Gender and Leadership: an Approach to the Differences between Women and Men in Management

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Abstract: When a group of persons begins to interact, various differences between the members begin to appear. The pattern of relationships change according to the nature of the task and the most influential person became to be the leader. The aim of the present work is study whether men and women leader are fundamentally different or similar, reviewing the different relationships that exist when a group agrees a division of labour, roles, and responsibilities. It is also important to explore how the way of leadership influences the evolution of the whole group. Leaders must be chosen because of the characteristics that they possess. They should be seen as best suited to lead in particular situations and when negotiation and diplomacy are needed, interpersonal skills may outweigh the value of a dominant leader. In line with these, traditional feminine behaviour could be favoured in new business scenarios.

Keywords: gender, leadershisp, management

JEL codes: J71, J16,

1. Introduction

Leadership is the process of social influence in which one person can enlist the aid and support of others in the accomplishment of a common task. Obviously, identifying different social interactions and its influence in the entire group is critical to understanding how behaviours spread (Ballet al. 2013; Broverman et al. 1972; Eagly, 2009; Eagly and Wood 1999; Hyde, 2006, 2013; Preacher and Hayes 2008; Rudman, 1998; Schader et al., 2008; Schein, 1973; Wood and Eagly 2012).

When a group of persons comes together, for any reason, and begins to interact, various differences between the members begin to appear (in status, influence etc.) Moreover this pattern of relationships change according to the nature of the task and the most influential person for one purpose may not be so for another (Archer, 2004; Costa et al.2001; Eccles and Wigfield, 2002; Else-Quest, 2012; Hyde, 2013; Lammers et al., 2009; Reilly, 2012; Stewart and McDermott, 2004; Su et al. 2009). In this way, the purpose of this review is try to understand what conditions are favourable for the development of leadership and explore is there is a feminine one versus a masculine one.

The question is whether, a man or a woman acting as a leader, work in different or similar way. To answer it is necessary reviewing the different relationships that exist when a group agrees a division of labour, roles, and responsibilities and how the way of leadership influences in the evolution of the whole group. Evidently, gender stereotypes do not influence only the way in which women and men behave in the workplace; such stereotypes can also influence which leadership positions women and men accept and occupy during organizational evolution (Archer, 2004; Costa et al.2001; Eccles and Wigfield, 2002; Else-Quest, 2012; Hyde, 2013; Lammers et al., 2009; Reilly, 2012; Stewart and McDermott, 2004; Su et al. 2009).

2. Methodology: Reviewing different theories about the origin of gender differences and similarities

There are a lot of questions about of behavioural gender differences for this reason research on gender differences and similarities are important. Indeed, stereotypes about psychological gender differences abound, influencing people's behaviour, and it is important to evaluate whether they are accurate (Archer, 2004; Costa et al., 2001; Eccles and Wigfield, 2002; Else-Quest, 2012; Hyde, 2013; Lammers et al., 2009; Reilly, 2012; Stewart and McDermott, 2004; Su et al., 2009). Historically sexual stereotypes have excluded women from professional fields. However, the fact is that biologically, sexual dimorphism is only a phenotypic difference between males and females of the same species but, in humans, has long been a subject of much controversy, especially when extended beyond physical differences to mental ability and psychological conditions (Becker, et al., 2002; Carlson, 2013; Eagly et al., 1992; Galli et al., 2013; Greenberg et al., 2014; Hines, 2011; Hyde, 2013; Johnson et al., 2009; Lüders et al., 2002).

2.a. Psychobiology of difference

There are genders differences in the human neuroendocrine system or in physical health but, the question is how these differences affected the way are they behaviour (Becker, et al., 2002; Carlson, 2013; Eagly et al., 1992; Galli et al., 2013; Greenberg et al., 2014; Hines, 2011; Hyde, 2013; Johnson et al., 2009; Lüders et al., 2002). Such undisputed sexual dimorphism includes differentiation among gonads, muscle mass, o height. For example, females are taller (on average) than males in early adolescence, but males (on average) surpass them in height in later adolescence and adulthood. Females typically have more white blood cells and produce more antibodies at a faster rate than males. Hence they develop fewer infectious diseases and succumb for shorter periods (Becker, et al., 2002; Carlson, 2013; Eagly et al., 1992; Galli et al., 2013; Greenberg et al. 2014; Hines, 2011; Hyde, 2013; Johnson et al., 2009; Lüders et al., 2002). It is well-known that there are differences in their central nervous system because females (on average, again) have a higher percentage of gray matter (that includes regions of the brain involved in muscle control, sensory perception such as seeing and hearing, memory, emotions, speech or decision making) in comparison to males (Becker, et al., 2002; Carlson, 2013; Eagly et al., 1992; Galli et al., 2013; Greenberg et al., 2014; Hines, 2011; Hyde, 2013; Johnson et al., 2009; Lüders et al., 2002). However, males have larger brains on average than females and, in fact, when adjusted for total brain volume, the gray matter differences between sexes are small or nonexistent (Becker, et al., 2002; Carlson, 2013; Eagly et al., 1992; Galli et al., 2013; Greenberg et al., 2014; Hines, 2011; Hyde, 2013; Johnson et al., 2009; Lüders et al., 2002). These anatomic differences are in the origin of behavioural differences. In this way, several studies shown that depression and anxiety disorders are more common in women than men, but little is known about the neurobiological mechanisms that contribute to this disparity (Abramson et al., 1989; Hankin et al., 1998; Hyde, 2013 ; Hyde et al., 2008). On the other hand, has been found gender differences in visual characteristics, including facial appearance, are thought to play an important role in a variety of judgments and decisions. This fact has real occupational outcomes in many settings. Indeed, there is growing evidence suggesting that appearance influences hiring decisions and even election results (Hunt et al., 1999; Hyde, 2013; Woolley, 1914; Wincenciak et al., 2013). For example, attractive individuals are more likely to be hired, taller men earn more, and the facial appearance of candidates has been linked to real election outcomes. Judgements of facial trustworthiness can be influenced by this effect

especially to emotional expression and facial masculinity/femininity. (Hunt et al., 1999; Hyde, 2013; Woolley; 1914; Wincenciak et al., 2013). His/her appearance condition the election of a leader and, even more, his/her possibility of success. Leaders may be chosen because the characteristics they possess are seen as best suited to lead in particular situations. There are several data about how people choose a leader in different environments. For example, during a time of war, a dominant-appearing leader may inspire confidence and intimidate enemies while during peace-time, when negotiation and diplomacy are needed, interpersonal skills may outweigh the value of a dominant leader. In line with these ideas, masculine-faced leaders are favoured in war-time scenarios while feminine-faced leaders are favoured in peace-time scenarios (Eagly et al., 2003 ; Eisenback et al., 1999; Gaytan and Daily, 2013; Haslam et al., 2010; Hyde, 2013; Koenig et al., 2011; Reicher et al., 2005; Ryan et al., 2011; Ryan et al., 2007; Schmitt, 2005). From this it follows that within a group different characteristic for a male than for a female leader is identified.

2.b. Human Ethology and behavioural similarties

Because groups choose different leaders depending on the situations, it should try to determine whether these differences are "cultural", "social" or has a deeper origin: a "biological" one. In this way, Human Ethology (that is the scientific and objective study of behaviour under natural conditions) shown that females interacting with other females and multiple offspring in social groups. This fact could be very important to determinate if there is a female leadership style biologically designed. Moreover, evolutionary psychobiology has focused on how psychological gender differences are the product of evolutionary selection, based on an assumption that different behaviours are adaptive for males compared with females (Becker, et al., 2002; Carlson, 2013; Eagly et al., 1992; Galli et al., 2013; Greenberg et al., 2014; Hines, 2011; Hyde, 2013; Johnson et al., 2009; Lüders et al., 2002).

Originally proposed by Darwin (Hyde, 2013; Shields, 1975), sexual selection consists of two processes. One of them include the members of one gender (usually males) competing among themselves to gain mating privileges with members of the other gender (usually females). In the other hand the members of the other gender (usually females) have preferences for and exercise choice inmating with certain members of the first gender (usually males). The interesting idea for understanding the process of leadership is that this sexual selection could be invoked, for example, to explain gender differences in aggression (Hyde, 2013; Richardson and Hammock, 2007).

3. Results and interpretations: Deciding be a leader

In short, men and women have different patho-physiology and their behaviour is different too. Then, it is interesting determine how a person became a leader. Because there are less women as a leader than men it is necessary identify if women has more obstacles to exert leadership. One of these obstacles comes from psychological gender differences in self-efficacy (Else-Quest et al., 2012; Gibson and Lawrence, 2010; Hyde, 2013; Kling et al., 1999; Major, 1994; Oswald, 2008). It is another cognitive component, refers to a person's belief in her or his ability to accomplish a particular task. Self-efficacy may be important in explaining several gender effects because reinforces certain stereotypes. For example, although girls' math performance is equal to that of boys, generally there is a wider gender gap in math self-efficacy (Else-Quest et al., 2010; Hedges and Nowell, 1995; Hyde, 2013; Meece et al. 1982). This concept, obviously, is very dangerous when a woman want to start a career in business and economy because of its power in shaping people's decisions about whether to take on a challenging task.

Another way for exploring gender differences, in became a leader, is cognitive social learning theory formulated by Bussey and Bandura (1999). This theory holds that both

children's and adults' behaviour is shaped by reinforcements and punishments. People imitate or model others in their environment, particularly if the others are powerful. This fact could be the clue to become a leader. Women have fewer references just to follow as an example of female leadership (Costa et al., 2001; Durik et al., 2006; Carothers and Reis, 2013; Bussey and Bandura , 1999; Heilmanet et al., Wallen et al., 2004; Hyde, 2013; Jussim et al., 1996; Reicher et al., 2005).

There are also socio-cultural gender differences (Eagly et al., 2003; Eisenback et al., 1999; Gaytan and Daily, 2013; Haslam et al., 2010; Hyde, 2013; Koenig et al., 2011; Reicher et al., 2005; Ryan et al., 2011; Ryan et al., 2007; Schmitt, 2005). Society's division of labour by gender drives all other psychological gender differences because psychological gender differences result from individuals' accommodations or adaptations to the particular restrictions on or opportunities for their gender in their society. In this way gender similarities are expected in nations in which there is gender equality (Adams et al., 2009; Ashby et al., 2007; Bass et al. ,1996 ; Brown et al., 2011 ; Cuadrado et al., 2008 ; Duehr and Bono, 2006 ; Eagly and Carli, 2007; Haslam and Ryan , 2008; Hyde, 2013; Little and Roberts, 2012; Mano-Negrin and Sheaffer, 2004; Oswald, 2008; Rink et al., 2012; Rosette and Plunkett, 2010; Rudman and Glick, 2001). For this reason gender policies are needed to improve the chances of success of women in their careers.

3.a. Gender difference in leadership

Then when women became leaders they have their own abilities y their own inheritance that define their way of work However exit data on gender and the effectiveness of leaders that shown that there was no gender difference in leadership effectiveness but women may be more effective than men in certain situations that requires dialogue and negotiation (Adams et al., 2009; Ashby et al., 2007; Bass et al., 1996 ; Brown et al., 2011 ; Cuadrado et al., 2008 ; Duehr and Bono, 2006 ; Eagly and Carli, 2007; Haslam and Ryan , 2008; Hyde, 2013; Little and Roberts, 2012; Mano-Negrin and Sheaffer, 2004; Oswald, 2008; Rink et al. 2012; Rosette and Plunkett, 2010; Rudman and Glick, 2001).

A separate question is whether women and men differ in their leadership styles (Eagly et al. 2003 ; Eisenback et al., 1999; Gaytan and Daily, 2013; Haslam et al., 2010; Hyde, 2013; Koenig et al., 2011; Reicher et al., 2005; Ryan et al., 2011; Ryan et al., 2007; Schmitt, 2005). In general the attitude of a leader can be grouped into any of the following leadership styles:

1. Transformational: innovative leadership in which the leader serves as a positive role model based on gaining the trust of the followers.
2. Transactional: leadership by administering rewards for good behaviours and punishments or corrections for poor performance.
3. Laissez-faire: the leader is neglectful and uninvolved.

Several studies shown that for transactional leadership, women have a slight edge in reward-based approaches, whereas men are more inclined to wait until problems crop up and then address them. Men are also somewhat more likely to engage in laissez-faire leadership (Eagly et al., 2003 ; Eisenback et al., 1999; Gaytan and Daily, 2013; Haslam et al., 2010; Hyde, 2013; Koenig et al., 2011; Reicher et al., 2005; Ryan et al., 2011; Ryan et al., 2007; Schmitt, 2005). In any case a good leader has to have personality, courage, and clear vision with ambition to succeed and encourages the team to perform to their optimum all the time and drives organisational success.

3.b. Be a leader: Having the ability to get people on board

In pursuit of achieving that which the leader has set out to do can if done right add to group social cohesion and coordinate group activities in the face of challenges (Becker et al., 2002; Carlson, 2013). Identifying social influence in networks is critical to understanding how

behaviours spread. To explore the gender differences in the capability of influence in other people, works made studying millions of social networks users (Aral and Walker, 2012) showed that men are more influential than women and women influence men more than they influence other women. Findings showed that this differences start in childhood. Social network cores consisted mainly of friends. Girl's social networks were more likely to be composed of friends and boys' networks contained friends and non-friends. Girls had more friends outside of the social network than boys. Stability of social network membership and internal network relations were higher for boys than girls (Baines and Blatchford, 2009).

3.c. Gender-stereotypic notions of leadership and its influence perceptions of women's and men's suitability for leadership positions

Now it is interesting see how women and men act in a specific situation. Given that social and financial resources facilitate effective leadership, it is likely that women and men consider these resources when evaluating glass-cliff positions, but they may do so in different ways. In this way, without social resources, women may feel unable to fulfill communal leadership roles. By contrast, in the absence of financial resources, men may feel unable to fulfill leadership roles (Costa et al., 2001; Durik et al., 2006; Carothers and Reis, 2013; Bussey and Bandura , 1999; Heilmanet al., Wallen et al., 2004; Hyde, 2013; Jussim et al., 1996; Reicher et al., 2005). For example, several researcher, opine that the recent financial crisis sparked debate about what is needed from organizational leaders. Some have argued that the crisis in part resulted from aggressive, risk-taking behaviours. Accordingly, a call has been made for leaders who are understanding, cooperative, and focused on long-term sustainability. This alternative leadership style moves away from the masculine norms of the "old boys' club" and instead embraces a more stereotypically feminine approach (Adams et al., 2009; Ashby et al., 2007; Bass et al., 1996 ; Brown et al., 2011 ; Cuadrado et al., 2008 ; Duehr and Bono, 2006 ; Eagly and Carli, 2007; Haslam and Ryan, 2008; Hyde, 2013; Little and Roberts, 2012; Mano-Negrin and Sheaffer, 2004; Oswald, 2008; Rink et al., 2012; Rosette and Plunkett, 2010; Rudman and Glick, 2001). Evidently, gender stereotypes do not influence only the way in which women and men behave in the workplace; such stereotypes can also influence which leadership positions women and men accept and occupy during organizational crises.

4. Concluding remarks: How confer advantage to top women leaders

It was found that, regardless of sex, the leaders were considered more competent and efficient, and were evaluated more favourably, when they adopted stereotypically feminine leadership styles. Implications of these findings for women's under representation as leaders in management top positions worldwide are discussed. Gender stereotypes have several biological bases. Women and men are different, but difference must not be and disadvantage and accepted this fact society in general, and in business management in particular confer to top women leaders will have the position they deserve.

5. References

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