadership

Dansereau et.al (1975) discussed the difference between supervision and leadership. The difference lies in the interaction with the follower and whether the leader uses the authority bestowed on them through a formal work contract to engage and force followers to obey, or whether the leader uses influence through the personal connection with the follower to engage in a mutually beneficial social exchange relationship (Dansereau et al., 1975). Dansereau et.al (1975) also found that the "highly valued outcomes" through leadership influence of a relational nature are more profound than the traditional authoritarian view gained from supervision.

The evolution of leadership and the link with the importance of LMX is discussed. The dyadic relationship of LMX principles is well researched and yet profound in modern day leadership theory.

2.4.1 Evolution of leadership

The twenty-first century brought new equilibriums to organisations and society as a whole. These new equilibriums came in the form of economic crisis, war on terrorism, global warming, globalisation and shifting geopolitical landscapes, E-commerce, outsourcing and many more events and developments (Daft, 2011). Within these new equilibriums, companies are forced to be more agile, flexible and open to innovation to ensure they are not left behind (Meister & Willyerd, 2010). Daft (2011) conceptualised a new paradigm that leadership in the twenty-first century is confronted with (Figure 1). The new paradigm will challenge traditional leadership constructs and contest the way organisations and leaders navigate through it (Daft, 2011).

Old Paradigm	New Paradigm
Stability	Change and crisis management
Control	Empowerment
Competition	Collaboration
Uniformity	Diversity
Self-centered	Higher ethical purpose
Hero	Humble

Figure 1 - The new reality for leadership (Daft, 2011)

Daft (2011) gives a view of the leadership evolution that started with Great Man theories (trait theories), moved to rational management theories (contingency theories), thereafter to team or lateral leadership (influence theories) and finally moved to learning leadership (relational theories and level 5 leadership). These theories are the building blocks of leadership and the emergence of the importance of relational theories like the leader-member exchange reviewed in the research.

Transformational leadership is known for "moving and changing things in a big way", by communicating to and with followers in fundamental different way connecting with them on a higher ideal, purpose level and articulating a new vision of possibilities (Lussier, 2013).

Emphasis on the emotional and visionary connection with followers is key in the transformational context. Followers' acceptance of transformational leadership was found in the followers' openness to positive emotions, and therefore if initiated, the results will amplify the followers' task performance. However, if followers are not susceptible to positive emotions, it will have a negative correlation to task performance and leader-member exchange strategies should ensue (Liang & Chi, 2013).

Females are deemed to portray more transformational leadership styles than males, however males dominated in showing more power motivation, which in effect leads to followers' perception of competence in leadership roles (Hernandez Bark et al., 2016). This contradicts the situation for female leaders in politics that were seen as having lower competence for perceived power seeking motivations (Okimoto & Brescoll, 2010), therefore again revealing the double standards females need to endure.

The usefulness of drawing from the transformational leadership style to leverage on the androgyny of it in effectively drawing on both feminine and masculine traits has been explored, and from a follower perspective confirmed to be beneficial for both male and female leaders (Kark et al., 2012). If the need arose to choose a feminine or masculine approach, both genders fared better in choosing the feminine approach as most effective (Kark et al., 2012).

Key to transformational leadership is trait theory, which is highly correlated with leader-follower relational theories like leader-member exchange. Although there is evidence of linkages with gender theories, it has not yet reached a level of implication, likewise with diversity theories (Meuser et al., 2016)

2.4.2   Leadership Traits and Styles

The quest to understand what effective leader traits are or what defines a leader characteristic goes back to 1869 when Galton described traits as "inherited and unchangeable" (Galton, 1869 cited in Xu et al., 2014). Xu et. al (2014) used Kegan's six leader development stages to build on their theory that leadership traits evolve over time as individuals are more exposed to social interactions through education and work life (Kegan,

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1982, 1944 cited in Xu et. al, 2014), contrary to the Great Man leadership theories that believed leader were born and not made.

In Eagly, Makhijani and Klonsky's (1992) meta-analysis of 61 studies evaluating the differences in leadership styles and effectiveness between female and male managers, it was found that the evaluations of females' leadership competence were marginally more negative than that of males, however females' leadership style was found slightly more favourable (Eagly et al., 1992). The Eagly et. al (1992) analysis found that the perception of two of the three stylistic attributes (interpersonal orientation and potency) were seen to be indifferent between males and females. However, the findings of the third category – task orientation – were contrary to the common expectation that the evaluations for males would be stronger than females and found, that females were perceived as more task-oriented than males (Eagly et al., 1992).

Contradicting the findings that women are less or more task-oriented, Walker and Aritz (2015) found that males and females prefer both person- and task-orientation and did not differ in their perception. However, they found that males were still the preferential leader choice for female and male followers. Interestingly, in the case studies they found that women tend to lead groups more often, however they were not necessarily recognised by team members as the obvious leader in that situation (Walker & Aritz, 2015).

Most gender studies perpetuate the nuance that females are linked to person-oriented skills more so than task-oriented, however Eagly and Carli (2007) found, contrary to Eagly et. al (1992), that females were slightly more task-oriented. Therefore, it can be argued that from 1992 to 2007 there has been progress in what society perceives should be more aligned to leadership traits and what women can do equally to their male counterparts.

Vecchio (2002) argued Eagly et. al's (1992) findings that there are differences in leadership traits, however he re-examined the meta-analysis and argued the differences do not necessarily lie in the traits, but rather in the observer's perceived view of the leadership style. He debated the fact that gender studies allowed self-ratings as effective measures and proposed it should not be included in analysis. He further urged that the value lies in the dyadic relationship and the follower observations, rather than self-ratings of leaders

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(Vecchio, 2002). The view is aligned with LMX principles and the importance of the dyadic relationship for both the leader and follower.

2.4.3　Leader-member Exchange Theory

The seminal research of Dansereau, Graen and Haga (1975) challenged the traditional view that all members have the same relationship with the leader, all are seen as one "workgroup" and that the leader treats everyone in the group the same. Dansereau et al. (1975) believed that the relational link between leaders and their followers are critical to unlock team performance and effectiveness and distinguished between "leadership exchanges (influence without authority)" and "supervision relationships (influenced based primarily on authority)". The conclusion was that the relational leadership style is more beneficial for all and that future studies should not merely look at the leader in isolation, but rather focus on the individual relations between members and leader as a reciprocal association (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975).

Marchiondo, Myers and Kopelman (2015) concluded that the perceived leadership competence that followers have and publically validate, influences observers directly in their judgement of the leader's competence. Therefore, critical to the advancement of women is the advocacy that needs to happen between followers and peers in justifying and validating the value that female leaders add. The unique relational leadership construct and perceived importance to the observer (follower), has fundamental implications for the observer's (follower's) decision-making process to validate leadership, and therefore critical implications for female leader acceptance (Marchiondo, Myers, & Kopelman, 2015).

The Dansereau et al. (1975) study is known for the dyadic relationship, the degree of negotiation within the relationship, as well as the use of the concept of "social exchange". Dealing with the social exchange and negotiation latitude led to the classification of the levels of analysis to be the "in-group" and the "out-group" (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

Furthermore, Matta, Scott, Koopman and Conlon (2015) argued that the one-sided view of LMX studies is not conducive to an objective view of the relationship, due to the nature of agreement of the level of engagement needed between leader and follower. Therefore, once the engagement has happened and agreement reached between leader and follower on the

type of dyadic relationship expected (from transactional to socio-emotional), any relationship will be successful as expectations between parties are aligned and interaction and performance will infer from that agreement (Matta et al., 2015).

Studies found that a higher LMX relationship assists in the followers' receptiveness of negative feedback from the leader, more so than a low-level LMX relationship (Sniderman, Fenton-O'Creevy, & Searle, 2016). The finding corresponds to the level of trust and strength of the relationship which leads to the follower understanding that the feedback comes from a need for correction to enhance the relationship, individual development and work efficiency (Graen & Uhl-Bein, 1995; Liden & Maslyn, 1998).

Northouse (2006) studied LMX theory and defined the reciprocal relationship between an active leader-follower relationship (in-group) versus no relationship (out-group). "The in-group received more information, influence, confidence and concern from the leader, was more dependable, highly involved and more communicative than the out-group" and the out-group was "less compatible with the leader, usually just come to work and do their job" (Northouse, 2006). These interactions are key for the dyadic relationship and therefore critical for the female leader to invest time in, even more so when gender, race and generational diverse teams are relevant.

Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) combined the research and decided to schematically show the relationship of the domains of leadership (shown in Figure 2), whereas Northouse (2006) responded by changing the schematic as seen in Figure 2. It is pertinent to notice the difference between the diagrams as Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) show the relationship as a third dimension, however Northouse (2006) sees it as the intersection between the two dimensions of follower and leader.

The domains of leadership
(Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995)

Relationship

Follower   Leader

The dimensions of leadership
(Northouse, 2006)

Follower   Dyadic Relationship   Leader
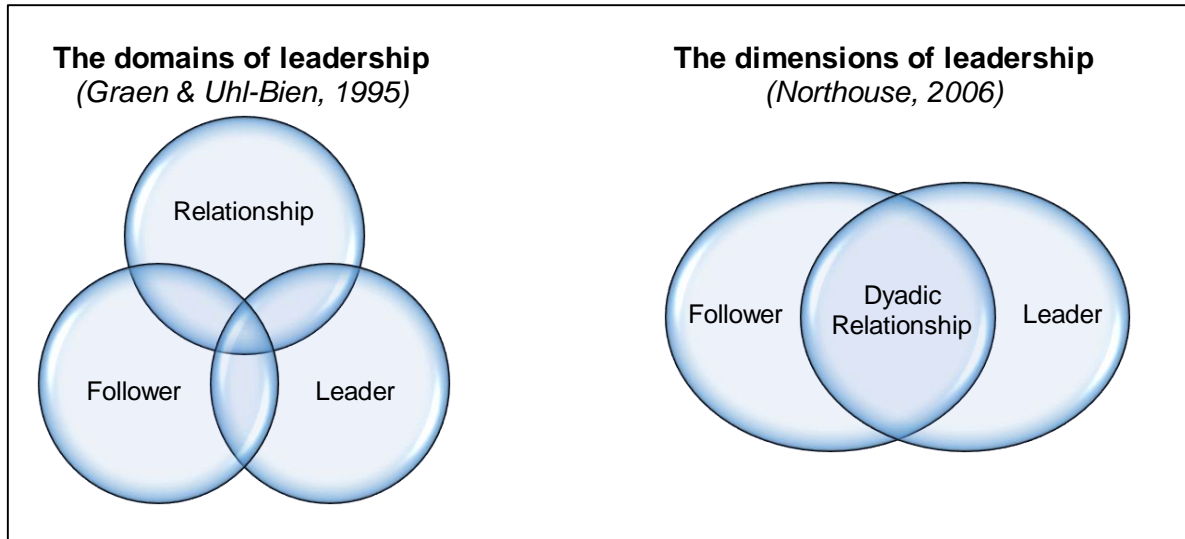
Figure 2 - Graen and Uhl-Bien's (1995) domains of leadership compared to Northouse (2006) dimensions of leadership

Uhl-Bien (2006) argued that even though LMX theory has been instrumental in framing the relational theory in leadership theory, it however has to evolve from understanding the social constructs between leader and follower to moving towards understanding the relational dynamics by which leadership progress through the workplace. However, this study will focus on LMX theory and the social constructs between the leader and the follower.

Aligned to the findings are the notion that the more acquainted the follower becomes with the female leader, the stereotypical findings decrease and hence the relationship can prevail (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Eagly et al., 1992). Therefore, the significance of the relational construct between the female leader and her followers is crucial to overcome stereotypical judgements. Hence, LMX can be an integral component of the successful transition for female leaders to an unconstrained playing field within the workplace, if the intersection of race, gender and generation is understood.

Seminal work done by Dienesch and Liden (1986) proved that LMX is a multi-dimensional construct and therefore should be measured appropriately within the leadership construct. It has to be noted that Dienesch and Liden (1986) declared the limitation of LMX in the different scale dimensions used over the years to define the measurement, and therefore validated the three dimensions used to correct the vast measurements used in the past.

Dienesch and Liden (1986) studied the dimensions of LMX and defined the three dimensions as contribution, loyalty and affect. Contribution was defined as the "perception of the amount and quality of work each member contributes to dyad". The loyalty dimension speaks to the "public support" and the "personal character" of each member and how they guard the dyad against outside forces. The final dimension of affect is described as the "mutual affection based on the interpersonal attraction rather than work or professional values". The three dimensions lay the foundation of LMX constructs and were used to assess the LMX component of the leader-follower relationship.

Liden and Maslyn (1998) confirmed various research done, from the four-item negotiating latitude (Graen and Cashman, 1975) to the seven-item LMX measure. Liden and Maslyn's (1998) own 12-item multidimensional LMX scale adds a second level to the four items already in use, however they decided to build on Dienesch and Liden's (1986) work on the three dimensions by adding professional respect as the fourth dimension. Liden and Maslyn (1998) defined professional respect as the "perception of the degree to which a member of a dyad had built reputation, within and/or outside the organisation".

Interestingly Wolfram, Mohr and Schyns (2007) researched the differences of professional respect perceived between female and male leaders and as a second level looked at the correlation of that perception if the follower is male or female. Subsequently their study found that female leaders receive less professional respect than their male counterparts do. Even more evident was if the follower of a female was male, the professional respect would be less than if the follower of a male was female. The findings are linked to Eagly and Karau's (2002) role congruity theory which found that females' predisposition regarding the female role versus the leadership role are still relevant and even more so if the follower is male and the female leader operates in a male perceived job role.

The elements of Liden and Maslyn's (1998) four dimensions will be used to derive questions based on descriptors given to compile the LMX section of the questionnaire for this study. The questions for the LMX section were derived from inputs and constructs from various sources, discussed later in Chapter 4. The questionnaire can be reviewed in Appendix 1.

2.5   Literature Review conclusion

The literature review has highlighted the need for a diverse workforce that brings difference facets to the workplace. On the basis of constant shifts in global consumer patterns, markets and economic turbulence, business requires a shift in leadership thinking, doing and perceptions. Therefore, the need to understand the cross sectional viewpoints of different gender, race and generational followers' perception of female leadership will enable better discourse on the topic.

The literature review starts with an overview of the emergence of gender theory and how it has evolved and impacts other theories like role congruity theory. Social cognitive theory is discussed as an enabling tool for females to use when faced with stereotype threat or any situation. A generational overview is given of the difference generational cohorts and especially within the South African context. Thereafter race implications in the aftermath of the apartheid era are discussed to further understand implications within business. Leader-member exchange principles are discussed to specifically highlight the importance of relational theory for females to bridge the gap of ignorance most males have of female leadership. Through LMX theory, females can apply more relational styles to facilitate the need that different races, genders and generations prefer. Figure 3 is used to illustrate the constructs reviewed in Chapter 2.
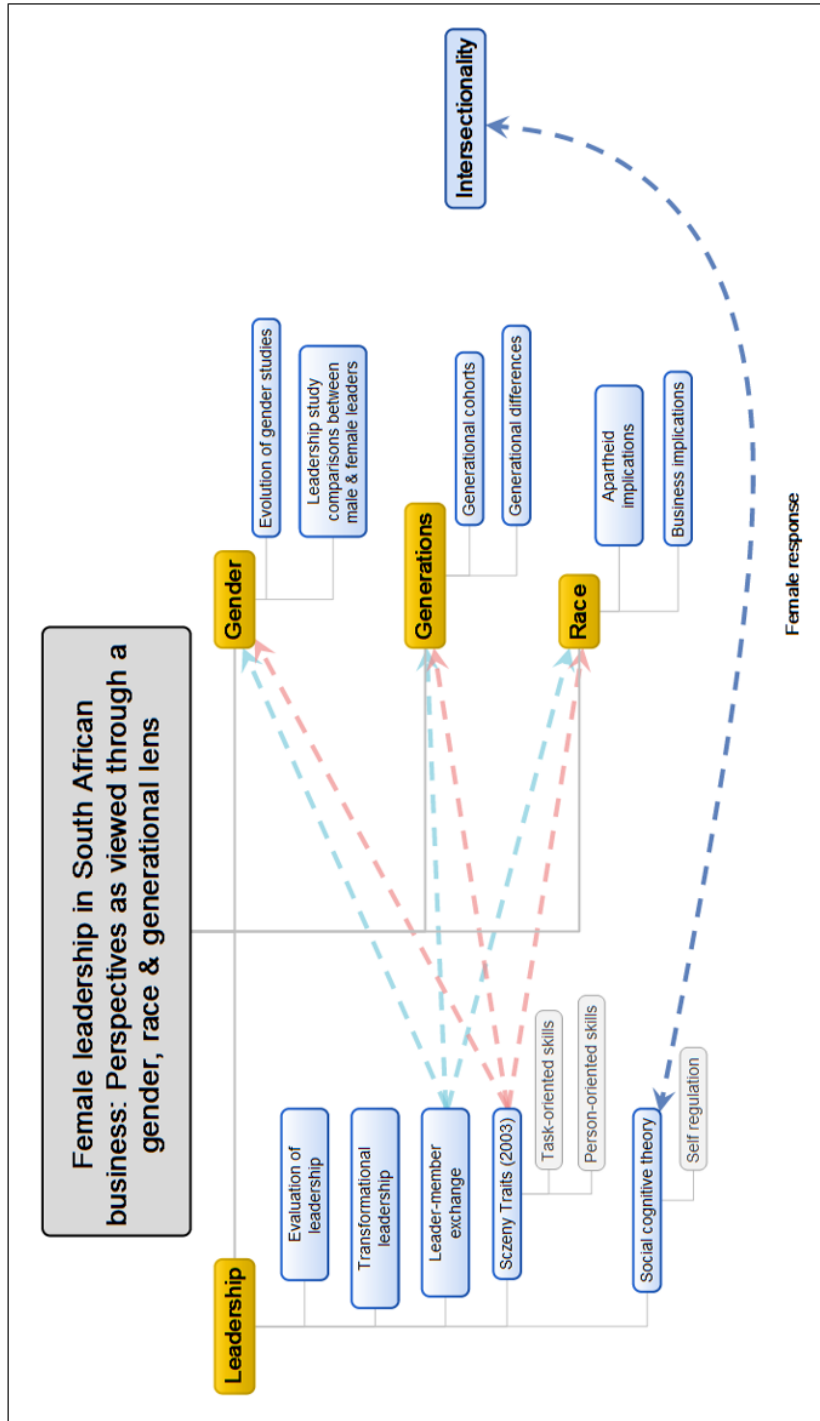
Figure 3 - Scope of literature review and relationships of constructs

3   RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

This chapter gives an overview of the research hypotheses the study aimed to answer. The research hypotheses were concentrated around the different gender, race and generational perceptions of the female leaders followers. The insights were used to gain an understanding of how the followers' age and/or gender and/or race influence their perception of the female leader relationship and style. The research questions were derived from the literature study in Chapter 2.

In Chapter 2, it was discussed how LMX theory creates better dyadic relationships between leader and follower, followed by an overview of gender, race and generational impacts in the workplace. Gender stereotypes were discussed in detail and it followed that stereotypes decrease over time, therefore magnifying the LMX dimensions of the follower-leader dyad. Further it was discussed that there is a need to understand the current state of female leadership perception through a race, gender and generational lens. This research seeks to qualify what the perception of female leaders' application of LMX principles, and how their leadership styles (Sczesny, 2003) are measured among their diverse (race, gender and generation) followers.

For the purposes of this study the researcher has summarised the research hypotheses (Figure 4) to understand the link between topics and how the generational and gender characteristics influence the perceived leadership of the female leaders.
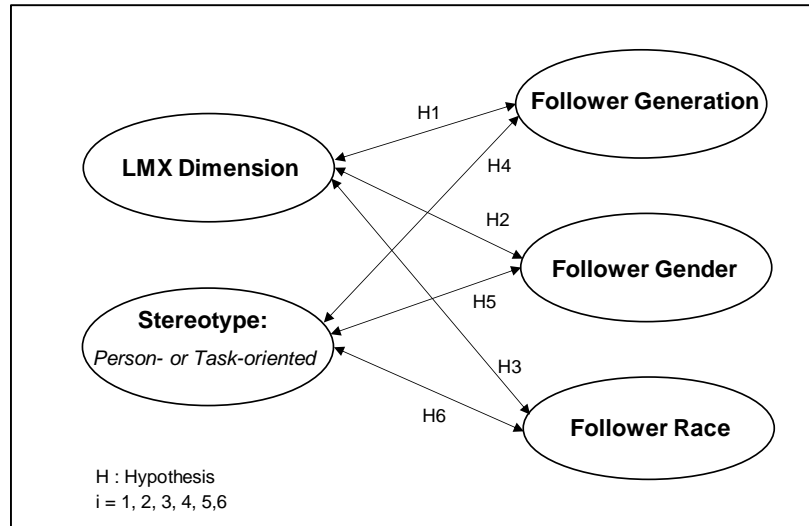
Figure 4 - Summary of hypotheses to be tested   (Researcher's own diagram)

3.1   Hypothesis 1 (LMX and Generation)

It is expected that there will be a difference in the perceived LMX dimensions for different generations. The first research hypothesis therefore is:

The LMX dimensions of contribution, loyalty, affect and professional respect will be perceived differently between the different generations.

To test the hypothesis an ANOVA test was conducted:

There is a mean difference in the perceptions of the individual LMX dimensions of contribution, loyalty, affect and professional respect between generations as well as the overall LMX.

That is,

H_{1a} : $\mu G_{1\ contribution} = \mu G_{2\ contribution} = \mu G_{3\ contribution}$

H_{1b} : $\mu G_{1\ loyalty} = \mu G_{2\ loyalty} = \mu G_{3\ loyalty}$

H_{1c} : $\mu G_{1\ affect} = \mu G_{2\ affect} = \mu G_{3\ affect}$

H_{1d} : $\mu G_{1\ prof\ respect} = \mu G_{2\ prof\ respect} = \mu G3_{prof\ respect}$

H_{1e} : $\mu G_{1\ total\ LMX} = \mu G_{2\ total\ LMX} = \mu G3_{total\ LMX}$

G: Generation

Where i = 1-3 (baby boomers = 1, generation X = 2, generation Y = 3)

Hypothesis from H_{1a} to H_{1e}

3.2 Hypothesis 2 (LMX and Gender)

The LMX dimensions of contribution, loyalty, affect and professional respect is perceived differently between female and male followers. The second research hypothesis therefore is:

The LMX dimensions of contribution, loyalty, affect and professional respect will be perceived differently between female and male followers.

To test the hypothesis an ANOVA test was conducted:

There is a mean difference in the perception of the individual LMX dimensions of contribution, loyalty, affect and professional respect between female and male followers.

That is,

H_{2a} : $\mu F_{contribution} = \mu M_{contribution}$

H_{2b} : $\mu F_{loyalty} = \mu M_{loyalty}$

H_{2c} : $\mu F_{affect} = \mu M_{affect}$

H_{2d} : $\mu F_{prof\ respect} = \mu M_{prof\ respect}$

H_{2e} : $\mu F_{total\ LMX} = \mu M_{total\ LMX}$

F: Female follower

M: Male follower

Hypothesis from H_{2a} to H_{2e}

3.3 Hypothesis 3 (LMX and Race)

The LMX dimensions of contribution, loyalty, affect and professional respect is perceived differently between different races. The third research hypothesis therefore is:

The LMX dimensions of contribution, loyalty, affect and professional respect will be perceived differently between African, Asian, Coloured, Indian and White followers.

To test the hypothesis an ANOVA test was conducted:

There is a mean difference in the perception of the individual LMX dimensions of contribution, loyalty, affect and professional respect between *African, Asian, Coloured, Indian and White followers.*

That is,

H_{3a} : $\mu R_{1\ contribution} = \mu R_{2\ contribution} = \mu R_{3\ contribution} = \mu R_{4\ contribution} = \mu R_{5\ contribution} = \mu R_{6\ contribution}$

H_{3b} : $\mu R_{1\ loyalty} = \mu R_{2\ loyalty} = \mu R_{3\ loyalty} = \mu R_{4\ loyalty} = \mu R_{5\ loyalty} = \mu R_{6\ loyalty}$

H_{3c} : $\mu R_{1\ affect} = \mu R_{2\ affect} = \mu R_{3\ affect} = \mu R_{4\ affect} = \mu R_{5\ affect} = \mu R_{6\ affect}$

H_{3d} : $\mu R_{1\ professional\ respect} = \mu R_{2\ professional\ respect} = \mu R_{3\ professional\ respect} = \mu R_{4\ professional\ respect} = \mu R_{5\ professional\ respect} = \mu R_{6\ professional\ respect}$

H_{3e} : $\mu R_{1\ LMX\ Total} = \mu R_{2\ LMX\ Total} = \mu R_{3\ LMX\ Total} = \mu R_{4\ LMX\ Total} = \mu R_{5\ LMX\ Total} = \mu R_{6\ LMX\ Total}$

R: Race
i = 1 - 6 (1 = African, 2 = Asian, 3 = Coloured, 4 = Indian, 5 = Other and 6 = White)
Hypothesis from H_{3a} to H_{3e}

3.4   Hypothesis 4 (POS & TOS and Generation)

It is expected that there will be a difference in the perception of different generations of whether a female leader portrays more person- and task-oriented leadership skills. The fourth research hypothesis therefore is:

The perception of whether the female leader portrays more person- and task-oriented leadership skills will be different by the generation (Baby Boomer, Generation X or Generation Y) of the follower.

To test the hypothesis an ANOVA test was conducted:

There is a mean difference in the perceptions of person- and task-oriented skills between generations.

That is,

H_{4X} : $\mu G_{1\ POS\ Y} = \mu G_{2\ POS\ Y} = \mu G_{3\ POS\ Y}$

H_{4A} : $\mu G_{1\ TOS\ Z} = \mu G_{2\ TOS\ Z} = \mu G_{3\ TOS\ Z}$

G: Generation

Where i = 1-3 (Baby Boomers = 1, Generation X = 2, Generation Y = 3)

Hypothesis from H_{XY}.

Where X = Y & A = Z

Y = Number of factors extracted from the principle principal component analysis (reducing the 18 items in POS to determine a workable number of factors for further analysis)

Z = Number of factors extracted from the principal component analysis (reducing the 20 items in TOS to determine a workable number of factors for further analysis)

3.5   Hypothesis 5 (POS & TOS and Gender)

It is expected that there will be a difference in the female and male followers' perception of the person- or task-oriented skills of the female leader. The fifth research hypothesis therefore is:

The perception of whether the female leader demonstrates more person-oriented or task-oriented skills will be different for female and male followers.

To test the hypothesis an ANOVA test was conducted:

There is a mean difference in the perceptions of person- and task-orientated skills between female and male followers.

That is,

H_{5X} : $\mu F_{POS\ Y} = \mu M_{POS\ Y}$

H_{5A} : $\mu F_{TOS\ Z} = \mu M_{TOS\ Z}$

F: Female follower

M: Male follower

Hypothesis from $H_{5XY.}$

Where X = Y & A = Z

Y = Number of factors extracted from the principal component analysis (reducing the 18 items in POS to determine a workable number of factors for further analysis)

Z = Number of factors extracted from the principal component analysis (reducing the 20 items in TOS to determine a workable number of factors for further analysis)

3.6   Hypothesis 6 (POS & TOS and Race)

It is expected that there will be a difference in the perception of female leaders' person- or task-oriented skills across different follower races. The sixth research hypothesis therefore is:

The perception of whether the female leader demonstrates more task-oriented or person-oriented skills will be different between African, Asian, Coloured, Indian and White followers.

To test the hypothesis an ANOVA test was conducted:

There is a mean difference in the perceptions of task- and person-orientated skills between *African, Asian, Coloured, Indian and White followers.*

That is,

H_{6X} : $\mu F_{POS\ Y} = \mu M_{POS\ Y}$

H_{6A} : $\mu F_{TOS\ Z} = \mu M_{TOS\ Z}$

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F: Female follower

M: Male follower

Hypothesis from $H6_{XY}$.

Where X = Y & A = Z

Y = Number of factors extracted from the principal component analysis (reducing the 18 items in POS to determine a workable number of factors for further analysis)

Z = Number of factors extracted from the principal component analysis (reducing the 20 items in TOS to determine a workable number of factors for further analysis)

3.7 Conclusion

Through Hypotheses 1 to 6, the researcher looked at the differences between racial, generational and gender groups. Concluding the analysis, the researcher looked at the intersection between and within groups, as Otonkorpi-Lehtoranta et al. (2015) explained the significance of an intersectional viewpoint is critical in understanding relationships. The proposed construct in setting hypothesis is based on the core of the literature study (chapter 2) and will be used as the backbone in executing the research as explained in the next chapter, namely research methodology. All of these are building blocks in a better understanding of the role female leaders can play in the corporate business environment of South Africa.

4 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter outlines the approach taken to select the type of research that will complement the type of information required to answer the hypotheses outlined in Chapter 3. The chapter aims to give an overview of the research design, the type of information needed, how the information will be gathered and analysed, and will conclude with the assumptions and limitations of the study.

4.1 Research design

The study is aimed at understanding the perceptions of female leadership through a race, gender and generational lens. The perceptions are captured following questions related to the LMX principles and the person- and task-oriented characteristics that followers were asked to score. The study aims to describe female leadership through racial, gender and generational intersection, within the workplace. The study focuses on followers of female leaders, therefore the follower has worked or currently works for a female leader. Eagly et.al (1992) found that most studies were conducted within the professional and manufacturing industries and asked respondents to rate characteristics of a described leader, whether male or female or neutral (not defining gender).

The study asked respondents to evaluate leaders from described leadership styles. However, in contrast to the Eagly et.al (1992) summary of studies, the researcher in this study aimed to give a view from respondents that have worked for a female leader, therefore giving an objective view of characteristics experienced and seen first-hand, rather than a description from which respondents rate effectiveness with limited personal engagement, or without any personal engagement at all. The researcher aimed to focus on respondents' views of female leadership, relationship, and style from experience, rather than a view of perceptions from a distance. Therefore, an explanatory research study will fit the outcomes of this research as it concentrates on situations to describe relationships between variables (Saunders & Lewis, 2012).

The research philosophy applied for this study is that of interpretivist which promotes the obligation of understanding the role of social constructs between people and therefore

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depends on the stage to which the theory has progressed. The study takes on a deductive approach started from a theoretical base, from which research questions were derived. Data was collected and analysed to determine if the results of the data collected corresponded with the theory or not (Balnaves & Caputi, 2001; Saunders & Lewis, 2012; Zikmund, Babin, Carr, & Griffin, 2010).

There are valid arguments on both sides to understand the merits of using quantitative or qualitative research designs, especially as quantitative design seeks to test hypothesis or research questions using numerical measurement and descriptive techniques, whereas qualitative design seeks to observe and interpret exploratory research to understand why things happen (Malhotra, Birks, & Wills, 2012; Zikmund et al., 2010). Tharenou, Donohue and Cooper (2007) believe that as much as quantitative and qualitative designs are discussed and debated, the fundamental issue is not the type of data gathered, but rather the type of method used to analyse the data.

The research intended to describe the perceptions of different generations, races and genders of female followers. Therefore, a quantitative research design was used.

Quantitative design enabled a larger sample size within a shorter period and an online questionnaire assisted the researcher with a limited budget to gather data, by eliminating return envelope costs or telephone calls to conduct telephonic interviews (Zikmund et al., 2010).

4.2   Unit of analysis

The research evaluated the perception of the female leadership relationship and style within the generational, race and gender constructs measured against LMX principles, person-and task-oriented characteristics.

Therefore the unit of analysis was the respondents' perception of female leadership through LMX dimensions and the person- and task-oriented skills.

4.3   Population

The population of relevance for this study were the followers (direct reports) of female leaders within the Fast Moving Consumer Goods (FMCG) industry in South Africa. Manufacturers and retailers of FMCG products were approached to participate in the research. The population included followers from all races, all generations and both genders.

4.4   Sampling method

The sample frame is unknown and there are no lists of the population available, therefore the study uses non-probability sampling (Malhotra et al., 2012; Tharenou, Donohue, & Cooper, 2007; Zikmund et al., 2010). A judgemental sampling technique was used as the sample had to represent the different generational, race and gender cohorts within the female leaders' team and judgemental sampling is a form of convenience sampling for the researcher. The researcher also used snowball sampling through the use of personal and professional networks to gain access to followers of other female leaders outside of her organisation. The access she had to her organisations female followers will infer convenience sampling (Malhotra et al., 2012)

The researcher used her network to get in contact with the relevant human resources (HR) head or any leadership role within the identified companies, to engage them on their willingness to participate in the research and to sign the consent forms. After consent from the leadership or HR was given, the researcher approached the identified female leaders. Refer to Appendix 2 to review a copy of the consent form.

The researcher started the selection process by only looking at females who had all three generations and at least three different races in her team, however quickly realised that it would limit the response rate considering the timeline of data gathering (six weeks). It was decided to approach female leaders differently and ask for all members of the team (regardless of race, gender or age). The researcher initially wanted to focus on female leaders' followers in the supply chain function. However due to the limited number of female leaders in the supply chain function, compounded by the fact that these female leaders had smaller teams, it was decided to not focus on a specific department. Therefore the

researcher decided to include all departments (including HR, marketing and finance where more female leaders are present) to ensure an adequate response rate.

The researcher sent the website link for the questionnaire to the teams of female leaders within the FMCG industry, including retailers and manufacturers. The researcher found it difficult to get approval from the companies that were approached, and most declined to be a part of the research due to the researcher's employment at a market leader in the FMCG space.

The researcher aimed to get access to at least 120 female followers for the sample size. The researcher determined that the minimum number of responses could not be lower than 100 to ensure a representative sample. One hundred and sixteen people responded to the survey, although one was not eligible. Thus, the final number of respondents was 115. The response rate for the completion of the questionnaire was 59%.

Malhotra, Birks and Wills (2012) found that the response rate improved with personal engagement between participant and surveyor, therefore face-to-face engagements had the highest response rate at 81.7%, and postal surveys the lowest at 47.3%. Similarly, Saunders and Lewis (2012) concluded that using web questionnaires would yield a lower response rate, and critical to the researcher should be the guidelines for using the Internet, also known as 'netiquette'. Aligned with Zikmund, Babin, Carr and Griffin's (2010) recommendations to improve online questionnaire response rates, the researcher made sure that the cover letter in the email was concise, clear and to the point.

4.5   Data gathering process

4.5.1   Research instrument

Once the female leaders identified people in their team that could be approached to complete the questionnaire, the researcher engaged directly with the team members/followers and sent them the online link to complete the questionnaire. A part of the introduction email sent to all the followers participating in the research explained the process, confirmed anonymity and requested a timely response.

The questionnaire was completed online, with the follower receiving a link that directed him/her to the questionnaire. The online questionnaire opened on an introduction page where consent could be granted to proceed to the questionnaire, voluntary participation was described, and the anonymity of individual responses were assured. An example of the introduction to the questionnaire can be seen in Appendix 3.

The questionnaire comprised of three data collection sections, namely demographic profiling, LMX dimensions of contribution, loyalty, affect and professional respect, and Sczesny's (2003) person-oriented and task-oriented leadership traits. A sample item from the contribution subcategory is "I am willing to take on extra responsibility for tasks that are not part of my job description, to help my manager". The answer categories range from a strongly disagree (1) to a strongly agree (5).

The researcher used Typeform to manage the questionnaires online and to collect the data. Through using Typeform the researcher was constantly reminded of the number of completed surveys, the average time it took to complete them, as well as the number of visits to the questionnaire. The number of visits to the questionnaire was almost double that of the actual submissions, which might also indicate that respondents could not complete it at once, it was too long or that respondents wanted to see the type of questions before they completed the questionnaire.

The advantage of using Typeform as the research instrument of choice was that it allowed the researcher to easily distribute and speedily collect responses from the online tool, therefore lowering distribution and processing costs as the data could easily be downloaded for the researcher to commence the analysis.

The URL for the online questionnaire was:
 marnikajoubert.typeform.com/to/AOuaDQ

4.5.2   Construct and scales

There are four principal level constructs namely: leadership, gender, race and generation. Race, gender and generation will be the independent variables. Leadership will be viewed from the LMX dimensions and the person- and task-oriented skills perspective. These will

form the dependent variables and be analysed from the race, gender and generational angle.

Ordinal scales of measurement analysis is used when categories need to be arranged in an order of magnitude, therefore Likert scales are measured on an ordinal measurement scale (Tharenou et al., 2007). The LMX dimensions and the 18 by 20 traits within the two subcategories will be scored on a five point Likert scale that ranges from a strongly disagree (1) to a strongly agree (5).

4.5.3   Independent variables

An independent variable is a variable that impacts the outcome and effect of the dependent variable (Zikmund et al., 2010).

The independent variables for the study are the gender, race and generation (age) of the respondent (follower of a female).

4.5.4   Dependent variable

The dependent variables are variables impacted and explained by other elements and outcomes of which the independent variables form part of (Malhotra et al., 2012; Tharenou et al., 2007).

Leader-member exchange dimensions
For the LMX section of the questionnaire the dimensions considered in the research instrument were contribution, loyalty, affect and professional respect. The latter dimension was identified through the literature study in Chapter 2, where Liden and Maslyn (1998) included a fourth dimension (professional respect) to Dienesch and Liden's (1986) three dimensions. The four dimensions form the basis of the questionnaire, and within each dimension, a set of questions was identified from the sources listed in Table 3.

Method of calculating the LMX dimensions
One index measure was created for the four subcategories of LMX dimensions, namely contribution, loyalty, affection and professional respect. Each question per subcategory was assigned a specific weighting according to the numeric score between 1 (strongly disagree)

and 5 (strongly agree). The mean for each subcategory was computed as a new variable for the respective LMX dimensions. The overall LMX scores were calculated using the mean of the four-subcategory item means. The variable was defined as the total perceived interaction through relational LMX principles of female leaders within the study.

The sources used to compile the questions in the LMX section of the instrument are listed below in Table 3.

Table 3 - Sources for LMX dimensions used for the questionnaire construction

Leader-member exchange dimension sources:	
Contribution	
Question 7-12	Dansereau et al. (1975); Liden & Maslyn (1998)
Loyalty	
Question 13-16	Dansereau et al. (1975); Dienesch, Liden, Scandura, Taber, & Vecchio (1986), Kahrobaei & Mortazavi (2016)
Affect	
Question 17-20	Dansereau et al. (1975); Dienesch, Liden, Scandura, Taber, & Vecchio (1986), Kahrobaei & Mortazavi (2016)
Professional Respect	
Question 21-25	Liden & Maslyn (1998); Wolfram, Mohr, & Schyns (2007),

Person- and task-oriented skills

The section on person- and task-oriented skills was used to assess the traits that followers associate with female leaders. The comprehensive list of traits was taken from Sczesny's (2003) study and listed in Table 1. Each respondent was asked to which extent the female leader portrayed the specific trait mentioned. Each question per subcategory was assigned a specific weighting according to the numeric score between 1 (strongly disagree) and 5 (strongly agree).

Method of scoring the dependent variable

Both the person- and task-oriented skills were too many to assess, therefore principal factor analysis was used to create less variables that would represent all the initial variables. Person-oriented skills were loaded onto one factor and therefore represented all the

variables. Task-oriented skills were loaded onto two factors and therefore two new variables were created to represent task-oriented skills for further analysis.

4.5.5 Pre-testing the instrument

The researcher approached four followers of different female leaders from different generational cohorts, different races and different generations to pre-test the questionnaire. Therefore the researcher ensured the same representation of followers would be used for the pre-test as intended for the final data collection, which enabled the researcher to amend ambiguous questions, format where needed and test assumptions on how long it took to complete the questionnaire (Saunders & Lewis, 2012; Zikmund et al., 2010). The pre-testing took two days to complete and amendments to the questionnaire were done on the same day.

4.5.6 Method of analysis

The statistical software IBM SPSS version 24 was used to conduct the statistical analysis for the study.

Transforming variables

The questionnaire had 19 questions separated into the four LMX dimensions. The researcher created new variables for each dimension and calculated the respective means, for ease for further analysis.

The person- and task-oriented skills section of the questionnaire consisted of 38 questions between the two sections.

Principal component analysis (factor analysis)

Principal component analysis (PCA) as used to reduce the number of variables and extract factors (components) that would account for most of the variance in a large set of variables (Tharenou et al., 2007). A PCA was conducted on the 38 person- and task-oriented items in the questionnaire. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin's measure of sampling adequacy (KMO) (Kaiser, 1970, cited in Field, 2009, p 647) would be used to determine if the data could be factorised. The KMO statistic is between 0 and 1 and a value between 0.7 and 0.8 is good, values between 0.8 and 0.9 are excellent (Field, 2009; Malhotra et al., 2012). Bartlett's test of

sphericity measures whether variables are correlated and therefore a significance (p-value less than 0.05) is required.

With most factor analyses, the loading of items on factors usually loads on the first factor extracted, therefore a type of rotation was needed to smooth it across other factors. The researcher used an orthogonal rotation (varimax) and therefore assumes factors are not correlated. The method to find the number of factors to rotate is the Kaiser criterion where eigenvalues greater than one are used (Field, 2009). This is combined with Kaiser criterion to determine the number of factors to extract along with Cattell's scree test. The scree test is a graphic representation of eigenvalues.

Once factor loadings are determined, the researcher determined which items loaded higher on the relevant factors, and ideally values higher than 0.5 needed to load on at least one factor component. The researcher evaluated the items that loaded together to determine a common theme to rename the factor to a new variable.

Coding of data for processing

The data was coded in SPSS and an additional codebook was maintained in Microsoft Excel. An extract of the type of coding is indicated in the below table 4.

Table 4 – Demographic coding used in SPSS for data analysis

Variable	Code used in SPSS	Descriptor	N
Gender	1	Female	67
	2	Male	48
Generation	1	Baby Boomers	8
	2	Generation X	47
	3	Generation Y	60
Race	1	African	33
	2	Asian	6
	3	Coloured	11
	4	Indian	27
	5	Other	1
	6	White	37

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Type I and Type II error

Type I errors occur when rejecting the null hypothesis when it is indeed true, however to mitigate this serious violation the researcher minimized the probability of committing Type I errors by calculating the level of significance (α) at 0.05 (Gujarati, 2006). Therefore, a 95% confidence level will be maintained in the study. Through minimizing the occurrence of Type I errors, the power of the test is maximised and therefore Type II errors (β) are minimized (Balnaves & Caputi, 2001; Gujarati, 2006). The power of a test is 1 minus the β (Type II error) and therefore the probability of finding an effect if one exists within the population (Field, 2009). Therefore one should aim to achieve a power of 0.8 or 80% which indicates a 20% chance of failing to identify an effect (Field, 2009).

Effect size

The researcher will examine the effect size (r) of the different variables to determine the strength of the relationship between variables, regardless of the statistical test used (Field, 2009). The effect size is an unbiased measure of importance of an effect and found between 0 and 1. An r = 0.1 explains 1% of the total variance and seen as a small effect. An r=0.3 explains 9% of total variance and seen as a medium effect and r=0.5 explains 25% of variance and deemed a large effect (Cohen, 1992, cited in Field, 2009, p 57). For the MANOVA the partial effect (η^2) is calculated, however no scale exists for it - the bigger it is, the better, and therefore it explains the variance seen between variables.

Reliability and validity

Cronbach's alpha is the most common measure of consistency (reliability) and likely used when multiple Likert scales are used to test if the scale is reliable (Zikmund et al., 2010). Testing for reliability ensures that the instrument used will consistently reflect the construct measured and therefore yield the same results regardless how many times it is used (Field, 2009). Cronbach's alpha (α) was used to measure the internal reliability of the instrument and ranges between 0 and 1 with a value lower than 0.6 seen as an inadequate value for internal consistency (Cortina, 1993; Malhotra et al., 2012).

Pearson's product moment correlation was used to measure validity and relationships between variables (Field, 2009).

Quantitative data analysis

ANOVA (analysis of variance) was be used to test the hypotheses. ANOVA is used to assess sample means to determine if significant differences exist between samples (Wegner, 2016). The underlying assumptions to validate an ANOVA are based on key principles: population is normally distributed, population variances must be equal, and samples must be randomly selected and independent (Wegner, 2016). Hypotheses 1 to 6 were tested with an ANOVA.

Tests for normality were done using the Kolmogorov-Smirnov (K-S) test, which indicated that the data was not normality distributed. The K-S test results for all LMX dimensions, person- and task oriented skills were significant ($p < 0.05$) therefore confirming that all data categories failed the normality test (Field, 2009). The indicators used to support the failed normality tests were kurtosis (measures peaks or flatness) and skewness (lack of symmetry), of which both indicated skewed distributions (Malhotra et al., 2012).

To test for homogeneity of variance, the researcher used Levene's test to determine if there were differences in the variance of scores at different levels. For all the LMX dimensions, person- and task-oriented skills, the sig value in SPSS (p-value) were all significant ($p > 0.05$), therefore homogeneity of variance can be assumed (Field, 2009).

Even though the ANOVA assumption of normality was violated for all categories, the ANOVA test is seen robust enough to handle it, especially if equality of variance is proved (Balnaves & Caputi, 2001; Field, 2009). Supportive of the robust nature of an ANOVA is the central limit theorem proposing that a sample size of at least 30 or more observations will be approximately normally distributed, and therefore the researcher used the ANOVA test for hypothesis 1 to 6 (Gujarati, 2006). The researcher decided to do one-way ANOVAs on the descriptive variables and a MANOVA (multivariate analysis) on the between effects of variables.

The test statistics used for the multivariate analysis is Pillai-Bartlett trace (V). Pillai's trace represents the eigenvalues of the discriminant variables and explains the variance between them. Pillai's trace has an approximate F-distribution. Pillai's trace is most powerful when groups differ and is seen as a robust test. However when sample sizes differ, as in this study, the assumption of homogeneity had to be checked. The significance (sig.) of Pillai's test was used to confirm associations within groups. Post hoc tests were conducted to

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compare between group differences using the least squared differences (LSD) method (Field, 2009).

4.6   Assumptions of the study

The researcher made various high level assumptions in planning, arranging and conducting the research that will be discussed further below.

The language of the questionnaire and the distribution thereof was assumed to be understandable to all, as the business language in South Africa is English.

Although Malhotra et. al (2012) concluded that the response rate for an online survey is lower than face-to-face engagements, the researcher sent out reminder emails to all respondents. However, due to the anonymity promised to respondents, the researcher was not able to contact non-responding candidates directly and relied on respondents' personal feedback of completion to monitor outstanding responses.

The nature of the study where female leader's team members rated their line manger might lend itself to social desirability bias due to the fact that they are conscious that the female leader knows they are completing the survey based on her leadership characteristics and personality, therefore they would possibly not want to impact the relationship or stand in a negative social order (Zikmund et al., 2010). Due to the potential social desirability bias that might have impacted the results or the response rate, it was assumed that the respondents who completed the questionnaire understood the anonymity of it and answered truthfully.

4.7   Limitations of the study

The data was collected within the given context and thus was faced with certain limitations. First, the generational, racial and gender perspectives of female leaders within this study cannot be generalised to all members within the specified generational, racial and gender cohorts, and therefore the external validity might be impacted (Zikmund et al., 2010). The research was about female leaders in middle to senior management, therefore results cannot be generalised to the entire population of all female leaders at all levels.

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The use of non-probability sampling indicates that the list of the population is not available and the sample will not represent the population statistically (Saunders & Lewis, 2012).

The validity of the data could be impacted due to the nature of judgemental and convenience sampling and the limitation of the sample size (Saunders & Lewis, 2012; Zikmund et al., 2010).

Due to the nature of questionnaires, the relevance of response bias, specifically the unwillingness due to possible fear of consequence from their female leaders or non-response bias for the same reason, could have impacted the results and therefore is seen as a possible limitation (Malhotra & Briks, 2007).

A contributing factor to the low (59%) response rate could be attributed to the questionnaire length. The response rate was calculated taking the final number of submitted responses divided by the number of potential respondents that the researcher sent the online link to. TypeForm has recorded 249 visits to the site, however only 116 questionnaires were completed.

The timing of the questionnaires may coincide with an incident that occurred between the leader and a respondent (follower) that may impact on the respondents' objective response to the leaders' competence. The validity is the degree of accuracy in representing the situation or research findings in the manner in which it is presented (Saunders & Lewis, 2012; Zikmund et al., 2010).

Another limitation with regard to timing that impacted the response rate and willingness of companies to participate were the time of year (October to November) that the researcher conducted the questionnaires. Within the retail industry it is known to be the busiest time of year and this therefore directly impacted followers' response rates.

A further limitation of the study could have been the time it took to complete the questionnaire. The average time to answer all the questions across all 115 completed questionnaires was 13 minutes. Although this might not seem to be long, considering the

time of year (retail peak period), compounded by the interest in the topic or relation to the female leader, time and timing might both be contributors to the low response rate.

The generational feedback questions were aimed at all three generational cohorts, however due to the distribution of responses, the data skewed towards Generations X and Y. The representation of Baby Boomers was severely lacking, and therefore the 7% responses from Baby Boomers cannot be seen as representing the Baby Boomers population. A possible contributing factor could be that Baby Boomers are less inclined to use technology and therefore might have been discouraged from participating in the questionnaire (Meister & Willyerd, 2010; Salkowitz, 2008).

Lastly, the research was aimed at the perceptions of the followers of the female leader and did not include the female leaders' perception of the LMX relationship for input. Therefore the result might be a one-sided view of the LMX principles of the dyadic relationship, which could be seen as a deficient component (Krasikova & LeBreton, 2012).

4.5   Ethical consideration

The researcher decided to use a questionnaire to gather data from respondents. However to ensure the questionnaire conforms to the University of Pretoria's ethical guidelines, the researcher submitted a request for approval of the questionnaire to the Ethical Clearance Committee of the University of Pretoria. The questionnaire was approved by the Committee and the confirmation letter is attached in Appendix 4.

4.8   Conclusion

The content of this chapter ensures that the research for this study was conducted within the accepted academic methodology requirements. This includes research design, unit of analysis, population, sampling method, data gathering process, assumptions of the study and the limitations of the study was discussed. The findings of the research methodology principles are presented in the next chapter.

5 RESULTS

This chapter provides an overview of the results from the statistical analyses conducted on the data gathered in the questionnaires. Internal reliability and descriptive statistics are provided first. They are followed by the stratified data according to the four LMX principles, as well as person- and task-oriented skill items. An overview of the un-stratified data is also provided. Results will be presented as per the hypotheses explained in Chapter 4, starting with all the LMX hypotheses followed by the stereotype (person- and task-oriented skills) section.

5.1   Description of the sample

There were 115 responses from male and female followers of female that could be used for the analysis.

5.2   Internal reliability and validity

Testing for reliability ensures that the instrument used will consistently reflect the construct measured and therefore yield the same results regardless how many times it is used (Field, 2009). Cronbach's alpha (α) was used to measure the internal reliability of the instrument, with ranges between 0 and 1 and a value lower than 0.6 seen as an inadequate value for internal consistency (Malhotra et al., 2012).

The four subcategories in the LMX section and the two subcategories in the leadership trait section (person-oriented and task-oriented skills) had acceptable Cronbach's Alpha values as seen in Table 5. The only sub-category with a Cronbach's Alpha value lower than 0.8 was the LMX Loyalty. However the researcher deemed the 0.798 as acceptable. Therefore, the researcher concluded that the research instrument is reliable for further analysis.

Table 5 - Cronbach's Alpha for all subcategories in the questionnaire

Questionnaire subcategories	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
LMX Contribution	0.855	6
LMX Loyalty	0.798	4
LMX Affect	0.882	4
LMX Professional Respect	0.931	5
Task-oriented skills	0.97	18
Person-oriented skills	0.948	20

5.3   Response rate

The only criteria for respondents to be included in the study was that respondents had to work or have worked for a female leader, regardless of the level or job title of the female leader.

The researcher tested the hyperlink before every email and sent multiple reminder emails to respondents – it was clearly observed that the number of completed surveys increased after each reminder email. The final number of respondents was 116, of which one was not eligible because they didn't answer the question of whether they work or have worked for a female leader, and therefore the final number of respondents was 115. The response rate for the completion of the questionnaire was 59%.

Descriptive statistics

Fifty two percent of respondents were in the youngest generation with an age of between 17 and 35 years. Generation X, aged between 36 and 51 years old, were the second largest group reflecting 41% of the responses, and finally the oldest age group (Baby Boomers, age 52-70 years) only contributed 7% of all responses (refer to Figure 5). Even though Baby Boomers only represent 7% of the sample, the analysis was completed for all groups, noting that Baby Boomer results cannot be generalised to the entire population of Baby Boomers (as mentioned in the description of research limitations).

Eighty four percent of the respondents were from three ethnic race groups: 32% White, 29% African and 23% Indian (refer to Figure 6). Even though Asians only represent 5% of the sample, the analysis was completed for all groups, noting that Asian results cannot be

generalised to the entire population of Asians. Seventy four per cent of respondents have worked for their respective companies for between one and ten years (refer to Figure 7).
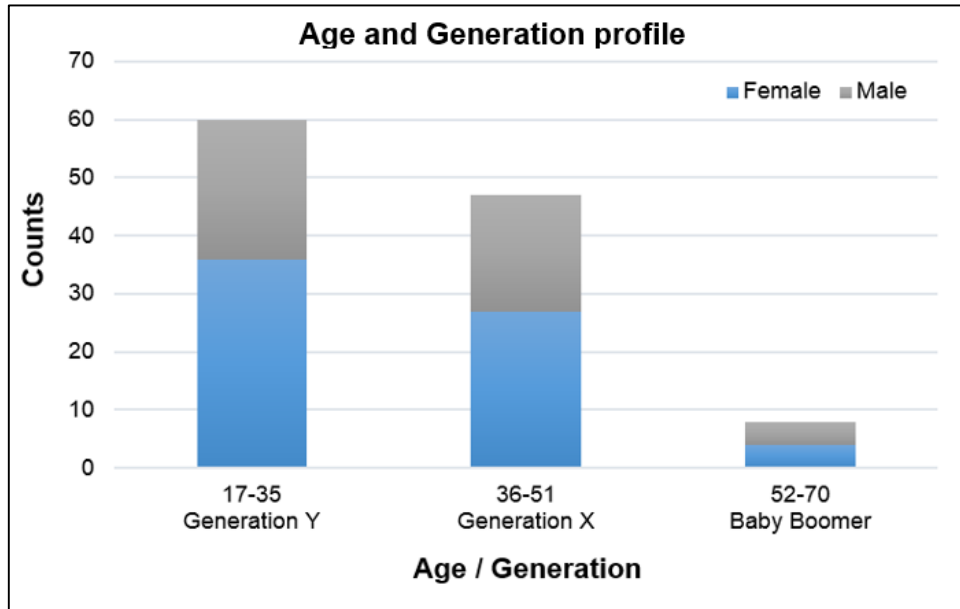
Figure 5 - Age and Generation profile of respondents
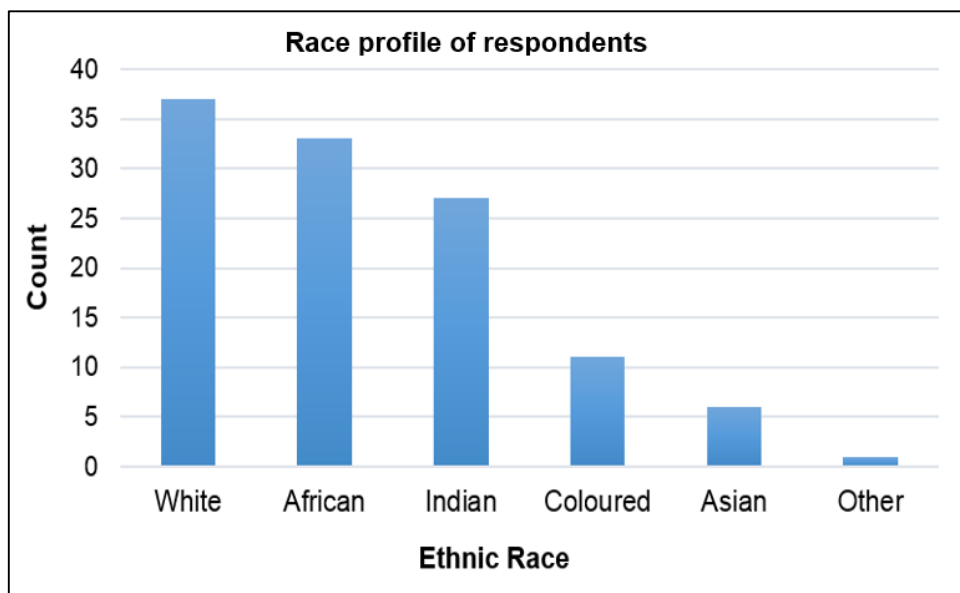
Figure 6 - Ethnic profile of respondents
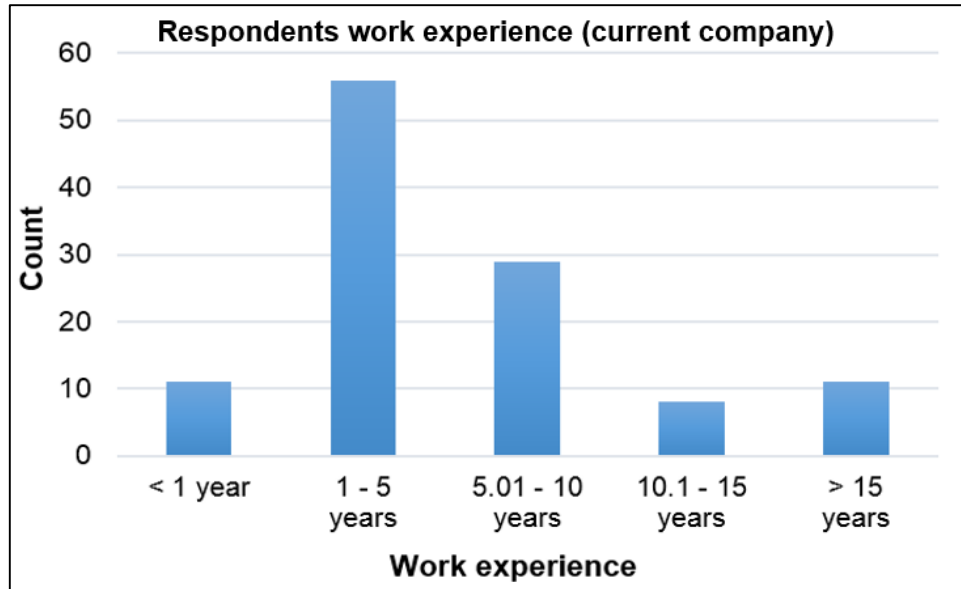
Figure 7 – Respondents' work experience

5.4   Non response analysis

One hundred and fifteen of the respondents completed all the questions in the questionnaire. One respondent did not complete the main criteria question: "I currently work or have worked for a female leader" and therefore this response was removed from the data.

5.5   Response error

Once data gathering was completed, and the researcher started analysing the responses, and it was noted that two of the Sczesny (2003) 20 person-oriented skills traits were omitted from the online questionnaire. The researcher made a recording error in translating the submitted questionnaire from the Word file to the online TypeForm template. A recording error occurs when the researcher makes an error in recording, hearing or translating responses from participants (Malhotra et al., 2012). However, due to internal reliability and statistical analysis the researcher does not foresee this to be detrimental to the completion of the study.

5.6 Results per hypothesis field

5.6.1 LMX dimensions

The LMX dimensions consist of four subcategories and therefore the generational and gender overview of the subcategory means were compared in Tables 6 and 7, using SPSS descriptive statistics.

Generation and Gender

Table 6 - LMX Dimension means with respect to gender and generation

Contribution Index Mean	Baby Boomers (N=8)	Generation X (N=47)	Generation Y (N=60)	Total (N=115)
Female	4.333	3.701	4.078	3.992
Male	4.472	4.579	4.137	4.405
Total	4.403	4.140	4.104	4.190
Loyalty Index Mean	**Baby Boomers**	**Generation X**	**Generation Y**	**Total**
Female	3.708	3.524	3.838	3.687
Male	3.750	3.986	3.726	3.840
Total	3.729	3.755	3.788	3.761
Affect Index Mean	**Baby Boomers**	**Generation X**	**Generation Y**	**Total**
Female	3.333	3.465	4.023	3.649
Male	3.792	3.870	4.073	3.918
Total	3.563	3.668	4.045	3.778
Profesionnal Respect Index Mean	**Baby Boomers**	**Generation X**	**Generation Y**	**Total**
Female	3.800	3.703	4.139	3.893
Male	4.167	4.288	4.379	4.288
Total	3.983	3.995	4.246	4.083
LMX Total Mean	**Baby Boomers**	**Generation X**	**Generation Y**	**Total**
Female	3.851	3.615	4.032	3.830
Male	4.096	4.228	4.101	4.153
Total	3.974	3.921	4.063	3.985

From Table 6 it can be seen that male followers rated their female leaders higher than the female followers did, across all items of the LMX dimensions. The female leaders scored the highest on the contribution dimension with an example question of "My manager gives me the right amount of direction needed when assigning tasks". The dimension that scored the lowest was Loyalty, and an example of a question from the loyalty dimension is "My manager will defend/stand up for me in public forums". The highest score (M=4.579) given

was for the contribution dimension and these followers were males from Generation X. The lowest scores (M=3.333) given on generation level were by female Baby Boomers.

Race and Gender

Table 7 summarises the mean values for the LMX dimensions in a gender and race view. From the table it can be observed that the lowest scores across dimensions were among Coloured, Indian and Asians. The highest scores were among Africans and Whites.

Male Coloured followers within the loyalty dimension gave the lowest scores (M=3.206). The highest scores (M=4.747) were from White males for the professional respect dimension.

Table 7 - LMX Dimension means with respect to gender and race

Contribution Index Mean	African (N=33)	Asian (N=6)	Coloured (N=11)	Indian (N=27)	White (N=37)	Total
Female	4.392	4.000	3.514	4.000	4.090	3.992
Male	4.259	4.375	3.722	4.656	4.611	4.405
Total	4.339	4.188	3.597	4.263	4.403	4.190
Loyalty Index Mean	**African**	**Asian**	**Coloured**	**Indian**	**White**	**Total**
Female	4.074	3.313	3.792	3.398	3.760	3.687
Male	3.833	3.250	3.208	4.250	4.167	3.840
Total	3.978	3.281	3.558	3.739	4.004	3.761
Affect Index Mean	**African**	**Asian**	**Coloured**	**Indian**	**White**	**Total**
Female	3.741	3.813	3.729	3.226	3.865	3.649
Male	3.828	3.563	3.583	4.109	4.367	3.918
Total	3.776	3.688	3.671	3.579	4.166	3.778
Profesionnal Respect Index Mean	**African**	**Asian**	**Coloured**	**Indian**	**White**	**Total**
Female	4.437	3.750	3.850	3.370	4.069	3.893
Male	4.269	3.950	3.600	4.288	4.747	4.288
Total	4.370	3.850	3.750	3.737	4.476	4.083
LMX Total Mean	**African**	**Asian**	**Coloured**	**Indian**	**White**	**Total**
Female	4.200	3.750	3.706	3.545	3.968	3.830
Male	4.082	3.855	3.553	4.359	4.502	4.153
Total	4.152	3.803	3.645	3.870	4.288	3.985

The LMX dimensions consist of four subcategories and therefore the gender and race overview of the subcategory means were compared in Table 8 using SPSS descriptive statistics.

The ANOVA was used to determine the variances of means, using the Levene's Test to determine the equality of variances. To confirm the Levene's Test, the variance ratio (Hartley's F_{MAX}) for all variables were calculated. The variance ratio is calculated by dividing the largest group variance with the smallest group variance and therefore compared to the critical values in the Hartley's Table at a 0.05 significance level (Field, 2009). For the sample, the critical value of 1 (from Hartley's F_{MAX} table) was used and therefore any ratio over 1 will signify no variance difference.

Analysis of variance results: Generations and LMX

Table 8 - ANOVA results for LMX and Generations

LMX Dimensions	df1	df2	Levene's Statistic	Sig. (p-value)	Ratio	Between Groups	
						F	Sig. (p-value)
Contribution Index Mean	2	112	0.755	0.472	2.00	0.404	0.699[a]
Loyalty Index Mean	2	112	1.894	0.155	1.70	0.633	0.533[a]
Affect Index Mean	2	112	0.763	0.469	1.49	1.423	0.245[a]
Profesionnal Respect Index Mean	2	112	1.174	0.313	1.65	1.404	0.250[a]

a. alpha = 0.05

Tables 8 and 9 confirm homogeneity of variance as Levene's Test is significant (p>0.05), confirmed by Hartley's F_{MAX}. There are no significance between group differences on total group level between generations and the LMX dimensions in Table 8. There was one significant difference (p<0.05) for the contribution dimension between female and male followers seen in Table 9. The professional respect dimension had a p-value of 0.103 at an alpha of 0.05, therefore is not significant, but is however noted for further analysis.

Analysis of variance results: Gender and LMX

Table 9 - ANOVA results for LMX and Gender

LMX Dimensions	df1	df2	Levene's Statistic	Sig. (p-value)	Ratio	Between Groups	
						F	Sig. (p-value)
Contribution Index Mean	1	113	0.000	0.992	1.01	6.886	0.010[a]
Loyalty Index Mean	1	113	0.252	0.617	1.35	0.459	0.499[a]
Affect Index Mean	1	113	0.791	0.376	1.12	1.501	0.223[a]
Profesionnal Respect Index Mean	1	113	0.439	0.509	1.11	2.706	0.103[a]

a. alpha = 0.05

A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used to assess the difference dependent variables and interactions between the independent variables (Field, 2009). The researcher wanted to understand the interaction between race, gender and generation in the overall assessment of the LMX dimensions.

The MANOVA starts with a Levene's test of equality of variances (as calculated in the univariate ANOVA) confirming the test to be non-significant and therefore the assumption of homogeneity was met.

LMX: Generation

Using Pillai's trace, there was a significant effect of generations jointly on the differences in the LMX dimensions, $V = 0.167$, $F (8, 220) = 2.004$, $p < 0.05$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.083$.

Separate ANOVAs were completed for each dependent variable (LMX dimensions) at an item (question) level.

Within the Affect dimension, the below question was significantly different between generations, for an alpha at 0.10.

- I relate to my manager as a person and can see a potential friendship beyond our working relationship (p=0.079). Generation X (M=3.34) and Baby boomers (M=3.38) scored lower than Generation Y followers (M=3.80).

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Within the Professional Respect dimension the below question was significantly different between generations, for an alpha at 0.10.

- I respect my manager for the person she is (non-work related) (p=0.053). Generation X (M=3.91) and Baby boomers (M=4.00) scored lower than Generation Y followers (M=4.40).

There were no significant differences in generational scores for the remaining LMX dimensions. Therefore, the findings partially support hypothesis 1c and 1d, while hypothesis 1a, 1b and 1e were rejected.

It is therefore noted that:

The elements within the Affect and Professional Respect LMX dimensions are perceived differently between different generations of followers.

The LMX dimension of Contribution, Loyalty and Total LMX were not perceived differently between different generations of followers.

LMX: Gender

Using Pillai's Trace, there was not a significant joint effect of gender on the differences in the LMX dimensions, $V = 0.054$, $F (4, 87) = 1.232$, $p > 0.05$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.054$.

A separate ANOVA was conducted for each dependent variable (LMX dimensions), with each ANOVA evaluated at an alpha level of 0.05. There was a significant difference between males and females on the Contribution dimension, $F (1, 113) = 6.886$, $p = 0.01$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.06$, with females (M=3.992) scoring the leaders lower than males (M=4.405) which is almost 9.4% on average lower.

Within the Contribution dimension the below questions were significantly different between females and males, for an alpha at 0.05.

- My manager gives me the right amount of direction needed when assigning tasks (p=0.02). Female followers (M=3.82) scored their female leaders lower than male followers did (M=4.21).
- I receive adequate support and resources from my manager to achieve my work targets (p=0.002). Female followers (M=3.75) scored their female leaders lower than male followers did (M=4.31).
- I receive adequate support and resources from my manager when she gives me tasks outside of my job description (p=0.016). Female followers (M=3.67) scored their female leaders lower than male followers did (M=4.1).

Within the Affect dimension, only one item was significant at an alpha of 0.10.
- My manager is interested in my personal wellbeing (p=0.075). Female followers (M=3.91) scored their female leaders lower than male followers did (M=4.25).

Within the Professional Respect dimension, two items were significant at an alpha of 0.10.
- My manager respects me for the person I am (p=0.076). Female followers (M=4.03) scored their female leaders lower than male followers did (M=4.33).
- My manager has a good professional reputation inside the organisation for excelling in her line of work (p=0.084). Female followers (M=3.93) scored their female leaders lower than male followers did (M=4.27).

In the MANOVA for between subject effects, there was a difference between the LMX total dimension and between genders with a p-value of 0.082 at an alpha of 0.10. Therefore, there was a significant difference between female and male scores on LMX total level. Females (M=3.830) scored lower than males (M=4.153).

There were no significant differences in gender scores for the remaining LMX dimensions. Therefore, the findings support hypothesis 2a, 2c, 2d and 2e while hypothesis 2b was rejected.

It is therefore noted that:
The LMX dimensions of Contribution, Affect, Professional Respect and Total LMX are perceived differently between female and male followers.

The LMX dimension of Loyalty is not perceived differently between female and male followers.

Planned comparisons were calculated to determine the differences in the subcategories. The contribution dimension was significant (p=0.015) with a clear difference between male and females. Males (M=4.405) scored higher than females (M=3.992) within the contribution dimension.

Race

Using Pillai's trace, there was a significant effect jointly of race on the differences in the LMX dimensions, $V = 0.443$, $F (20, 360) = 2.241$, $p < 0.05$, partial $\eta^2 = 0.11$.

A separate ANOVA was conducted for each dependent variable (LMX dimensions), with each ANOVA evaluated at an alpha level of .05. There were no significant differences between races for all of the dimensions.

Therefore, it was confirmed that race had an impact on the outcome of the LMX perception of the female leader. Planned comparisons were calculated to determine the differences in the subcategories. Table 10 summarises the significant differences between race groups with the respective significance (p-value) at an alpha of 0.05. The dimensions of professional respect had two significant differences in that African and White followers scored female leaders significantly higher than Indian followers did (p=values of 0.44 and 0.020 respectively). The contribution dimension showed the most differences between Africans, Whites and Indians in relation to Coloured respondents, who scored female leaders significantly lower.

Table 10 - Paired comparisons of the differences between race groups for the LMX dimension

Dimension	Race	Sig. (p-value)
Professional Respect	African > Indian	0.044[a]
	White > Indian	0.020[a]
Contribution	African > Coloured	0.005[a]
	Indian > Coloured	0.013[a]
	White > Coloured	0.003[a]
LMX Total	White > Coloured	0.040[a]

a. alpha = 0.05

Therefore, the findings support hypothesis 3a, 3d and 3e while hypotheses 3b and 3c were rejected.

The LMX dimension of Contribution, Professional Respect and total LMX were perceived differently between different races of followers.

The LMX dimension of Loyalty and Affect were not perceived differently between different races of followers.

5.6.2   Person-oriented skills

Descriptive statistics were used to understand the means and standard deviations of the person-oriented skills measured from a generational and gender view. The tables represent the mean values and standard deviations are shown in brackets. The detailed table for all items can be reviewed in Appendix 5 with a summarised table (Table 11) below.

Gender
From Table 11 the highest scores are: sense of responsibility, trustworthiness, ability to work in teams, and ability to cooperate. The four highest scores are also the four highest scores rated by females and males, in the same rank order.

Overall, the male scores were higher than the female scores for person-oriented skills.

Table 11 - Summary of the key gender items in Person-oriented skills

Person-oriented skills	Female (N=67)	Male (N=48)	Total (N=115)
Sense of responsibility	4.284 (0.867)	4.313 (0.803)	4.296 (0.837)
Trustworthiness	4.164 (0.979)	4.313 (0.993)	4.226 (0.983)
Ability to work in teams	4.060 (0.919)	4.333 (0.883)	4.174 (0.911)
Balance	3.716 (0.849)	3.917 (0.871)	3.800 (0.860)
Tolerance	3.687 (0.874)	3.917 (0.942)	3.783 (0.906)
Ability to deal with conflicts	3.761 (1.074)	3.708 (1.071)	3.739 (1.069)
Ability to motivate others	3.761 (1.060)	4.042 (1.031)	3.878 (1.053)
Empathy	3.851 (1.118)	4.146 (0.989)	3.974 (1.072)

The lowest scores are: ability to deal with conflict, tolerance, and balance. The scores ranked from lowest to fifth lowest from female followers were tolerance, balance, modesty, ability to deal with conflict, and communicative manner. The lowest scores from male followers were: ability to deal with conflict, balance, tolerance, intuition and openness.

The biggest standard deviation (dispersion from the mean (Wegner, 2016)) are: ability to admit one's own error, empathy, and ability to deal with conflict. The biggest standard deviations in female responses were empathy, ability to admit one's own error, and ability to deal with conflict. The biggest standard deviations in male responses were: ability to deal with conflict, ability to admit one's own error, openness, and ability to motivate others.

Generations
Two of the highest scores are also in the top two highest scores rated by all three generations (Baby Boomers, Generation X and Generation Y) (Table 12).

Overall, Generation X scored female leaders higher on person-oriented skills and Baby Boomers rated female leaders lower than the other two generations did.

Table 12 - Summary of the key generational items in person-oriented skills

Person-oriented skills	Baby Boomers (N=8)	Generation X (N=47)	Generation Y (N=60)	Total (N=115)
Sense of responsibility	4.375 (0.518)	4.191 (0.924)	4.367 (0.802)	4.296 (0.837)
Trustworthiness	3.750 (1.389)	4.128 (1.115)	4.367 (0.780)	4.226 (0.983)
Ability to work in teams	4.250 (0.707)	4.021 (1.093)	4.283 (0.761)	4.174 (0.911)
Balance	3.750 (0.707)	3.723 (0.994)	3.867 (0.769)	3.800 (0.860)
Tolerance	3.375 (0.916)	3.723 (1.117)	3.883 (0.691)	3.783 (0.906)
Ability to deal with conflicts	3.625 (0.916)	3.660 (1.128)	3.817 (1.049)	3.739 (1.069)
Empathy	3.750 (0.886)	3.872 (1.279)	4.083 (0.907)	3.974 (1.072)
Ability to admit one's own errors	3.625 (1.408)	3.872 (1.191)	3.933 (0.954)	3.887 (1.082)

Race

The highest-ranking score was sense of responsibility, and it was the highest scoring item for all races except Indians, where ability to work in teams was rated the highest.

Although the ability to deal with conflict had the overall lowest score, it was only the lowest score for Africans and Indians. The lowest score for Asians and Whites was tolerance, and for Coloureds, it was modesty.

Across all races, Whites scored their female leaders the highest overall against Asians and Coloureds scored their female leaders the lowest overall. Africans had the most deviation in answers across races, while Coloureds display the least amount of variance in answers within in the race group.

Principle component analysis

The factor analysis was favourable with a KMO of 0.958 and a significance for Bartlett's Sphericity test of $p < 0.001$. The 18 items from person-oriented skills all loaded on one factor. The anti-image correlation matrices were all higher than 0.5 on the diagonal and the PCA calculated all values above 0.937. From the total variance explained, one factor explained 66.82% of total variance. The Scree plot was also examined to confirm the number of factors with an eigenvalue more than 1; however, the scree plot confirmed only one factor. The average communality from the PCA for the one factor was 0.668 which is deemed acceptable and above the required 0.6 average (Field, 2009).

The PCA output was used to create a new variable to be compared with other variables. The new variable was computed using the z-score to enable comparison between factor scores and LMX variables.

Person-oriented skills (POS) compared to race and within race groups did not yield any significant differences, with no groups displaying a p-value less than 0.05. ANOVAs were calculated to determine significant differences between race, gender or generation with POS scores. None of the tests were significant, therefore Hypotheses 4x, 5x and 6x were rejected. No significant differences were found between gender, generation and race groups for person-oriented skills.

However, the post hoc test (LSD) within groups found significant differences between subcategories of race and gender, particularly between males. Table 13 summarises the significance found within the POS factor. There were no significant differences between gender and race or generation.

Table 13 - POS differences between race and gender

Gender	Race scored higher	Race scored lower	Sig (p-value)
Male	White	Coloured	0.027[a]
Male	Indian	Coloured	0.040[a]

a. alpha = 0.05

Boxplots were used to illustrate the similarities between the POS scored by race (Figure 8) and generation (Figure 9). Boxplots show the range of data points and clear outlier points. No relevant differences were observed, however the dispersion (spread) of the boxplot by generation and race are noted.

Whites and Africans have a few clear outliers beyond the whiskers of the Boxplots, however the boxes are not stretched either way. Therefore the spread of scores is symmetrical around the median points. These two races have similar results in their scores of female leaders. The Indian box stretch indicates the spread away from the median as well as a clear outlier point.

Person-oriented skill scores across races
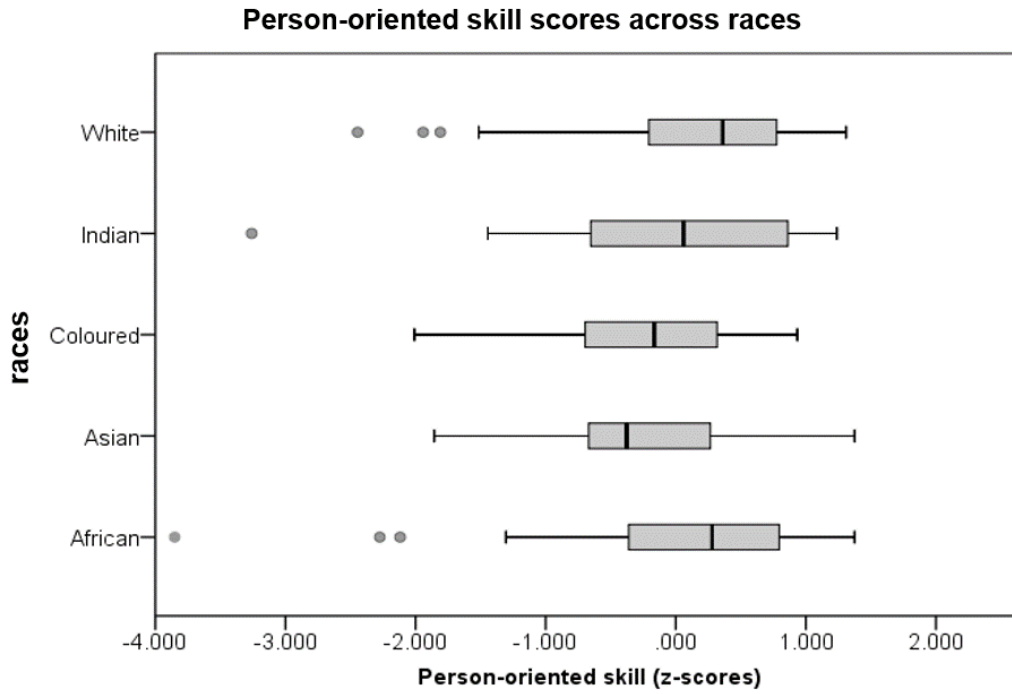
Figure 8 - Quartile distribution of the POS scores between races

Generation X and Generation Y have relatively equal median scores, however Generation X is slightly negatively skewed, indicating a few small scores with a stretched whisker (longer).

Person-oriented skill scores across generations
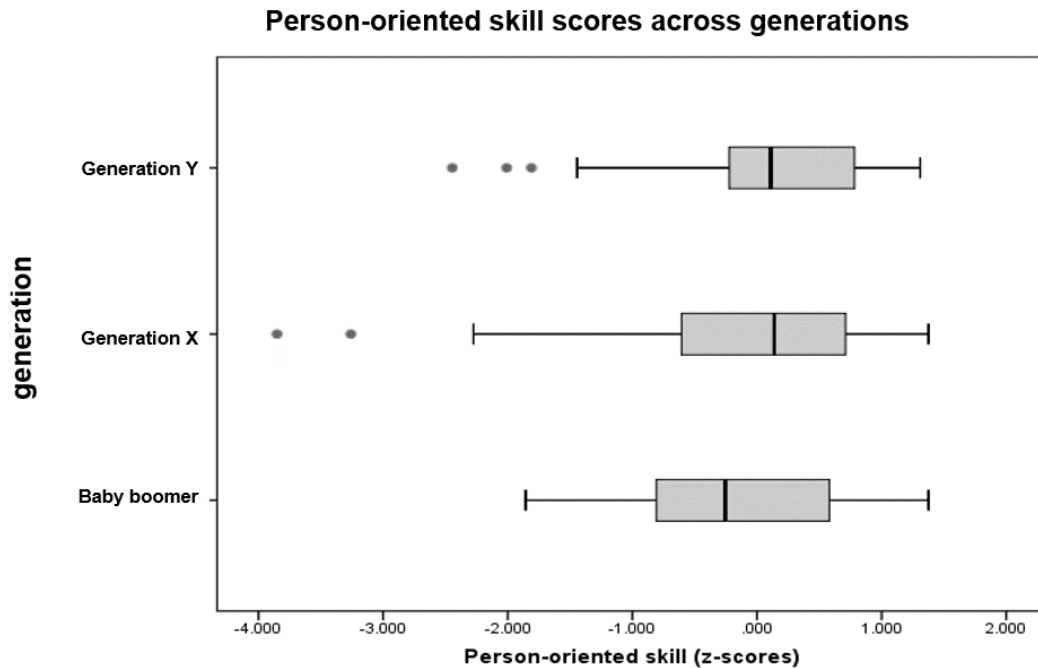
Figure 9 - Quartile distribution of the POS scores between generations

5.6.3   Task-oriented skills

Descriptive statistics were used to understand the means and standard deviations of the task-oriented skills, measured from a generational and gender view. The detailed table for all items can be reviewed in Appendix 6 with a summarised table (Table 14) below.

Gender
Overall, the male and female follower scores were very similar for task-oriented skills.

The lowest overall scores were: objectivity, striving for power, and persuasiveness. The lowest scores by females evaluating their female leaders were the same as the overall total lowest scores, which can be attributed to weighted impact as 58% of the sample was female. The lowest scores from male followers were: ability to cope with stress, readiness to take risks, and striving for power.

The biggest standard deviation is that of objectivity. The biggest standard deviation in responses from females was objectivity. The biggest standard deviations in responses from males were objectivity and ability to organise.

Generations

From Table 14, the highest scores on total level are: determination, ambition and self-confidence. Two of the three highest scores are also in the top three highest scores across generations.

The lowest overall scores were: objectivity, striving for power and persuasiveness. Self-discipline was one of Baby Boomers' lowest scores, and readiness to take risks and ability to cope with stress were respective low scores for Generation X and Generation Y. The most variability in answers was observed in Generation X, and specifically for: self-discipline, objectivity, and ability to cope with stress.

Table 14 - Summary of the key generational items in task-oriented skills

Task-oriented skills	Baby Boomers (N=8)	Generation X (N=47)	Generation Y (N=60)	Total (N=115)
Ambition	4.625 (0.518)	4.340 (0.815)	4.550 (0.622)	4.470 (0.705)
Determination	4.500 (0.535)	4.404 (0.771)	4.500 (0.624)	4.461 (0.679)
Self-confidence	4.500 (0.756)	4.149 (0.807)	4.400 (0.643)	4.304 (0.728)
Objectivity	3.875 (0.991)	3.787 (1.160)	3.867 (0.965)	3.835 (1.042)
Striving for power	4.375 (0.744)	3.915 (0.996)	3.700 (0.926)	3.835 (0.954)
Persuasiveness	3.750 (0.886)	3.809 (0.924)	3.983 (0.873)	3.896 (0.892)

Race

The highest-ranking item overall was ambition, which ranked highest for all races except for Asians and Indians. Asians and Coloureds ranked determination and competitiveness the highest. The other high-ranking items were determination and self-confidence. Other high-ranking items on race level were ability to delegate (Asians and Coloureds), initiative (Whites and Indians) and competitiveness (Coloureds).

The lowest ranking items were: objectivity, striving for power, and persuasiveness. Persuasiveness and objectivity were the lowest items for Coloureds, Indians and Whites. Ability to cope with stress was low for Africans, Asians and Coloureds. Readiness to take

risks had low scores among Africans and Indians. Coloureds and Asians gave female leaders the lowest scores in this sample.

Coloureds had the most deviation of answers from the mean within all the items and Whites had the least. Among all the races, Africans and Whites scored female leaders the highest overall across most items.

Across gender, generation and race, objectivity had the highest variation (standard deviation) in all groups.

Principal component analysis for task-oriented skills

The factor analysis was favourable with a KMO of 0.936 and a significance for Bartlett's Sphericity test of $p < 0.001$. The 20 items from task-oriented skills loaded on two factors. The anti-image correlation matrices were all higher than 0.5 on the diagonal and the PCA calculated all values above 0.937. Between the two factors, 61.26% of total variance was explained. The Scree plot was also examined to confirm the number of factors with an eigenvalue more than one, however the Scree plot confirmed that two factors are relevant. The average communality from the PCA was 0.613.

The PCA output was used to create two new variables to be compared with other variables. The new variables were computed using the z-score to enable comparison between factor scores and LMX variables. Before comparison the researcher used the sum method to create one variable for comparison purposes.

Task-oriented skills (TOS) compared to race and within race groups did not yield any significant differences, with no groups displaying a p-value less than 0.05. ANOVAs were calculated to determine significant differences between race, gender or generation with TOS scores. None of the tests were significant. Therefore, hypothesis 4a, 5a and 6a were rejected because there was no significant difference between race, gender and generational groups for task-oriented skills.

However, the post hoc test (LSD) within groups found significant differences between subcategories of race and gender. Table 15 summarises the significance found within the

TOS factor. There were no significant differences between gender and generation or generation and race. African and Coloured female followers scored significantly higher than Indian female followers (p=0.032 and p=0.028). Significant differences were observed between Indian male followers and Coloured male followers. Coloureds were outscored by Africans and Whites at a 0.1 significance level.

Table 15 - TOS differences between race and gender

Gender	Race scored higher	Race scored lower	Sig (p-value)
Female	African	Indian	0.032[a]
Female	Coloured	Indian	0.028[a]
Male	Indian	Coloured	0.005[a]
Male	African	Coloured	0.053[b]
Male	White	Coloured	0.052[b]

a. alpha = 0.05   b. alpha = 0.1

A boxplot was used to illustrate the similarities between the TOS scored by race (Figure 10). Boxplots show the range of data points and clear outlier points. There are slight differences in the medians of each race. The dispersion (length of box) of White points to 50% of the scores close to the median. Contrary to this are the scores observed for Coloureds and Indians that are dispersed, and the whiskers are stretched, indicating a few outliers and skewed data points.

Task-oriented skill scores across races
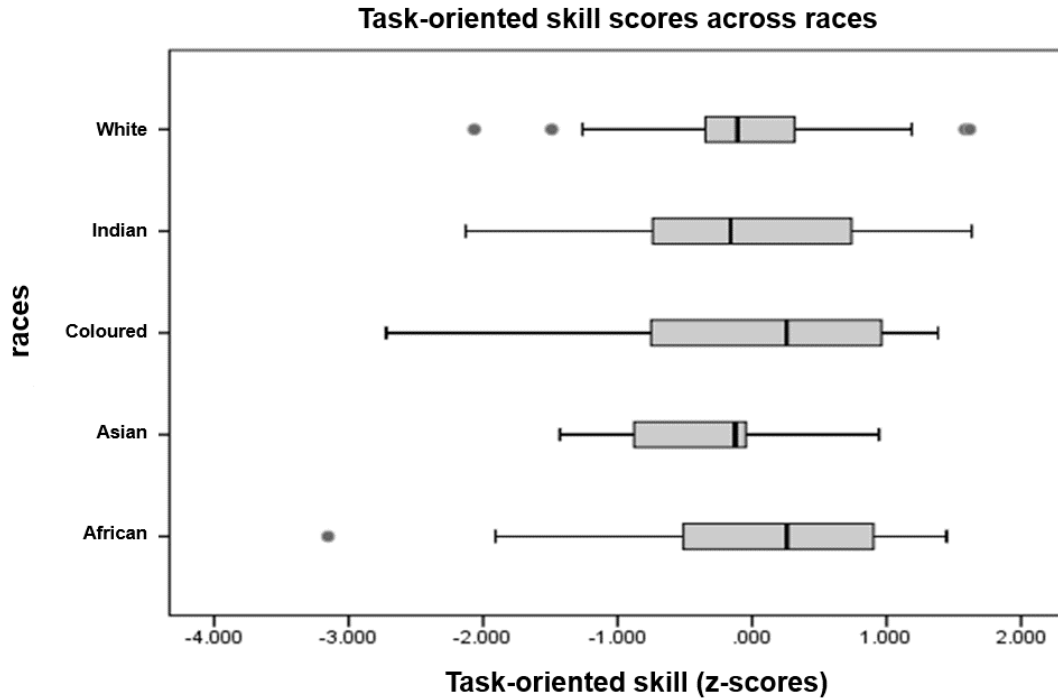
Figure 10 - Quartile distribution of the TOS scores between races

Combined effects between POS and TOS within race, gender and generation

Pillai's trace was significant at an alpha of 0.05 (p=0.031) indicating a clear difference between males and different race groups. Between both POS and TOS items the post hoc test (LSD) revealed that Indian males scored higher than Indian females (p=0.021 and p=0.031) (Table 16).

Table 16 - POS and TOS comparisons between race and gender

Person- or Task-oriented Skill	Race	Gender scored higher	Gender scored lower	Sig (p-value)
TOS	Indian	Male	Female	0.021[a]
TOS	Coloured	Female	Male	0.032[a]
POS	White	Male	Female	0.083[b]
POS	Indian	Male	Female	0.031[a]

a. alpha = 0.05   b. alpha = 0.1

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5.6.4 Respondents' feedback on insight questions

The researcher provided respondents (followers of female leaders) with the opportunity to respond on two open-ended questions at the end of the questionnaire. The questions were voluntary and it was not a requirement to complete them to be able to submit the questionnaire.

Question 1: When you think of female leadership, what does it mean to you and what comes to mind?

Question 2: Are there any other insights that have not been covered, which you think pertinent to this topic?

Below are direct quotations from the respondents' feedback on the respective questions. There were clear themes that came from the direct words of respondents around female leaders and female followers, the emotions of females, the need to prove themselves, and the positive outlook of what females bring to the business.

Female followers rated female leaders lower than males did, and the words from female followers echo some of the thoughts around 'Queen Bee'.

"Female leadership is on the rise but good female leadership is rare"

– Female (Coloured and Baby Boomer)

"Unfortunately I have not had the experience of a strong female leader. I tend to think of female leaders as not being able to provide solid direction or support to their teams."

– Female (White and Generation Y)

"I've worked for female leaders before, some very supportive, some like mothers, but mostly what comes out is COMPETITIVENESS. As a high-performer, some would be very supportive, but others were INTIMIDATED. Personally, I prefer working for men. No nonsense - just do your job. No emotional stuff."

– Female (White and Generation X)

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"Female leaders need to stand together with mutual respect. We need more encouragement. Females can be more critical and can judge other females more harshly than usual."

<div align="right">– Female (Indian and Generation Y)</div>

Prevalent in most stereotype research is the topic of emotions when related to female leadership:

"A female leader is bound to lead with emotion rather than excellence and sound business sense."

<div align="right">– Female (Indian and Generation X)</div>

"Emotional."

<div align="right">– Female (African and Generation X)</div>

"Females might be frowned upon due to inability to keep professional and personal feelings separate from the workplace."

<div align="right">– Female (Indian and Generation Y)</div>

"Emotional stability can lack."

<div align="right">– Male (White and Generation Y)</div>

There seems to be a topic around the need for female leaders to prove themselves:

"Sacrifice."

<div align="right">– Female (Indian and Generation Y)</div>

"Female managers apply more pressure when managing male counterparts because they feel they need to do that to gain respect."

<div align="right">– Male (African and Generation X)</div>

"Female leadership is often taken to one extreme or the other. She is either too emotionally involved or if a strong leader becomes an 'iron curtain' with no empathy or connection with her subordinates. Female leaders should be groomed to have balance."

<div align="right">– Female (Indian and Generation X)</div>

A better outlook from (majority) male respondents on what females contribute to team and organisations:

"I believe that a female leader is very considerate and understands us. Very supportive during crisis and can unpack issues."

<div align="right">– Male (Indian and Generation X)</div>

"In my opinion, female leadership is the future of any organisation to achieve complete flexibility. Female leaders bring an extra dimension to a leadership team as they think differently to male leaders. They take more elements into account for example emotional influence, empathy and consideration for all parties. In leadership teams, females bring an element of precision and attention to detail."

<div align="right">– Female (Coloured and Generation Y)</div>

"I use (sic) to think of a person who will be hard just to prove a point that woman can do it. Since I have worked with three women that has not been the case. I find them fare (sic), considerate, determined, self-control and most off it (sic), all support in making sure we all win as a team. I will work for woman any day."

<div align="right">– Male (African and Generation X)</div>

"Improves everything and will form a society that enables us to listen to the other important voices, specifically those of other ethnicities and generations."

<div align="right">– Male (Coloured and Generation Y)</div>

6 DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

6.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a critical discussion of results presented in Chapter 5. The chapter seeks to align the literature discussed in Chapter 2, with the research hypotheses proposed in Chapter 3, with results obtained in Chapter 5 to conclude whether the research results are in agreement or present a different view from the current research.

Alderfer et al. (1983) used the definition of organisational groups as dependent on the individual, the individual within the group and the external environment the group operates in. Therefore the researcher concluded that different generations, genders and race groups conform to this and can be seen as organisational groups. The analysis supports the notion to look at female leaders' followers in relation to the perception of the gender group: male and female followers; the generation group: Baby Boomers, Generation X and Generation Y and the race groups: Africans, Asians, Coloureds, Indians and Whites. Based on this, it is expected that in the current organisational context there would be differences in perceptions of female leadership familiarity and acceptance between different subgroups and intergroup followers. Each research hypothesis will be discussed in the following section.

6.2 LMX and Generations (Hypothesis 1)

The LMX dimensions of contribution, loyalty, affect and professional respect will be perceived differently between the different generations.

The analysis found there were differences between generations for elements of the affect and professional respect dimensions. For the Affect dimension, the relevance was found in the social interaction element of which Generation Y was significantly different. The findings correspond with the individualistic and social characteristics identified in Generation Y employees (Chi, Maier, & Gursoy, 2013; Lyons & Kuron, 2013; Meister & Willyerd, 2010).

The professional respect element dealt with respect outside of work – for the person – and again links back to the social element where Generation Y is more favourable.

The contribution dimension did not yield any significant differences between generations, however understanding the premise that Contribution reflects the amount of work and quality each member contributes. Therefore, in theory, Baby Boomers should feel more impacted by contribution, as equal workload is a key element in their make-up. Baby boomers ranked highest on the contribution dimension (M=4.4) followed by Generation X and Generation Y (M=4.1 respectively), however the significance of the ANOVA test was not prevalent. The results are mixed as the contribution element was ranked highest, however not significant enough, therefore the results for contribution does not align with Chi, Maier and Gursoy's (2013) view that Baby Boomers are more workload and contribution conscious. An implication for Baby Boomers can also be attributed to the limited sample representation (7%), compared to the other two generations (93% combined).

The Loyalty dimension was rejected as there were no significant differences across generations. Loyalty refers to the personal dyad, public support, and how they guard the dyad. Loyalty ranked on average the lowest of all dimensions, indicating across all generations that female leaders are not perceived to protect their followers or the dyad unequivocally. This is contrary to research that found that females portray more transformational identities related to follower engagement (Daft, 2011). The researcher believes that the dimension could have been articulated better to uncover specific elements that followers were not relating to.

The implications for the findings relate to the importance of social engagement (affect and professional respect) for Generation Y followers and to a lessor extent, to Baby Boomers who merely want to get the job done. This will allow female leaders to engage Generation Y more often and with attention to maintaining an engaged relationship to leverage the most from them. .Baby Boomers expect more communication, but do not need to engage socially or beyond what is needed to perform the job (Arsenault, 2004; Chi et al., 2013).

The findings can also be attributed to Lyons and Kuron's (2013) notion that the definition of generational cohorts and the implication of generations have been overrated, and therefore generalising the individualistic and cognitive evaluations of a group of followers is not always favourable. LMX studies are yet to include generational research and therefore the results are not comparable to a specific study.

6.3 LMX and Gender (Hypothesis 2)

The LMX dimensions of contribution, loyalty, affect and professional respect will be perceived differently between female and male followers.

On total level, male followers scored female leaders higher on LMX dimensions than female followers did, indicating that male followers perceive higher relational interactions with female leaders than female followers do. This is aligned to Schein (2007) and Eagly et al. (1992) that female followers tend to score female leaders more harshly and less favourably than male followers, or even when compared to male leaders, for that matter.

The biggest significant differences between male and female followers were found in the contribution and professional respect dimensions. The low scores from female followers for contribution can be explained by the higher expectations from females that have 'made it' and therefore might not give female followers as much support and direction as they would to male followers (Derks et al., 2016).

The results for professional respect rated higher among male followers than female followers, and therefore correspond to Wolfram, Mohr and Schyns' (2007) findings that female followers rated female leaders lower than male leaders on professional respect. Conclusive to the findings is the opinion of Eagly et al. (1992) that female followers tend to devalue female leaders more so than male followers. Contributing to professional respect is the element of legitimacy (discussed in 2.1.3) which female leaders are faced with (Vial et al., 2016) and its impact on their psychological frame, hence self-regulation is needed to adjust where needed (Bandura, 1991).

The only significant difference (alpha = 0.1) in the affect dimension was found for the question: "My manager is interested in my personal wellbeing". Male followers scored their leaders significantly higher than female followers did, therefore also contributing to the findings of Eagly et. al (1992).

Therefore, with the exception of three questions in affect and total loyalty, there were significant differences in the perceived LMX dimensions of contribution and professional respect between male respondents and female respondents. The implications for the finding

needs to be carefully understood as they may perpetuate the stereotype that female leaders deny female followers development and career progression. As much as the male scoring is favourable, the lower female scores create the imbalance of an overpowered mix and therefore the female leadership pipeline will be impacted.

Using input from Eagly et.al (1992) and from the study, it is clear that females leaders need to use the social cognitive frame and rethink their engagements on a same gender level, aligned to the self-impacted standards that might be projected towards female followers, and hence the negative experience when compared to that of male followers. The overall LMX ratings from female followers were lower than male followers, specifically within the affect dimension.

The overall findings correspond to Sniderman et al.'s (2016) validation that a higher LMX rating contribute to the trust within the dyad and specifically how communication of feedback is handled. A better LMX relation has a direct impact on followers trust and therefore explains the loyalty dimension not showing significant differences. The communication style can be linked to the female leaders' response to stereotype threat and therefore it might be perceived as a masculine trait, in which the follower does not conform to the gender role (discussed in section 2.1.2 role congruity theory).

The affect dimension looks at the social well being and emotion the female leader projects to the follower, however the affect questions related to the person and scored the lowest dimension. The open-ended questions revealed the stereotype that females are seen to be emotional in a negative view as some of the responses show, which contrary to belief, were mostly female followers' input.

"A female leader is bound to lead with emotion rather than excellence and sound business sense."

<div align="right">– Female (Indian and Generation X)</div>

"Emotional."

<div align="right">– Female (African and Generation X)</div>

"Females might be frowned upon due to inability to keep professional and personal feelings separate from the workplace."

<div align="right">– Female (Indian and Generation Y)</div>

"Emotional stability can lack."

<div align="right">– Male (White and Generation Y)</div>

Noted that these views were shared in the Generation X and Y cohorts, both of which admire competence. This is therefore aligned to Brescoll's (2016) view that emotional control is seen as a good leadership trait and therefore when females display emotion, it negatively impacts the perception that they are not level headed or competent. The separation of personal feelings from work related decisions was found as difficult for females to do, therefore contributing to the masculine agentic traits of what a good leader should be able to do (Shield, 2002 cited in Brescoll, 2016).

6.4   LMX and Race (Hypothesis 3)

The LMX dimensions of contribution, loyalty, affect and professional respect will be perceived differently between African, Asian, Coloured, Indian and White followers.

Only contribution and professional respect were found to be different between different racial groups. The findings are congruent with Booysen & Nkomo (2010) and Booysen's (2001) findings that previously disadvantaged groups put more emphasis on competence, due to their struggle to legitimise their roles, therefore aligning to the professional respect dimension. Evaluating Table 10 reveals conclusively that Indian and Coloureds were seen as disadvantaged, and with the Black population benefiting most from empowerment initiatives, the conclusions are understandable.

The lower scores from minority groups are explained by legitimacy and linking this to the intersectionality between race and genders will be discussed later. Therefore, it explained the between-group variances (table 10) of contribution and professional respect, where White and Black followers rated females higher than Indian and Coloured followers did. The

impacting factor is the race of the female leader assessed, which would magnify the difference in scoring between races.

There does not seem to be a difference between racial groups on the affect and loyalty dimensions, therefore the hypothesis was rejected. This corresponds with Booysen's (2001) findings that Black employees do not regard loyalty to the employer as a key concern, and therefore by implication might not perceive loyalty with the female (or any) leader as a priority. Affect speaks to the social context and affection for the female leader that Booysen (2001) highlighted black employees to be more collectivistic, compared to the individualistic approach of whites. Their work diversity interactions are negatively correlated, emphasizing Booysen's (2001) view that Whites scored highest on the affect dimension than any other race (Khan, 2010).

Contrary to Booysen and Nkomo's (2010) findings that Black and White men rank females lower on managerial skills, Black and White males ranked female leaders higher than other races and genders did.

The implication of the finding needs to draw attention to the female leader and her race, to determine how the followers perceive her legitimacy, as there seems to be a difference in female relationship with the follower based on both racial profiles and the interaction of it (Holvino, 2010; Vial et al., 2016). Therefore understanding social order and how it impacts observer perception of the norm (Heilman, 2000) will be indicative of how the female leader will need to self-regulate and educate herself about what different racial groups value. Whites value honesty above competence, which aligns to Lee's (2011) findings, and employees of colour value competence above all, which is linked to their legitimacy in society and the workplace, aligned to Kinnear and Ortlepp (2016).

6.5   Person- and Task-oriented skills and Generation (Hypothesis 4)

The perception of whether the female leader portrays more task- and person-oriented leadership skills will be different by the generation (baby boomer, generation X or generation Y) of the follower.

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Person-oriented skills

Generation X scored female leaders the highest on person-oriented skills, which could be attributed to their preference for independence and egalitarian relationships, and which favours more person-oriented skills (Arsenault, 2004; Chi et al., 2013). The findings of no significant difference between generations for person-oriented skills (communal) are consistent with Twenge (1997) and Strough et. Al's (2007) findings that feminine traits have not fundamentally changed between difference age groups.

There were no significant differences in the perception of person-oriented skills between generations. Therefore, Hypothesis $4_{X\ POS}$ was rejected.

Task-oriented skills

Baby Boomers scored female leaders highest on task-oriented skills, with the exception of persuasiveness that scored the lowest. It was expected that Generation X would rate task-oriented skills higher, considering their direct nature, that they admire competence and like to be in control (Arsenault, 2004; Chi et al., 2013). However, the impact of the female leader might have clouded the view for Generation X followers. On the contrary, Twenge (1997) and Strough et. al (2007) found the same results when comparing masculine traits (also defined in more task-oriented skills) between age groups, where masculine traits were more endorsed in females over time, starting with Baby Boomers. However, it must be noted that Baby Boomers endorse masculine traits more than age groups before and after them, therefore again linking the events of women's movements with the endorsement of masculine traits as part of social context implications.

Strough et.al (2007) found that Generation X and Generation Y endorsed masculine traits slightly less than Baby Boomers. The findings for this study conclude that Baby Boomers scored female leaders highest on masculine traits, which can be attributed to the above mentioned arguments, however Generation X was much lower, with Generation Y slightly less than Baby Boomers. These can also be explained by Generation Y's social exposure to a more diverse world and similarities found with Baby Boomers (Arsenault, 2004; Salahuddin, 2011)

There were no significant differences in the perception of task-oriented skills between generations. Therefore, Hypothesis $4_{X\,TOS}$ was rejected.

Although our findings indicate no significant differences in TOS, it might be emphasized that the Baby Boomer sample was only 7% of the survey sample and therefore the significance of Baby Boomers showing a higher endorsement for task-oriented traits is not as evident. The implication for the findings impacts on the female presence in the workplace, as Baby Boomers (acceptance of masculine traits) are entering the retirement age and therefore Generation X and Generation Y will have a fundamental impact on female advancement going forward.

The impact is relevant due to the acceptance of females in masculine roles and therefore how the acceptance is dealt with, considering the role congruity implication (Eagly & Karau, 2002) and how females would need to self-regulate (Bandura, 1991; Bussey & Bandura, 1999) in these environments to counter the stereotype threat if they do achieve success in masculine roles (Heilman, M. E., Wallen, A. S., Fuchs, D. & Tamkins, 2004). Therefore, if these masculine traits are not endorsed, it will lead to females being disliked, penalties in advancement, and the backlash that ensues (Okimoto & Brescoll, 2010; Rudman, 1998).

6.6   Person- and Task-oriented skills and Gender (Hypothesis 5)

The perception of whether the female leader demonstrates more task-oriented or person-oriented skills will be different for female versus male followers.

It was expected that there would be a significant difference between the perception of male and female followers of whether the female leader portrays more person- or task-oriented skills. The overall means for person-oriented skills were M= 3.945 and for task-oriented skills M=4.128. Therefore, there was a slight indication that the male and female respondents perceived female leaders to be more task-oriented than person-oriented which contradicts other research findings (Eagly & Heilman, 2016a; Koenig & Eagly, 2014; Sczesny, 2003). However, these findings were not statistically significant enough to prove a difference. The Eagly, Makhijani & Klonsky (1992) study found that females devalued female leaders more than males did, however it also found that males tend to have more to lose by supporting

female leaders due to their masculinity that might be impacted if this support is observed. The latter finding contradicts the study where males supported female leaders more than females.

There were no significant differences in the perception of person-oriented skills between genders. Therefore, Hypothesis $5_{X\,POS}$ was rejected.

There were no significant differences in the perception of task-oriented skills between genders. Therefore, Hypothesis $5_{X\,TOS}$ was rejected.

However, post-hoc tests confirmed that the intersection of gender and race for task-oriented skills was significantly different. Table 15 presented the findings of gender within race groups and found that African and Coloured females scored female leaders higher on task-oriented skills than Indian females did. African, Indian and White males scored their female leaders higher than Coloured males did, on task-oriented skills. These findings correspond to the validity of intersectionality and the relevance in gender studies found by (Hansbrough et al., 2015; Holvino, 2010; Otonkorpi-Lehtoranta et al., 2015)

Coloured male participants scored female leaders relatively lower than other races and genders did, and therefore was found significant. Understanding the justification of the results lends itself to Eagly and Carli's (2007) interpretation of what constitutes societal norms: the visibility and presence that form perceptions and validation within society. In the South African context it can be argued that of the previous disadvantaged groups, the Coloured community might still be disadvantaged post-apartheid. This may link to the legitimacy argument (Rudman, 1998), and might validate the acceptance of female leadership, however no founding research has validated the link. Therefore, with the limited studies on racial implications of the perceptions of female leadership compared between Coloureds, Indians and Blacks, it is clear that this element needs to be researched further.

The relevance of the female respondents' answers in the open-ended questions raised the implication of the descriptive and prescriptive norms that female leaders in masculine roles deal with (Heilman, 2001):

"Female leadership is on the rise but good female leadership is rare"

<div align="right">– Female (Coloured and Baby Boomer)</div>

"Unfortunately I have not had the experience of a strong female leader. I tend to think of female leaders as not being able to provide solid direction or support to their teams."

<div align="right">– Female (White and Generation Y)</div>

"I've worked for female leaders before, some very supportive, some like mothers, but mostly what comes out is COMPETITIVENESS. As a high-performer, some would be very supportive, but others were INTIMIDATED.   Personally, I prefer working for men. No nonsense - just do your job. No emotional stuff."

<div align="right">– Female (White and Generation X)</div>

"Female leaders need to stand together with mutual respect. We need more encouragement. Females can be more critical and can judge other females more harshly than usual."

<div align="right">– Female (Indian and Generation Y)</div>

The negative feelings from female followers contribute to female leaders being disliked, which may impact on their performance evaluations (Heilman, M. E., Wallen, A. S., Fuchs, D. & Tamkins, 2004; Schein, 1975), but to a larger extent, impact the perceptions of observers. Marchiondo et al. (2015) found this to be more detrimental in changing stereotypes for followers not working for women. Without knowing the history of interaction between the female leaders and followers or specific characteristics (race and experience), it might imply that the leader that may display the 'Queen Bee' related behaviour aligned to Derks et al. (2016) findings.

6.7   Person- and Task-oriented skills and Race (Hypothesis 6)

The perception of whether the female leader demonstrates more task-oriented or person-oriented skills will be different between African, Asian, Coloured, Indian and White followers.

Black and White followers ranked their female leaders highest of all race groups, which is contrary to the belief and findings of Booysen and Nkomo (2010) that Black and White men rate females lower than male leaders, with Black males doing so even more than the other races.

There were no significant differences in the perception of person-oriented skills between generations. Therefore, Hypothesis $6_{X\,POS}$ was rejected.

There were no significant differences in the perception of task-oriented skills between generations. Therefore, Hypothesis $6_{X\,TOS}$ was rejected.

However, post-hoc tests confirmed that the intersection of gender and race for task-oriented skills was significantly different. Table 16 looked at the between race group gender differences and Indian males and Coloured females scored their leaders higher than their gender counterparts on person-oriented skills. However, White and Indian males scored their leaders higher than females of the same race did, on task-oriented skills.

The significance of Indian males and White males scoring female leaders higher on person-oriented skills can be linked to the role congruity of females and therefore support that females are more person-oriented. However, without understanding the race of the female leader clear comparisons of race and gender are complicated.

Contrary to Booysen and Nkomo's (2010) findings that Black males prefer role differentiation, the study found that Black males rated female leaders higher on most items compared to other races, however they rated black females lower. Black females scored female leaders higher than other races on most items and therefore can be seen as a positive outlook for South Africa.

Booysen and Nkomo (2010) inferred that black women are activists for other females due to the leadership roles black women adopted in the apartheid struggle, and therefore theor role models during their developmental stages were strong black female leaders. The findings correspond to Eagly and Carli (2007) and Koenig and Eagly's((2014) findings that social role observations that publicise strong female leaders assist in creating activists and

changing mindsets of observers within their context. These findings concur with Chizema et al. (2015) that found more public figures of female leaders in social constructs led to more females recognised as leaders. The findings link to Marchiondo et al.'s (2015) point that observers' perception plays a big role in perpetuating or rejecting stereotypes that surround female leaders.

The implications of the findings are clear in the intersectionality between gender and race on the perception of female leadership. Therefore the call to action for organisations should be to introduce followers and female leaders (all leaders for that matter) to social diversity training on how to not merely address female leaders or different race leaders, but rather how to address a black female's perception, and that it is different to that of an Indian male. The acknowledgement of differences on race and gender level must be echoed in the organisational culture that persists to imitate the liberal White view, and therefore minority groups will always feel disengaged if they are not understood.

6.9   Conclusion of discussion

The research found the differences between generations, race and gender to be more entangled than anticipated.   There were no significant differences of females' relational (LMX) features or the perception of their preference to person- or task-oriented skills between generations. Bearing in mind that to Baby Boomers' formative years were around the same time as women's movements emerged, they seem to be more open to female leaders relational and traits. There were no significant differences between race and gender perceptions for the LMX dimensions or the person- and task-oriented skills. However, the significance is prevalent in the simultaneity of both gender and race. The intersectional impact of gender and race of perceptions of female leaders is fundamental. The intersectionality is critical for organisations to explore further and embed in their development courses for employees and management.

7 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 Introduction

Business leaders in South Africa today have inherited the deep-rooted legacy of apartheid that needs to be addressed on an organisational, team and individual level (Booysen, 2016). The imperative is for organisations to understand the racial, gender and generational intersection of the perceptions of female business leaders to be able to contribute to female advancement (Arifeen, 2013; Moolman, 2013). The study analysed whether there are differences in the perception of female leaders between the female followers' gender, race and generations for the leader-member exchange (LMX) dimensions associated to relational theory and person- or task-oriented skills.

Understanding the relationship the female leader has with followers determines the trust in the dyad and diminishes the normative stereotypes females need to endure (Sniderman et al., 2016). Marchiondo et. Al (2015) found that the power of follower validation of leadership competence is when it is observed, and therefore it is critical in addressing how female leaders are observed and interact with their followers. Furthermore, the research reviewed the prevalence of person- or task-oriented skills followers perceive the female to adopt more. Social cognitive theory is suggested as an enabler for female leaders to utilise to detract and overcome stereotype threat through self-regulative processes (Bandura, 1991)

7.2 Main findings of the research

Leader-member exchange
The research study concluded that a better and longer relationship between the leader and the follower will reduce stereotype threat (Eagly & Carli, 2007; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Schmid Mast, 2004) and enable the dyad to move beyond being merely transactional to being a more invested relationship. The study however did not measure the length of the relationship to validate the findings accordingly, which can be seen as an opportunity for future research.

There were no significant differences in the perceptions of the female leaders' LMX dimensions between generations, which is aligned to research questioning the premise that

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generational differences are valuable without understanding the individualistic and cognitive evaluations of the followers (Lyons & Kuron, 2013). Baby Boomers scored female leaders higher than the other two generations did, which can be attributed to the women's movement which was fundamental in their formative years and therefore they should be more receptive to female leaders (Strough et al., 2007). However, no significant differences were found.

Male followers scored female leaders higher on LMX dimensions of professional respect and contribution, than female followers did. The findings are conclusive to studies that have found female followers score female leaders lower on leadership rankings than male leaders (Eagly et al., 1992; Wolfram, Mohr, & Schyns, 2007). This can also be attributed to the Queen Bee phenomenon that Derks et. al (2016) found to be prevalent in female leaders. The impact on female leaders and female leaders pipeline (to become potential female leaders) might manifest in the notion that female leaders do not progressively drive younger females' careers and therefore should be observed and remedied. Another implication is that if the relationship between the leaders and their followers is not an effective dyad, it will manifest in an unengaged work environment and unproductive results.

The female leader has to assess the dyad strength and apply the social cognitive behaviour tools to self-regulate through self-monitoring when engaging with younger females (Bandura, 1991). Thereafter she needs to reassess the performance of the relationship and apply self-reaction methods to adjust. These methods are crucial in the female leader's life to overcome stereotype threats and to keep her psychological frame positive and adaptive to her environment she finds herself in. An evident finding from the open-ended questions is confirmation of the stereotype that females are more emotional and that this is directly linked to their perceived level of competence, which was also found by Brescoll (2016).

Among the different races, only contribution and professional respect were found to be significant. Contrary to other studies that have found Black males to score females lower than White males do (Booysen & Nkomo, 2010), the research found that Black males and White males tend to score female leaders higher than other races. These implications are significant for business as White males still dominate management roles in South Africa. Professional respect is profound when understood in the context of previously disadvantaged groups in South Africa, for it focuses on legitimacy of current social context and inherently manifests itself in business. It is crucial to understand the race of the female

leader to further analysis the intersectionality of the female leader's race with followers' race and gender implications.

The main finding of the LMX dimensions is the intersectionality when looking at the race and gender of the follower. These findings conclude that intersectionality is fundamental in unlocking the nuances around female leadership within business and society (Holvino, 2010). The socio-historical effects of apartheid are compounded by the intersection of female leaders, which furthermore emphasises the role congruity females are faced with. Organisations have to adopt training and development programs to assist not only female leaders, but all employees, and they need to engage on the topic of intersectional differences and embody a culture that acknowledges and addresses these differences. Female leaders should use the social cognitive methods to manage themseves and self-reaction to learn to deal with the people around them, as well as the environment they find themselves in.

Therefore, to conclude the LMX dimensions, there were no significant differences between generations, however there were differences found in contribution and professional respect dimensions between gender and race. Both of these dimensions can be explained by historic events within the South African context.

Person- and task-oriented skills

Females were found to be more egalitarian, interactive in their leadership styles and communal in nature (Arsenault, 2004; Eagly & Carli, 2007; Rosener, 2011), however contrary to most findings, this research found that followers of female leaders rated female leaders higher on task-oriented (agentic) skills than on person-oriented (communal) skills.

There were no significant differences in follower perceptions between generations for person- or task-oriented skills of the female leader. Baby Boomers tend to rate females higher than Generation X and Generation Y do, however this is validated through their presence during the emergence of key women's movements during developmental years.

Female and male followers scored female leaders slightly higher on task-oriented traits (agentic) than on person-oriented skills. The findings were not statistically significant, however the intersectionality of race and gender, especially in task-oriented skills, was

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significantly different, especially as Indian females and Coloured males tend to rate female leaders lowers than White males, Black males and other females do. The findings are ascribed to legitimacy validation of previous disadvantaged groups (Rudman, 1998) and the rationale of intersectionality (Holvino, 2010; Otonkorpi-Lehtoranta et al., 2015)

An interesting finding is that Black females scored female leaders higher than other females did, which supports Booysen and Nkomo's (2010) findings that Black women are activists for female leaders. They grew up in apartheid South Africa with strong Black females who fulfilled the roles of struggle leaders, which was fundamental in their formative years. The relevance can be drawn to understand that the environment and exposure people have in their developmental years have significance influence on their cognitive thinking and value attribution as adults. Eagly and Carli (2007) explained that the societal norm perpetuates the female representation problem even more in the social context as it prescribes the cognitive thinking of what is seen as the norm. This is why a limited number of females and even more, so females of colour, are perceived to be competent to occupy a leadership role.

The findings of intersectionality of race and gender are significant and therefore require organisations to address and facilitate action to address this through training and development courses for female leaders to learn to apply self-regulative (social cognitive theory) methods to overcome stereotype backlash and adjust their behaviour to the type of individuals and environments they find themselves in. Organisations also need to facilitate safe spaces within the workplace for discourse on the topic and for employees to be given the opportunity to do diversity and inclusivity training, addressing the intersectionality of race and gender differences. These recommendations will assist not only the female leaders, but also their followers, to be more open to work on the dyad with the female leaders and for the follower to understand how intersectionality impact relationships on peer level as well.

Therefore, leader-member exchange is seen as a fundamental tool to use and build more individualistic relationships with followers that would diminish stereotype threat over time for the female leader. Social cognitive behaviour methods as self-regulative tools are enablers for females to use within their dyads or with peers, where they can leverage on methods to do introspection of their individual relationships and environments and adjust their behaviour accordingly.

7.3   Recommendations to Stakeholders

Female leadership and development program

The research has revealed that females need to be conscious of stereotypical thinking in their teams and in their peer groups. These implications are not only impacting females' cognitive thinking and psychological frame, but also how their observers perceive their competence, which will perpetuate the cycle of female stereotypes if not addressed.

The female leadership and development training should be aimed at upskilling female leaders in the social cognitive behaviour tools of self-regulation. The tools will enable them to self-monitor, measure themselves and self-react to adjust their behaviour and thinking aligned to the person they are dealing with, and/or the environment. Once females apply these tools it should mitigate some of the legitimacy uncertainties that hold women back.

The research also aimed to give female leaders and organisations a view of the importance of applying LMX principles to enhance individual and team performance of the dyad, which will translate into moving beyond a transactional relationship to a dynamic and productive dyad. Through LMX principles, females can overcome stereotypical behaviour from their followers and gradually adjust what is observed of female leaders.

Design diversity program

The criticality of the intersection effect of race and gender on female progression is significant and needs to be acknowledged and address by companies. The simultaneity of both gender and race and how it manifests and influences the perceptions of female leaders is crucial for the advancement of the topic. Further research is needed to better understand how gender, race and class in the social context in South Africa affect the perception of females. For the organisation, beyond female studies, it becomes crucial to understand the intersection between race and gender to address organisational cultures and understand the root of underlying tensions and how to address these. Ideally all employees should be able to attend diversity programs that will enhance their cultural knowledge of other races and genders to enable open dialogue and facilitate a platform to explore strength and address underlying misconceptions.

7.4   Limitations of the research

The data was collected within the given context and thus was faced with certain limitations. First, the generational, racial and gender perspectives of female leaders within this study cannot be generalised to all members within the specified generational, racial and gender cohorts, and therefore the external validity might be impacted (Zikmund et al., 2010). The research was about female leaders in middle to senior management, therefore results cannot be generalised to the entire population of all female leaders at all levels.

The use of non-probability sampling indicates that the list of the population is not available and the sample will not represent the population statistically (Saunders & Lewis, 2012).

The validity of the data could be impacted due to the nature of judgemental and convenience sampling and the limitation of the sample size (Saunders & Lewis, 2012; Zikmund et al., 2010).

Due to the nature of questionnaires, the relevance of response bias, specifically the unwillingness to participate due to possible fear of consequence from their female leaders or non-response bias for the same reason, could have impacted the results and therefore is seen as a possible limitation (Malhotra & Briks, 2007).

A contributing factor to the low (59%) response rate could be the questionnaire length. The response rate was calculated taking the final number of submitted responses divided by the number of potential respondents that the researcher sent the online link to. TypeForm has recorded 249 visits to the site, however only 116 questionnaires were completed.

The timing of the questionnaires may coincide with an incident that occurred between the leader and a respondent (follower) that may impact on the respondents' objective response to the leaders' competence. The validity is the degree of accuracy in representing the situation or research findings in the manner in which it is presented (Saunders & Lewis, 2012; Zikmund et al., 2010). Another limitation with regard to timing that impacted the response rate and willingness of companies to participate was the time of year (October to November) that the researcher conducted the questionnaires. This is known to be the

busiest time of year within the retail sector, and this therefore directly impacted followers' response rates.

Another limitation of the study could have been the time it took to complete the questionnaire. The average time to answer all the questions across all 115 completed questionnaires was 13 minutes. Although this might not seem to be long, considering the time of year (retail peak period), compounded by the interest in the topic or relationship to the female leader, time and timing might both be contributors to the low response rate.

The generational feedback questions were aimed at all three generational cohorts, however due to the distribution of responses, the data skewed towards Generations X and Y. The representation of Baby Boomers was severely lacking, and therefore the 7% responses from Baby Boomers cannot be seen as representing the Baby Boomers population. A possible contributing factor could be that Baby Boomers are less inclined to using technology and therefore might have been discouraged from participating in the questionnaire (Meister & Willyerd, 2010; Salkowitz, 2008).

Lastly, the research was aimed at the perceptions of the followers of the female leader and did not include the female leaders' perception of the LMX relationship for input. Therefore the result might be a one-sided view of the LMX principles of the dyadic relationship, which could be seen as a deficient component (Krasikova & LeBreton, 2012).

7.5   Suggestions for future research

When looking at the dyad of the female leader and follower it needs to be viewed from both sides, and it is imperative to look at the length of the individual relationship to ascertain the strength of the LMX relationship in relation to the time it took to develop. Ideally the race and gender of the female leader needs to be included to study the intersection impact of race and gender of both parties. The value-add will be how the leader's race impacts on the simultaneity found in the followers race and gender.

The researcher believes that the research should be focussed on functions identified to be more masculine, for example supply chain functions, to enable a view of female leadership in a heavily masculine environment.

Considering the intersectionality and implications on race and gender level, the researcher believes that using a seven point Likert scale would have offered greater insight and granularity in the individual differences between generations, race and gender.

Finally, further research is needed to unlock the race and gender simultaneity within organisations and society. The simultaneity impacts not merely perceptions, but behaviour, interactions and biases both race and genders unconsciously carry; however it may impact and inhibit progress to unlock the leverage that could be gained through not merely looking at feminism from the mainstream White liberal view, but rather the intersection of both race and gender.

7.6   Concluding Remarks and value contribution

The research adds to the body of knowledge of female studies in the South African context and highlights the necessity to review the impact of simultaneity of race and gender in the perception of female leadership in corporate South Africa.

The research highlighted how female leaders can leverage a strong relational means with their teams to overcome stereotypical behaviour and perceptions. The importance of using social cognitive methods to self-regulate will assist females to respond effectively and constructively to individuals and environments that negate constructive progress for female advancement through allowing stereotypical junctures to continue.

The research added to the field of knowledge to validate the perception of agentic (masculine) leadership or communal (feminine) traits in female leaders as becoming more androgynous and therefore enables transformational leaders to emerge without bias against their gender type.

The glass ceiling is still to be broken for female business leaders in South Africa. The necessity of the contribution of every female leader in business in South Africa is paramount in developing South Africa to its full potential. This study endeavoured to understand this world a bit better through a gender, race and generational lens. The urgency for business to acknowledge and act on the simultaneity of gender and race is paramount for female leadership progression and economic growth in South Africa.

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9 APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Questionnaire

Questionnaire

I am conducting research on female leadership and I am trying to find out more about how female leaders manage their teams. Specifically looking at the type of working relationships she has with the members/followers in her team.

The Questionnaire should not take longer than 15 minutes to complete.

The answers are anonymous, however the information provided will be used in a MBA thesis.
Participation in this questionnaire is voluntary and you may withdraw at any stage.

Please tick the correct box:

	F	M
1 Your Gender	☐	☐

	17-35	36-51	52-70
2 Your Age	☐	☐	☐

3 Your Race	African	Asian	Coloured	Indian	White	Other
	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

4 How long have you been with your current company? _____ (months & years)

5 How long have you been in your current role/job? _____ (months & years)

	Yes	No
6 I have worked or currently work for a female leader	☐	☐

Please tick the box that you feel most represents what you feel

	Contribution:					
7	I am willing to take extra responsibility for tasks that are not part of my job description, to help my team	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
8	I am willing to take extra responsibility for tasks that are not part of my job description, to help my manager	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
9	My manager gives me the right amount of direction needed when assigning tasks	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
10	I believe the work my manager assigns is meaningfuland adds value to the team and/or company	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
11	I receive adequate support and resources from my manager to achieve my work targets	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
12	I receive adequate support and resources from my manager when she/he gives me tasks outside of my job description	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

	Loyalty					
13	My manager will defend/stand up for me in public forums	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
14	My manager will defend/stand up for me in public forums regardless if I am right or wrong	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
15	If I have made a mistake in a public forum, my manager will correct me in private and give me coaching to address the issue	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
16	My manager is consistent in how she handles situations affecting our working relationship	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

	Affect					
17	I relate to my manager as a person and can see a potential friendship beyond our working relationship	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
18	I believe my manager wants the best for me as a person	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
19	My manager is interested in my personal well being	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
20	My manager provides private and public recognition for good work that I have delivered	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

	Professional Respect					
21	My manager has a good professional reputation inside the organisation for excelling in her line of work	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
22	I respect my manager for the professional work she delivers	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
23	I respect my manager for the person she is (non work related)	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
24	My manager respects me for the professional work I deliver	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
25	My manager respects me for the person I am	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

10 **Leadership Characteristics**

Please tick the box that you feel most represents the trait/characteristic you associate with your female leader

26	Ability to make good judgments	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
27	Ability to cooperate	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
28	Creativity	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
29	Ability to deal with conflicts	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
30	Sense of responsibility	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
31	Ability to motivate others	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
32	Empathy	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
33	Communicative manner	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
34	Consideration	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
35	Ability to admit one's owns errors	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
36	Flexibility	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
37	Intuition	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
38	Ability to work in teams	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
39	Trustworthiness	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
40	Openness	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
41	Balance	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
42	Modesty	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
43	Tolerance	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

Please tick the box that you feel most represents the trait/characteristic you associate
with your female leader

44	Determination	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
45	Authority	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
46	Negotiation skills	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
47	Ambition	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
48	Self-initiative	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
49	Ability to delegate	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
50	Ability to organise	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
51	Innovative thinking	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
52	Objectivity	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
53	Persuasiveness	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
54	Successful self-presentation	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
55	Self-discipline	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
56	Readiness to take risks	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
57	Ability to cope with stress	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
58	Diligence	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
59	Competitiveness	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
60	Self-confidence	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
61	Striving for power	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
62	Self-assertiveness	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
63	Career orientation	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

Relational

64 When you think of female leadership, what does it mean to you and what comes to mind?

_____
_____
_____

65 Are there are any other insights that have not been covered which you think pertinent to this topic?

_____
_____
_____
_____

Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire.
Have a good day

Appendix 2: Company consent

Dear *xxx*   October 2016

<u>Re: Request for permission to conduct research using company employee input</u>

My name is Marnika Joubert, and I am a MBA student at the Gordon Institute of Business Science (GIBS), which is part of the University of Pretoria. I am conducting research into the gender, race and generational perspectives of how female leaders are perceived within the workplace. The research I wish to conduct for my thesis involves sending electronic questionnaires to the team members of a female leader. This project will be conducted under the supervision of Shireen Chengadu (GIBS, South Africa).

I am hereby seeking your consent to send a questionnaire to the team members of female leaders. We would like to send the questionnaires out beginning of October to be finalised and completed by the end of October.

I have provided you with a copy of the consent forms (Appendix A) and the questionnaire (Appendix B) to be used in the research process, as well as a copy of the approval letter which I received from the GIBS Research Ethics Committee (Appendix C).

The employee's participation is voluntary and they can withdraw at any time without penalty. All data will be kept confidential and any quotations used will be anonymised.
If you have any concerns, please contact my supervisor or I. Our details are provided below:

Marnika Joubert   Shireen Chengadu
Marnika.joubert@gmail.com   chengadus@gibs.co.za

Company Authorised Person Name: _____

Signature: _____   Date: _____

Researcher's Name: _____

Signature: _____   Date: _____

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Appendix 3: Individual Consent Form

A GENERATIONAL PERSPECTIVE OF FEMALE LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS

Researcher: Marnika Joubert, MBA Student at the Gordon Institute of Business Science, University of Pretoria

I am conducting research into the generational perspectives of how female leaders are perceived within the workplace and how their leadership styles are perceived between generations.

The questionnaire is expected to take about 14 minutes, and the information and insights gained through the questionnaire will hopefully help me to better understand the concept of female leadership through a generational lens and will help to determine which leadership styles are perceived to be more relevant to female leaders within an organization.

Your participation is voluntary and you can withdraw at any time without penalty. All data will be kept confidential and any quotations used will be anonymised.

If you have any concerns, please contact my supervisor or I. Our details are provided below:

Marnika Joubert	Shireen Chengadu
Marnika.joubert@gmail.com	chengadus@gibs.co.za

Participant's Name: _____

Signature: _____   Date: _____

Researcher's Name: _____

Signature: _____   Date: _____

Appendix 4: Ethical clearance confirmation

Dear Marnika Joubert

Protocol Number: **Temp2016-02205**

Title: **Female leadership perceived by generations through LMX Theory**

Please be advised that your application for Ethical Clearance has been APPROVED.

You are therefore allowed to continue collecting your data.

We wish you everything of the best for the rest of the project.

Kind Regards,

Adele Bekker

APPENDIX 5: PERSON-ORIENTED SKILLS DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

The tables below give a detailed view of the mean and standard deviations for the dependent variable: person-oriented skills. Separate tables for gender, generation and race are provided. The means are provided with the standard deviation in brackets.

Table 17 - Gender view of the means and standard deviations for Person-oriented Skills scored by followers

Person-oriented skills	Female (N=67)	Male (N=48)	Total (N=115)
Ability to make good judgments	3.836 (0.863)	4.063 (0.885)	3.930 (0.876)
Ability to cooperate	3.955 (0.912)	4.229 (0.857)	4.070 (0.896)
Creativity	3.910 (0.981)	4.125 (0.937)	4.000 (0.964)
Ability to deal with conflicts	3.761 (1.074)	3.708 (1.071)	3.739 (1.069)
Sense of responsibility	4.284 (0.867)	4.313 (0.803)	4.296 (0.837)
Ability to motivate others	3.761 (1.060)	4.042 (1.031)	3.878 (1.053)
Empathy	3.851 (1.118)	4.146 (0.989)	3.974 (1.072)
Communicative manner	3.776 (1.012)	4.042 (0.874)	3.887 (0.962)
Consideration	3.791 (0.930)	4.083 (0.942)	3.913 (0.942)
Ability to admit one's own errors	3.806 (1.104)	4.000 (1.052)	3.887 (1.082)
Flexibility	3.955 (0.878)	4.083 (0.919)	4.009 (0.893)
Intuition	3.806 (0.857)	3.938 (0.932)	3.861 (0.887)
Ability to work in teams	4.060 (0.919)	4.333 (0.883)	4.174 (0.911)
Trustworthiness	4.164 (0.979)	4.313 (0.993)	4.226 (0.983)
Openness	3.851 (0.925)	3.958 (1.031)	3.896 (0.968)
Balance	3.716 (0.849)	3.917 (0.871)	3.800 (0.860)
Modesty	3.746 (0.804)	3.979 (0.863)	3.843 (0.833)
Tolerance	3.687 (0.874)	3.917 (0.942)	3.783 (0.906)

Table 18 - Generational view of the means and standard deviations for Person-oriented Skills scored by followers

Person-oriented skills	Baby Boomers (N=8)	Generation X (N=47)	Generation Y (N=60)	Total (N=115)
Ability to make good judgments	3.875 (0.835)	3.894 (0.961)	3.967 (0.823)	3.930 (0.876)
Ability to cooperate	4.000 (0.926)	3.936 (1.009)	4.183 (0.792)	4.070 (0.896)
Creativity	4.000 (0.926)	3.957 (0.955)	4.033 (0.991)	4.000 (0.964)
Ability to deal with conflicts	3.625 (0.916)	3.660 (1.128)	3.817 (1.049)	3.739 (1.069)
Sense of responsibility	4.375 (0.518)	4.191 (0.924)	4.367 (0.802)	4.296 (0.837)
Ability to motivate others	4.000 (0.926)	3.809 (1.191)	3.917 (0.962)	3.878 (1.053)
Empathy	3.750 (0.886)	3.872 (1.279)	4.083 (0.907)	3.974 (1.072)
Communicative manner	3.750 (0.886)	3.787 (1.062)	3.983 (0.892)	3.887 (0.962)
Consideration	3.625 (1.061)	3.851 (1.063)	4.000 (0.823)	3.913 (0.942)
Ability to admit one's own errors	3.625 (1.408)	3.872 (1.191)	3.933 (0.954)	3.887 (1.082)
Flexibility	3.875 (0.991)	3.936 (0.942)	4.083 (0.850)	4.009 (0.893)
Intuition	3.500 (0.756)	4.043 (0.932)	3.766 (0.851)	3.861 (0.887)
Ability to work in teams	4.250 (0.707)	4.021 (1.093)	4.283 (0.761)	4.174 (0.911)
Trustworthiness	3.750 (1.389)	4.128 (1.115)	4.367 (0.780)	4.226 (0.983)
Openness	3.750 (1.035)	3.766 (1.068)	4.017 (0.873)	3.896 (0.968)
Balance	3.750 (0.707)	3.723 (0.994)	3.867 (0.769)	3.800 (0.860)
Modesty	3.625 (0.916)	3.830 (0.940)	3.883 (0.739)	3.843 (0.833)
Tolerance	3.375 (0.916)	3.723 (1.117)	3.883 (0.691)	3.783 (0.906)

Table 19 - An overview of the means and standard deviations for Person-oriented Skills by race group

Person-oriented skills	African (N=33)	Asian (N=6)	Coloured (N=11)	Indian (N=27)	White (N=37)	Total (N=114)
Ability to make good judgments	3.939 (0.966)	3.833 (1.169)	3.545 (0.934)	3.852 (0.907)	4.081 (0.682)	3.930 (0.876)
Ability to cooperate	4.152 (0.972)	3.500 (1.049)	4.091 (0.701)	4.074 (0.958)	4.054 (0.815)	4.070 (0.896)
Creativity	4.121 (1.023)	3.833 (1.169)	3.909 (0.944)	3.926 (0.917)	3.973 (0.957)	4.000 (0.964)
Ability to deal with conflicts	3.606 (1.197)	3.667 (1.211)	3.727 (1.191)	3.556 (1.050)	3.973 (0.897)	3.739 (1.069)
Sense of responsibility	4.394 (0.966)	4.167 (0.408)	4.273 (0.647)	4.074 (0.781)	4.378 (0.861)	4.296 (0.837)
Ability to motivate others	3.848 (1.176)	3.833 (0.983)	3.636 (0.924)	3.815 (1.075)	4.000 (1.000)	3.878 (1.053)
Empathy	3.818 (1.211)	4.167 (0.753)	3.909 (0.701)	3.923 (1.207)	4.108 (0.994)	3.974 (1.072)
Communicative manner	3.939 (1.029)	3.500 (1.049)	3.545 (0.820)	3.963 (0.898)	3.919 (0.983)	3.887 (0.962)
Consideration	3.939 (0.933)	3.333 (1.211)	3.727 (0.647)	3.926 (1.035)	4.000 (0.913)	3.913 (0.942)
Ability to admit one's own errors	3.848 (1.202)	3.333 (1.506)	3.727 (0.905)	3.889 (1.013)	4.027 (1.013)	3.887 (1.082)
Flexibility	3.970 (1.015)	3.833 (0.753)	3.818 (0.874)	3.926 (1.035)	4.162 (0.688)	4.009 (0.893)
Intuition	3.878 (0.893)	4.000 (0.632)	3.364 (0.924)	3.778 (1.013)	4.000 (0.782)	3.861 (0.887)
Ability to work in teams	4.061 (1.059)	4.167 (0.753)	4.182 (0.603)	4.222 (0.974)	4.216 (0.854)	4.174 (0.911)
Trustworthiness	4.273 (1.039)	4.000 (1.549)	4.000 (0.894)	4.185 (0.962)	4.297 (0.909)	4.226 (0.983)
Openness	3.818 (1.044)	3.667 (1.211)	3.545 (0.688)	3.741 (1.130)	4.189 (0.739)	3.896 (0.968)
Balance	3.697 (0.918)	3.667 (0.816)	3.545 (0.688)	3.741 (0.903)	4.000 (0.816)	3.800 (0.860)
Modesty	3.848 (0.834)	3.500 (0.837)	3.273 (0.905)	3.852 (0.818)	4.027 (0.763)	3.843 (0.833)
Tolerance	3.758 (1.062)	3.333 (1.211)	3.636 (0.674)	3.963 (0.808)	3.757 (0.830)	3.783 (0.906)

1 race group (Other) was omitted from the statistics

APPENDIX 6: TASK-ORIENTED SKILLS DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

The tables below give a detailed view of the mean and standard deviations for the dependent variable: task-oriented skills. Separate tables for gender, generation and race are provided. The means are provided with the standard deviation in brackets.

Table 20 - Gender view of the means and standard deviations for Task-oriented Skills scored by followers

Task-oriented skills	Female (N=67)	Male (N=48)	Total (N=115)
Determination	4.478 (0.636)	4.438 (0.741)	4.461 (0.679)
Authority	4.194 (0.783)	4.104 (0.857)	4.157 (0.812)
Negotiation skills	4.030 (0.852)	4.104 (0.751)	4.061 (0.809)
Ambition	4.478 (0.612)	4.458 (0.824)	4.470 (0.705)
Self-initiative	4.254 (0.766)	4.333 (0.781)	4.287 (0.770)
Ability to delegate	4.209 (0.862)	4.271 (0.792)	4.235 (0.831)
Ability to organise	4.119 (0.769)	4.188 (1.065)	4.148 (0.901)
Innovative thinking	3.970 (0.904)	4.188 (0.982)	4.061 (0.939)
Objectivity	3.776 (1.056)	3.917 (1.028)	3.835 (1.042)
Persuasiveness	3.851 (0.857)	3.958 (0.944)	3.896 (0.892)
Successful self-presentation	4.119 (0.862)	4.271 (0.818)	4.183 (0.844)
Self-discipline	4.000 (0.921)	4.188 (0.982)	4.078 (0.947)
Readiness to take risks	3.955 (0.912)	3.875 (0.890)	3.922 (0.900)
Ability to cope with stress	3.985 (0.961)	3.813 (0.915)	3.913 (0.942)
Diligence	4.254 (0.766)	4.146 (0.945)	4.209 (0.843)
Competitiveness	4.179 (0.815)	4.271 (0.736)	4.217 (0.781)
Self-confidence	4.254 (0.746)	4.375 (0.703)	4.304 (0.728)
Striving for power	3.821 (0.952)	3.854 (0.967)	3.835 (0.954)
Self-assertiveness	4.119 (0.749)	4.188 (0.816)	4.148 (0.775)
Career orientation	4.164 (0.751)	4.125 (0.841)	4.148 (0.786)

Table 21 - Generational view of the means and standard deviations for Task-oriented Skills scored by followers

Task-oriented skills	Baby Boomers (N=8)	Generation X (N=47)	Generation Y (N=60)	Total (N=115)
Determination	4.500 (0.535)	4.404 (0.771)	4.500 (0.624)	4.461 (0.679)
Authority	4.000 (0.926)	4.170 (0.761)	4.167 (0.847)	4.157 (0.812)
Negotiation skills	4.125 (0.835)	3.979 (0.794)	4.117 (0.825)	4.061 (0.809)
Ambition	4.625 (0.518)	4.340 (0.815)	4.550 (0.622)	4.470 (0.705)
Self-initiative	4.500 (0.756)	4.234 (0.758)	4.300 (0.788)	4.287 (0.770)
Ability to delegate	4.250 (0.886)	4.213 (0.858)	4.250 (0.816)	4.235 (0.831)
Ability to organise	4.250 (0.886)	4.106 (0.840)	4.167 (0.960)	4.148 (0.901)
Innovative thinking	4.375 (0.916)	4.021 (0.989)	4.050 (0.910)	4.061 (0.939)
Objectivity	3.875 (0.991)	3.787 (1.160)	3.867 (0.965)	3.835 (1.042)
Persuasiveness	3.750 (0.886)	3.809 (0.924)	3.983 (0.873)	3.896 (0.892)
Successful self-presentation	4.125 (0.991)	4.149 (0.834)	4.217 (0.846)	4.183 (0.844)
Self-discipline	3.750 (1.165)	4.106 (1.026)	4.100 (0.858)	4.078 (0.947)
Readiness to take risks	4.000 (0.926)	3.936 (0.791)	3.900 (0.986)	3.922 (0.900)
Ability to cope with stress	3.750 (0.886)	3.745 (1.010)	4.067 (0.880)	3.913 (0.942)
Diligence	4.250 (0.886)	4.128 (0.924)	4.267 (0.778)	4.209 (0.843)
Competitiveness	4.375 (0.744)	4.191 (0.851)	4.217 (0.739)	4.217 (0.781)
Self-confidence	4.500 (0.756)	4.149 (0.807)	4.400 (0.643)	4.304 (0.728)
Striving for power	4.375 (0.744)	3.915 (0.996)	3.700 (0.926)	3.835 (0.954)
Self-assertiveness	4.500 (0.756)	4.021 (0.872)	4.200 (0.684)	4.148 (0.775)
Career orientation	3.875 (0.991)	4.149 (0.807)	4.184 (0.748)	4.148 (0.786)

Table 22 - An overview of the means and standard deviations for Task-oriented Skills by race group

Task-oriented skills	African (N=33)	Asian (N=6)	Coloured (N=11)	Indian (N=27)	White (N=37)	Total (N=114)
Determination	4.485 (0.834)	4.500 (0.548)	4.455 (0.688)	4.407 (0.636)	4.459 (0.605)	4.461 (0.679)
Authority	4.182 (0.846)	4.000 (1.095)	4.091 (0.944)	4.296 (0.724)	4.054 (0.780)	4.157 (0.812)
Negotiation skills	4.061 (0.788)	3.667 (1.211)	3.909 (0.831)	4.111 (0.847)	4.108 (0.737)	4.061 (0.809)
Ambition	4.546 (0.833)	4.000 (0.894)	4.364 (0.674)	4.407 (0.747)	4.541 (0.505)	4.470 (0.705)
Self-initiative	4.273 (0.801)	4.000 (0.632)	4.091 (1.136)	4.333 (0.679)	4.351 (0.716)	4.287 (0.770)
Ability to delegate	4.242 (0.936)	4.167 (0.753)	4.364 (0.674)	4.222 (0.934)	4.189 (0.739)	4.235 (0.831)
Ability to organise	4.121 (0.927)	4.000 (0.894)	3.636 (1.286)	4.259 (0.859)	4.243 (0.760)	4.148 (0.901)
Innovative thinking	4.152 (0.972)	3.833 (0.983)	4.000 (1.095)	4.000 (0.877)	4.054 (0.941)	4.061 (0.939)
Objectivity	4.061 (1.088)	4.000 (1.265)	3.636 (1.027)	3.815 (1.039)	3.649 (0.978)	3.835 (1.042)
Persuasiveness	4.091 (0.947)	3.833 (0.983)	3.545 (1.036)	3.851 (0.864)	3.838 (0.800)	3.896 (0.892)
Successful self-presentation	4.212 (0.857)	4.167 (0.983)	4.091 (0.831)	4.111 (0.892)	4.216 (0.821)	4.183 (0.844)
Self-discipline	4.212 (1.111)	3.833 (1.169)	3.727 (0.647)	3.962 (0.980)	4.162 (0.800)	4.078 (0.947)
Readiness to take risks	3.970 (0.810)	4.000 (0.894)	3.727 (1.191)	3.852 (0.949)	4.000 (0.882)	3.922 (0.900)
Ability to cope with stress	3.849 (1.034)	3.500 (1.049)	3.636 (1.120)	4.000 (0.832)	4.027 (0.866)	3.913 (0.942)
Diligence	4.182 (0.917)	4.000 (0.894)	3.909 (1.136)	4.259 (0.712)	4.297 (0.777)	4.209 (0.843)
Competitiveness	4.181 (0.846)	4.000 (0.632)	4.455 (0.820)	4.148 (0.818)	4.243 (0.723)	4.217 (0.781)
Self-confidence	4.394 (0.788)	4.000 (0.894)	4.273 (0.647)	4.185 (0.736)	4.351 (0.676)	4.304 (0.728)
Striving for power	4.030 (0.883)	3.833 (0.753)	3.818 (1.079)	3.926 (0.997)	3.622 (0.982)	3.835 (0.954)
Self-assertiveness	4.273 (0.839)	4.000 (0.894)	4.000 (0.894)	4.074 (0.781)	4.135 (0.673)	4.148 (0.775)
Career orientation	4.273 (0.911)	3.833 (0.753)	4.000 (0.632)	4.148 (0.818)	4.108 (0.699)	4.148 (0.786)

1 race group (Other) was omitted from the statistics