



**TYPES OF DELEGATION AND LEADERSHIP PERCEPTIONS:
THE IMPACT OF GENDER AND COUNTRY CULTURE**

By

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DEDICATION

To

My parents, Choo Leong and Winnie, for their unconditional love and support,

and

my husband, Teck Fook, for always being there for me.

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ABSTRAK

Bolehkah para pengurus dianggap sebagai pemimpin-pemimpin yang baik melalui budaya "empowerment" dalam organisasi multinasional? Soalan ini menjadi fokus penyelidikan ini. Tujuan penyelidikan empirik ini adalah untuk mengkaji kesan tiga jenis gaya delegasi: delegasi nasihat, delegasi informasi, and delegasi ekstrim, terhadap persepsi kepimpinan. Kajian ini juga menyelidiki sama ada jantina pengurus dan budaya negara mempengaruhi perhubungan antara jenis delegasi dan persepsi kepimpinan. Dua ratus lapan belas kakitangan dari sebuah organisasi multinasional menyumbangkan data yang digunakan dalam kajian ini. Seratus lapan belas responden bekerja di cawangan organisasi di Pulau Pinang, Malaysia, manakala seratus responden bekerja di cawangan organisasi di Amerika Syarikat.

Eksperimen "field" ini menggunakan 3 (jenis delegasi: nasihat; informasi; dan ekstrim) X 2 (jantina pengurus: lelaki; perempuan) X 2 (negara: Malaysia; Amerika Syarikat) pelan faktorial, dengan faktor pertama sebagai dalam-subjek dan faktor-faktor seterusnya sebagai antara-subjek. 3-faktor ANOVA bercampur ialah teknik statistik yang digunakan untuk menguji hipotesis. Daripada keputusan yang diperolehi, semua hipotesis utama disokong. Sebahagian daripada beberapa sub-hipotesis disokong, manakala satu sub-hipotesis ditolak. Pertama, didapati bahawa persepsi kepimpinan berubah mengikut jenis delegasi yang diterima oleh para pengikut. Delegasi informasi menghasilkan persepsi yang terbaik, diikuti dengan delegasi ekstrim dan delegasi nasihat. Seterusnya, jantina pengurus didapati mempunyai kesan pengaruh yang signifikan. Pengurus wanita menerima penilaian yang lebih baik untuk delegasi ekstrim dan delegasi nasihat, manakala pengurus lelaki menerima penilaian yang lebih baik untuk delegasi informasi. Akhir sekali, budaya negara didapati mempunyai pengaruh yang signifikan. Budaya Malaysia

menunjukkan penilaian yang lebih baik untuk delegasi nasihat, manakala budaya Amerika Syarikat menunjukkan penilaian yang lebih baik untuk delegasi ekstrim and delegasi informasi. Interaksi yang signifikan juga diperolehi untuk jenis delegasi, jantina pengurus, dan negara.

ABSTRACT

Can managers be perceived as good leaders through a culture of empowerment in multinational settings? This question forms the heart of this research. The purpose of this empirical research is to examine the effects of three types of delegation styles: advisory delegation, informational delegation, and extreme delegation, on leadership perceptions. It also explored if gender of manager and country culture moderate this relationship. Two hundred and eighteen employees from one multinational organization contributed to the data used in this study. One hundred and eighteen respondents were from the organization's site in Penang, Malaysia, while another one hundred respondents were from the organization's sites in the United States of America.

The present field experiment employed a 3 (delegation types: advisory; informational; and extreme) X 2 (manager gender: male; female) X 2 (country: Malaysia; USA) factorial design, with the first factor as within-subjects and the last two as between-subjects. Consequently, a 3-factor mixed *ANOVA* was used for hypotheses testing. From the results, all the main hypotheses were supported. Some sub-hypotheses were partially supported, while one sub-hypothesis was not supported. Firstly, it was found that leadership perceptions varied as a function of type of delegation received by subordinates. Informational delegation produced the most favorable leadership perception ratings, followed by extreme delegation and advisory delegation. Secondly, gender of manager was found to have a significant moderating effect. Female managers received higher ratings in extreme delegation and advisory delegation, while male managers received higher ratings in informational delegation. Thirdly, country culture was found to have a significant moderating effect. Malaysian

culture produced higher ratings for advisory delegation, while the United States of America produced higher ratings for extreme delegation and informational delegation. Significant interactions were also found among types of delegation, manager gender, and country.

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

This chapter consists of six sections. The first three sections introduce the general subject-matter to the reader, discuss the problems seen in this area of research, and define the key terms used in the research. The following sections state the objectives and significance of the study, ending with a roadmap to the organization of remaining chapters.

The understanding of leadership has been of strong interest in the quest for knowledge for a long time. However, scientific research on leadership did not begin until the twentieth century and the focus of most research has been on the determinants of effective leadership (Bass, 1990).

The twenty-first century brings about new challenges and issues in leadership. Among the key trends of the new century are increasing globalization, new technologies, changing composition, and values and needs of the workforce. Some of the substantive leadership issues for the twenty-first century raised by Bass (1990) are leadership styles, criteria of effective leadership, multinationalism, and workforce diversity. While some of these issues have been prevailing from the past, they are and will still figure significantly or even more significantly in the present and the future.

In the past few decades, a growing number of leadership literature has advocated empowerment as a source of motivation and higher performance. Followers are empowered when their managers or higher authority increase their autonomy, discretionary opportunities, help them obtain the resources to reach higher goals, and give support for their efforts (Bass, 1990). No longer are employees

content with following and executing orders from management. People want to be involved and want personal freedom to make contributions toward their work. This reflects the changing values and needs of today's employees.

Much has been said about the benefits of empowerment. According to Howard (1997), empowerment motivates, enables workers to learn faster, and increases stress tolerance. Kouzes and Posner (1987, p. 10) stated that "enabling others to act", which involves giving power away to strengthen others, is a leadership practice common to successful leaders.

One of the most important aspects of empowerment is the participation of employees in decision-making. Participative leadership can take on many forms, but most theorists working in this area concede that there are four distinct decision-making styles: autocratic decision, consultation, joint decision, and delegation (Yukl, 1998). Out of these four styles, the present study focuses only on delegation.

Delegation occurs when the manager gives an individual the authority and responsibility for making a decision, where prior approval may or may not be required before the decision can be implemented (Yukl, 1998). According to Bass (1990), delegation remains a relatively unexplored management option despite evidence of important contribution to organization effectiveness, and deserves future research with more fine-tuning of delegation as a style of leadership. Several models of leadership and decision-making have included delegation as one point on a continuum of leader-subordinate processes (Leana, 1986). However, little empirical research has focused on delegation as a distinct management practice. According to Leana, anecdotal accounts and research that only indirectly address delegation within global models of leadership are thus far the main sources of information about this practice.

More interest in delegation began to show up about two decades ago. A research by Leana (1986) attempted to address the lack of empirical literature on delegation by examining the predictors and consequences of delegation. She found that supervisors' perceptions of subordinates, the volume of supervisors' workloads, and the importance of decisions were significant predictors of delegation. In addition, subordinates' goals moderated the effects of delegation on subordinates' job performance.

Schriesheim and Neider (1988) conceived three forms of delegation: Advisory Delegation, Informational Delegation, and Extreme Delegation. In an advisory delegation scenario, the subordinate makes the decision after first getting a recommendation from the leader. In an informational delegation scenario, the subordinate makes the decision after first getting needed information from the leader. In an extreme delegation scenario, the subordinate makes the decision without any input from the leader. Schriesheim, Neider, and Scandura (1998) further expanded their study on delegation by examining leader-member exchange (LMX) as correlates of delegation and as moderators of the relationships between delegation, subordinate performance, and satisfaction.

In addition, there is the question of how subordinates perceive managers who delegate. Studies on preferences for idealized styles of supervision or leadership style abound, but hardly any focused on a direct link to delegation. Thus, the leadership perception of subordinates toward the practice of delegation is still unclear. There is a need to conceptualize delegation as a process and to research what makes it effective or ineffective.

Culture is an important element in this study. In a classic study of culture, Hofstede (1980) identified four dimensions on which various cultures in countries

could be classified. They are Individualism/Collectivism, Power Distance, Uncertainty Avoidance, and Masculinity/Femininity. By 1993, he had added Long-term/Short-term Orientation as a fifth dimension. Individualism/collectivism describes the strength of the relation between an individual and other individuals in a society. Power distance is concerned with how a culture deals with hierarchical power relationships and the unequal distribution of power. Uncertainty avoidance describes how a culture deals with an unpredictable future. Masculinity/femininity describes the division of roles between the sexes within a society. Long-term/short-term orientation describes how a culture balances immediate benefits with future rewards (Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart, & Wright, 2000).

Many researchers have replicated Hofstede's work, with either success or failure. Some of them, such as Goodstein (1981), Hunt (1981), Robinson (1983), Triandis (1982), and Yeh (1998) suggested that the problems of validity and reliability lead to the conclusion that Hofstede's methodology should not be used without further modifications and qualifications. Yeh's (1998) study also suggested that some of Hofstede's cultural dimensions no longer reflect the cultural values of the countries studied. For example, Malaysia may score differently on one of the cultural dimensions in 2000 compared to 1980. This is perfectly understandable, as cultural values may change over time as one of the effects of globalization. Nevertheless, there is overwhelming evidence from various cross-cultural studies (Alpander, 1991; Gill, 1998; Offerman, 1997; Randolph & Sashkin, 2002) that cultural differences still persist from country to country. Therefore, cultural constraints still apply to management theories. In this study, two of Hofstede's cultural dimensions, individualism/collectivism and power distance, will be used in two countries, Malaysia and the United States of America. We are aware of no research that has

specifically focused on a comparison of management practices between Malaysia and the United States of America, due to differences in culture.

Multinationalism and diversity are also key areas of this study. Evidence suggests that the most admired and successful companies in the world have not only created multinational corporations, but have created organizations with work forces and corporate cultures that reflect the characteristics of the global markets in which they operate (Noe et al., 2000). At the same time, more female workers and workers from diverse cultures are entering the work force. In the United States, labor force participation of women in all age groups is expected to increase, while the composition of the labor force by race will change due to shifts in the country's population (Noe et al., 2000).

Malaysia is a multiracial country, with major ethnic groups such as Malays, Chinese, and Indians making up the country's population. While these ethnic groups share some common beliefs, they have distinct cultural and religious heritages. Female workers make up a significant portion of Malaysia's workforce. As such, Malaysia's workforce is truly diverse. Recent foreign investments in Malaysia has purportedly influenced and modified traditional patterns of leadership and business management (Kennedy & Mansor, 2000).

With the influx of women into the workforce, there is a need to study women in leadership positions. Performance and effectiveness appraisals of female managers are mixed and inconclusive (Bass, 1990). While Bass noted that there might be a bias toward men in leadership positions, no significant differences were found in various studies. Therefore, there is still a lack of understanding if gender of managers affects the leadership perception of their subordinates.

The trend of multinationalism raises many questions on how managerial decision-making practices can be transferable from one country or culture to another. According to Offerman (1997), some multinational corporations are finding that an employee empowerment strategy that works in one country may not work in another. Offerman also stated that cultural views of what good leadership is may vary. She elaborated that by cultural tradition, some followers expect leader authoritarianism, and see attempts at empowerment as a dereliction of leader duty and responsibility, or a sign of weak leadership. Hofstede (1993) also affirmed that many researches on management done in the United States of America adopt an ethnocentric viewpoint. According to him, management, as the word is presently used, is an American invention, while in other parts of the world the entire concept of management may differ. This is a significant problem to multinational firms who strive to standardize corporate culture.

1.2 Problem Statement

The problems discussed in the previous section point to the lack of research on the effects of delegation and culture on leadership perceptions, and inconclusive findings on whether gender of managers affects the leadership perceptions of their subordinates. We are also unaware of any research that has specifically focused on a comparison of managers' delegation styles between Malaysia and the United States of America. As the trend of multinationalism increases, all these issues are relevant to how managerial practices can be transferable from one country or culture to another. Therefore, this study investigates the main effects of delegation and the moderating effects of manager gender and country culture, on leadership perceptions.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The aim of this study is to understand the effects of type of delegation on subordinates' perceptions of leadership, and if gender of manager and country culture moderate this relationship.

The context of this study will be limited to one multinational corporation and its branches in two countries: the United States of America and Malaysia. Country is a manipulated moderating variable, based on the premise that the national cultures in these two countries are significantly different from each other. Culture is defined as the set of important assumptions that members of a community share. These assumptions consist of beliefs about the world and how it works, and the ideals that are worth striving for (Noe et al., 2000). In measuring culture, two of Hofstede's cultural dimensions: individualism/collectivism and power distance, will be used.

Thus, the objectives of this study are stated as below:

1. To determine the impact of type of delegation on leadership perceptions.
2. To determine if gender of manager moderates the relationship between delegation and leadership perceptions.
3. To determine if country (United States of America versus Malaysia), moderates the relationship between delegation and leadership perceptions.

1.4 Research Questions

The objectives of this study lead to the following research questions:

1. Does managerial practice of different types of delegation styles cause variability in leadership perceptions of their subordinates in terms of leadership attributions, present performance, and anticipated effectiveness?

2. Which type of delegation style results in the most favorable leadership perceptions?
3. Do demographic characteristics such as gender of manager moderate the relationship between delegation and leadership perceptions? If gender is found to be a moderator, what is the effect?
4. Do differences in country culture moderate the relationship between delegation and leadership perceptions? If country is found to be a moderator, what is the effect?

1.5 Significance of the Study

The managerial implications of this study are obvious. By achieving the objectives of this study, managers will understand how using delegation as a leadership style can affect the leadership perception of their subordinates. How followers perceive a leader has important implications, because leaders who are judged positively gain more power and discretion in organizations. Armed with such knowledge, managers can use or adapt their delegation styles to be perceived as better leaders in the eyes of their subordinates.

Through this study, both female and male managers will also gain a better understanding of how gender can affect the relationship between their leadership style and leadership perception of their subordinates. This will help increase the existing body of knowledge on gender and leadership.

The understanding of how country culture moderates the relationship between delegation and leadership perceptions should be of particular interest to managers, Training and Human Resources practitioners of multinational firms. This is because the findings from this study can be applied to various areas such as management

training, implementing corporate culture, and even preparation for expatriate managers. As more and more American-based firms continue to invest in Malaysia, the understanding of cultural impact will aid in decision-making on implementing policies and managerial styles across cultures.

1.6 Definition of Key Terms

It is important that the key terms, or dimensions of variables that will be used in the study are introduced and clearly defined. This is to aid understanding of the objectives of this study. The different types of delegation are advisory delegation, informational delegation, and extreme delegation. The dimensions used to measure leadership perceptions are leadership attributions, present performance, and anticipated effectiveness. For country, cultural dimensions comprising individualism/collectivism and power distance serve as a manipulation check. The sources of these variables and their dimensions will be elaborated further in Chapter 2. Table 1.1 shows the key terms and their corresponding definitions.

1.7 Organization of Chapters

There are altogether five chapters written for this research paper. The remaining chapters of this volume are organized in the following manner. Chapter 2 reviews the literature of previous studies on delegation, leadership perceptions, gender, and culture in the management context. The theoretical framework and formulation of hypotheses will also be discussed in this same chapter. Chapter 3 explains the research methodology, sampling procedure, instruments of measurement, and the type of statistical analyses used to analyze the data. The output of the statistical analyses using SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) and results on tested hypotheses

are discussed in Chapter 4. Finally, Chapter 5 provides a discussion on the findings and reviews the implications of the study, limitations, and suggestions for future research.

Table 1.1: Definition of Key Terms

<u>Dimension</u>	<u>Definition</u>
Advisory Delegation	The subordinate makes the decision after first getting a recommendation from the leader
Informational Delegation	The subordinate makes the decision after first getting needed information from the leader
Extreme Delegation	The subordinate makes the decision without any input from the leader
Leadership Attributions	The extent that the manager is displaying ideal leadership qualities
Present Performance	How well the manager performs his or her job
Anticipated Effectiveness	How effective the manager will be
Individualism/Collectivism	The strength of relation between an individual and other individuals in the society
Power Distance	Concerns how a culture deals with hierarchical power relationships and unequal distributions of power

Chapter 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter is divided into seven sections and is designed to progressively discuss the essential literature for each construct that lays the foundation for this research. We will examine relevant literature in the area of leadership perceptions, delegation, gender, and culture. Following a review of the literature, gaps found in existing literature pertaining to this research are briefly identified and discussed. This is followed by a development of the theoretical framework. The literature review will also provide the rationale for hypotheses formulation, which is the last section of this chapter.

2.2 Leadership perceptions

Kouzes and Posner (1987) asserted that leadership is in the eye of the follower. Followers determine who is or should be recognized as a good leader. Implicit theories of leadership state that subordinates have expectations regarding leadership behavior, as do the leaders themselves (Bass, 1990). In addition, subordinates attach their own value-laden meanings to the actions of their superiors. This suggests that there may be many factors that may differentiate subordinates' leadership perceptions.

In earlier research, Stodgil, Shartle, Scott, Coons, and Jaynes (1956) found that when superiors were perceived to delegate freely, their subordinates not only rated themselves higher in responsibility and authority, but thought that they deserved a high degree of responsibility and authority.

Vecchio and Boatwright (2002) used situational leadership theory and gender-based role theory to derive predictions for how employee maturity and gender would respectively be associated with preferences for idealized styles of supervision. A survey of 1,137 employees across three organizations provided results that partially confirmed their predictions. Specifically, employees with higher levels of education and longer job tenure expressed less preference for leader structuring. Female employees, relative to male employees, had greater preference for leader considerateness. The results suggest that an understanding of employee expectations for leader behaviors is valuable in optimizing the level and nature of leader interaction with subordinates.

Engle and Lord (1997) examined the relation of cognitive factors, comprising implicit theories, self-schemas, and perceived similarity, to liking and LMX in a field setting. Results indicated that perceived similarity significantly predicted LMX quality, with liking mediating this relationship. Supervisor-subordinate match on implicit performance theories, the normativeness of both subordinates' and supervisor's self-schemas, and subordinates' negative affectivity also predicted liking and LMX ratings.

Ansari, Aafaqi, and Jayasingam (2000) examined the effects of entrepreneurial success, entrepreneur gender, and respondent gender on entrepreneurial leadership behavior. Results disclosed that the most successful entrepreneurs received significantly higher ratings on supportive-taskmaster and participative leadership behavior, but lower on autocratic behavior. Some significant interactions were also found. For example, male respondents rated the most successful entrepreneurs significantly higher on supportive-taskmaster and autocratic styles than female respondents. Female respondents rated female entrepreneurs significantly higher on

autocratic behavior, while the opposite was true for male respondents. Findings of entrepreneur gender effects could not be easily interpreted in this study due to uneven distribution of entrepreneur gender.

Cultural values have also been researched as a factor in preference of leadership styles. Saufi, Wafa, and Hamzah (2002) investigated the relationship between culture and subordinate's preference on the leadership style of their superiors. The results indicated that Malaysians preferred their managers to lead using the participating and delegating styles, while selling and telling were less preferred. A significant relationship between culture and preference for leadership styles was also found. In particular, a significant relationship was found between power distance and telling style and between uncertainty avoidance and participating leadership style. Their analysis also indicated that Malay and Indian managers preferred to be led by the participating style, but Chinese managers preferred the delegating style instead. This has implications that managerial styles may have to be adapted according to the subordinates' ethnicity.

Sulaiman, Arumugam, and Wafa (1999) also conducted a study on Malaysian managers with the objectives of determining if Malaysian managers preferred the leadership behavior of local bosses to that of expatriate bosses, and finding out which nationalities are most and least preferred by Malaysian managers. The results showed that Malaysian subordinate managers regarded expatriate managers as closer to the ideal than local managers. In comparing Japanese and European managers, the Japanese were preferred. In comparing American and European managers, the Americans were preferred. Malaysian subordinate managers did not show any significant differences in the preference between the American and Japanese styles. Another important finding was that nationality does not necessarily make superiors

more favorable, but leadership style does. Finally, the results indicated that gender and ethnicity played a part in the perception of superiors.

Studies that specifically examine the effect of delegation as a distinct managerial style on leadership perceptions could not be found. However, related studies were conducted by Ansari (1987) and Ansari and Shukla (1987). The first study examined the effects of leader persistence and leader behavior on leadership perceptions, while the second one examined the effects of group performance and leader behavior on leadership perception. Results from the first study suggested that participative leaders who experiment with strategies and nurturant-task leaders who stick to one strategy, receive favorable evaluations. However, regardless of being persistent or non-persistent, acting autocratically had a strong negative impact on evaluation ratings. Results from the second study indicated that ratings on leadership perceptions were significantly influenced by the interaction between group performance and leader behavior. Of the two independent variables examined, leader behavior had a stronger effect on leadership perception. In particular, participative and nurturant-task managers produced more favorable ratings in terms of leadership attributes, present performance, and anticipated performance.

The most relevant research to this study was a study of effects of leader style, leader sex, and subordinate personality on leader evaluations and future subordinate motivation by Cellar, Sidle, Goudy, and O'Brien (2001). Their study investigated if the personality of agreeableness interacted with leader gender and leader style (autocratic versus democratic) to affect subordinate reactions to the leader in terms of leader evaluation, future effort, and future interest. A three-way interaction was predicted, such that leaders will be penalized most for behavior that was inconsistent with gender roles by participants low in agreeableness. Results generally supported

the hypothesized three-way interaction for the effort and interest variables, but not for leader effectiveness. The notion that disagreeable participants would rate gender inconsistent behavior more harshly, was partially supported.

2.3 Delegation

There are many definitions of delegation, but all are along similar lines. In 1969, Whyte stated that delegation involves the level of hierarchy at which a given activity may be initiated, independent of clearance from above, with respect to that activity. That is, the activity has been delegated to someone when he or she characteristically initiates this activity with associates and subordinates without prior interaction with the superior.

According to Hicks (1972), delegation of authority refers to the process by which a supervisor gives the subordinates the authority to do his or her job. He opined that a manager may delegate to subordinates the right to do anything except managerial functions of creating, planning, organizing, motivating, communicating, and controlling.

Bass (1990) warned that delegation should not be confused with laissez-faire leadership or abdication, as a leader who delegates is still responsible for following up whether the delegation has been accepted and the requisite activities have been carried out. On the other hand, the delegation of decision-making implies that the decision-making is lowered to a hierarchical level that is closer to where the decisions will be implemented.

Later definitions on delegation had more focus on the decision-making aspect. Yukl (1998) defined delegation as occurring when the manager gives an individual or group the authority and responsibility for making a decision; the managers usually

specifies the limits within which the final choice must fall, and prior approval may or may not be required before the decision can be implemented.

It is important to understand where delegation stands in the conceptual distinctions of leadership. One thing that is clear is that on a continuum depicting manager-subordinate decision-making authority, delegation is on the opposite end of autocratic decision-making. Although delegation is sometimes treated as a variety of participative leadership, delegation differs from other decision-making processes like consultation and joint decision in two primary ways. First, it typically involves decision-making by an individual subordinate, rather than by peers, a group of subordinates, or a supervisor-subordinate dyad. Secondly, delegation stresses subordinates' autonomy in making decisions (Leana, 1986).

According to Yukl (1998), a number of different leadership theorists have proposed different taxonomies of decision-making procedures, and to date there has been no complete agreement about the optimal number of decision procedures or the best way to define them. However, most theorists would concede that there are four distinct decision procedures: autocratic decision; consultation, joint decision, and delegation. Bass (1990) noted that while consultation, joint decision, and delegation are distinctive and may have different antecedents and consequences, they are correlated empirically. Therefore, while factorial independence of each style is easier, maintaining conceptually distinct but correlated styles remains viable and useful.

Empowerment is yet another buzz word in the world of management today. Empowerment is about giving people the confidence, competence, freedom and resources to act on their own judgments (Ciulla, 1996). The practice of empowerment entails the delegation of decision-making responsibilities down the hierarchy, incorporating well-established principles of job redesign in terms of affording

employees more autonomy or control over their work (Wall, Cordery, & Clegg, 2002). Howard (1997) stated that the role of delegator is a prerequisite to empowering leadership and the platform from which other empowering roles are formed. As such, delegation can either be considered a precedent or a subset of empowerment.

Some researchers have attempted to determine relative degrees in delegation. According to Yukl (1998), there are varying degrees of delegation involving the aspects of the variety and magnitude of responsibilities, the amount of discretion or range of choice allowed in decision-making, the authority to take action and implement decisions without prior approval, the frequency and nature of reporting requirements, and the flow of information. A manager who practices total delegation widens the amount and scope of responsibilities for his or her subordinates, allows discretion in decision-making, gives authority to subordinates to take action without prior approval, requires minimal reporting from the subordinates, and gives performance information directly to subordinates.

A research by Schriesheim and Neider (1988) identified three forms of delegation: advisory delegation, informational delegation, and extreme delegation. In advisory delegation, the subordinate makes the decision after first getting a recommendation from the leader. In informational delegation, the subordinate makes the decision after first getting needed information from the leader. In extreme delegation, the subordinate makes the decision without any input from the leader.

Saccardi and Banai (1994) also came up with three types of delegation by task in a study of situational determinants of the delegation of authority among hospital senior executive officers. Supervisory tasks which were delegated more than 50 percent of the time were labeled as supervisory delegation, tasks delegated no more than 26 percent of the time were labeled as lateral delegation, and tasks which were

rarely delegated such as performance management, were labeled as bi-level delegation.

In a related paper, Wickesberg (2001) suggested that the amount of freedom in decision-making given to an individual and the executive level at which the decision is made, are two components that must be considered in any attempt to determine the relative amounts of delegation present in the performance of executive responsibilities. The degree of freedom may be categorized into final rights of decision, final rights of decision within broad policy limits, final rights of decision with action report to superior, and final rights of decision after consultation with or approval by the superior. The five executive levels are the board of directors, the president, the executive vice president, the divisional or subsidiary executive, and the plant or regional executive. These five levels are those that reveal most clearly the presence or absence of managerial decentralization.

Researchers have also attempted to find the antecedents and consequences of delegation. Much of the research directly or indirectly involving delegation has been descriptive or normative (Leana, 1986). The descriptive research has focused on the occurrence of delegation and suggested distinctions among managers, among subordinates, and task or situational constraints that might affect delegation. The normative research has focused on delegation's effectiveness in terms of subordinates' job performance and satisfaction (Leana, 1986).

According to Bass (1990), Stodgill and Shartle developed the RAD scale to measure organizational responsibility (R), authority (A), and delegation (D) in 1948. They found that a critical complaint of managers is that they are often delegated a great deal of responsibility without the associated authority. Satisfaction and productivity are likely to be greater when responsibility, authority, and delegation are

highly correlated. Further studies by Stodgill and other researchers yielded some interesting findings. Supervisors with more responsibility generate more responsibility among their subordinates, but not the downward flow of authority. When superiors delegate a great deal to their subordinates, the latter believe that they are overburdened with responsibilities, need to do more coordination tasks, and need more authority. Delegation by superiors results in delegation by their subordinates down to the lowest levels of supervision, more so in smaller organizations (Bass, 1990).

Leana (1986) researched the predictors and consequences of delegation through the study of supervisors and claims adjusters employed by a large insurance company. Delegation was operationally defined as the dollar level of authority exercised by adjusters to settle claims. The results indicated that supervisors' perceptions of subordinates, the volume of supervisor's workload, and the importance of decisions were significant predictors of delegation. When supervisors had favorable perceptions of their subordinates and had more workload, they will delegate more. Subordinates' job competence and congruence between supervisors' and subordinates' goals moderated the effects of delegation on subordinates' job performance. However, supervisors' personalities or predispositions to share authority and subordinates' satisfaction, were not found to be significantly related to delegation.

Saccardi and Banai (1994) conducted a field study to examine the relationship between hospital senior managers' delegation and task importance, trust in their subordinates, and perception of their subordinates' level of skills. Trust scores were uniformly high with little variations, and most of the tasks studied were delegated frequently or occasionally. Out of the independent variables, only managers' perception of their subordinates' level of skills was found to be significant and

positively correlated to delegation. As predicted, when managers' perception of their subordinates' skills are more favorable, they are more inclined towards delegating tasks.

Schriesheim et al. (1998) examined subordinate and supervisor leader-member exchange (LMX) as correlates of delegation and as moderators of relationships between delegation and subordinate performance and satisfaction. Raw score analyses of data on 106 dyads showed both to be significantly related to delegation and to have similar main and moderating effects for subordinate performance and satisfaction. Within-and-between-groups-analyses (WABA) largely supported the level of analysis predictions of the LMX approach. However, the findings indicated that most of the explored relationships were within groups in nature. Positive correlates were found for LMX and delegation, and delegation also showed positive main effects on subordinate performance and satisfaction.

Wall et al. (2002) suggested that the effectiveness of empowerment practices will be contingent on the degree of operational uncertainty that prevails. They hypothesized that where operational uncertainty is high, the implementation of practices characterized by high empowerment will promote the work performance, and the reverse is true for organizations with low operational uncertainty. The positive impact of implementation of high empowerment practices on performance will be explained by enhanced knowledge application, knowledge development, and proactive orientations among employees. This argument was supported by an analysis of common ideas emerging from five areas of inquiry, namely organizational theory, work design, total quality management, human factors, and human resource management.

Yukl (1998) cited various studies which suggest that delegation has positive effects on subordinate performance and organizational performance in terms of sales and profitability. He also suggested that other advantages of delegation include improvement of decision quality, greater subordinate commitment, and job enrichment. A descriptive study by Kouzes and Posner (1987) showed how providing autonomy and discretion in delegating tasks, led to greater performance, flexibility, and creativity in organizations.

Howard (1997) postulated that empowered employees have higher levels of motivation, increased learning, and higher stress tolerance. At the same time, empowering leaders are shown to have greater commitment to the organization, more job satisfaction, less role ambiguity, and less role overload. This increases the overall flexibility and performance of the organization.

Sometimes, subordinates have negative perceptions of management when their superiors fail to delegate. There are several reasons for lack of delegation. According to Webber, Morgan, and Brown (1985), managers often complain how overworked they are but will not delegate enough to lighten their burdens. An insecure manager may fear that his or her superior may be displeased with the results or that the subordinate may do a better job, thus threatening the manager's security. Some may fear the ambiguity of not being on top of everything. Dependency on subordinates may create excessive anxiety for some managers who are averse to risk (Webber et al., 1985).

"Bogus empowerment" is a term coined by Ciulla (1996) that is defined as an empowerment scheme that raises employee expectations about how much power and control they gain over their work, when nothing changes in reality. When this situation occurs and managers fail to deliver their promises, employees feel

disappointed and disenchanted with management. Ciulla stressed that adequate responsibility and control must come with power. Empowerment schemes that give employees responsibility without control are cruel and stressful. This largely supports earlier research that subordinates feel overburdened with delegated tasks when lacking the necessary authority. At the same time, Ciulla stated that leaders need to think about reapplying traditional values constructively behind empowerment, such as protecting individualism even in team settings.

On the other hand, some subordinates may voluntarily reject delegation. Webber et al. (1985) found that subordinates resist delegation because they want to avoid anxiety, dislike of their superiors, or simply do not want to be bothered. Others may resist because they lack self-confidence or ability, or because they are not ambitious enough to stand being criticized if things turn out badly. Finally, subordinates may not be offered sufficient incentive to accept more than the most narrow job task. If forced to do more, they might find it easier to ask the boss repeatedly for detailed instructions on each step, thus letting the superior conclude that delegating is not worth the effort.

2.4 Gender

According to Carli (1999), although women have made gains in the workplace, with more women working than in the past and women possessing approximately a third of all management positions; women continue to experience wage discrimination, be excluded from the most powerful executive positions, advance more slowly in their careers, and experience fewer benefits from obtaining education or work, are included in fewer networks, and exert less authority than men in similar positions.

A review of the literature suggests that female managers use different management techniques from male managers. According to Carli (1999), men tend to use more direct, competent, and aggressive leadership styles compared to women, because men have higher levels of expert and legitimate power, while women possess higher levels of referent power. At the same time, Carli stated that female leaders who do not exhibit exceptional ability will have their competence questioned by subordinates of both genders.

The same leadership style displayed by a female and male manager may have different effects on subordinate satisfaction with their supervision (Petty & Lee, 1975; Rosen & Jerdee, 1973). Jago and Vroom (1982) found that females who were perceived to be autocratic received negative evaluations, while autocratic males received positive evaluations.

This trend can be explained by role congruity theory toward female leaders, an area researched by Eagly and Karau (2002). The theory proposes that perceived incongruity between stereotypical female gender roles and leadership roles leads to perceiving women less favorably than men as leaders, and evaluating behavior that fulfills the prescriptions of a leader role less favorably when it is enacted by a woman. The consequences are less positive attitudes toward female leaders, and more difficulty for women to become leaders and to achieve success in leadership roles.

Performance appraisals of female managers are inconclusive. Bass (1990) commented that field studies conducted by Dobbins and Platz (1986), AT&T Assessment Center (Ritchie & Moses, 1983), and Schwartz and Waetjan (1976) concluded that subordinate ratings of female managers were not significantly different from their male counterparts. On the other hand, Petty and Lee (1975) found that the lack of consideration behavior by female managers is likely to result in subordinates'

dissatisfaction. In other studies, Patterson (1975) and Rice, Instone, and Adams (1984) found that female leaders received lower overall ratings than males on evaluations of performance and promotability. Various attitudinal polls across time such as the Gallup Poll and surveys conducted by the Harvard Business Review show that a preference for male bosses over female bosses was present for both sexes at all time points (Eagly & Karau, 2002).

The effectiveness ratings of female managers versus male managers are also mixed. Bass (1990) noted that Eskilson and Wiley (1976) found that female-led groups were more productive. This same conclusion was also reached by Smith (1986). On the other hand, a laboratory study conducted by Rice et al. (1984) found that groups with male leaders out-performed those with female leaders. Studies by Bartol (1978) and Larwood, Wood, and Inderlied (1978) showed no significant effect of sex of the leader on productivity and effectiveness. A meta-analysis of 96 studies comparing the effectiveness of male and female leaders showed that female leaders were less effective relative to the extent that leadership positions were male dominated, female leaders were less effective as the proportion of male subordinates increased and as the number of male rater increased, women were substantially less effective in traditionally masculine environments, women were modestly more effective than men in the domains of education and social service, and women fared well in middle management as opposed to line or supervisory positions (Eagly & Karau, 2002).

Explanations that have been offered for the inconsistent research findings in this area are variations in research settings and gender differences in leader power (Ragins, 1987). Ragins noted that an examination of various studies showed that laboratory settings are viewed as being more likely to produce gender effects than