The Importance of Situational Leadership in the Workforce: A Study Based on Gender, Place of Birth, and Generational Affiliation

Belal A. Kaifi

College of Business Administration, Trident University International, 5757 Plaza Drive, Suite.100, Cypress, CA 90630, USA. E-mail: belal.kaifi@trident.edu

Ahmad O. Noor

College of Pharmacy, Palm Beach, Nova Southeastern University, 11501 N. Military Trail, Palm Beach Gardens, FL 33410, USA. E-mail an447@nova.edu

Ngoc-Linh Nguyen

College of Pharmacy, Palm Beach, Nova Southeastern University, 11501 N. Military Trail, Palm Beach Gardens, FL 33410, USA. E-mail: michelle_nguyen2404@yahoo.com

Wajma Aslami

Managing Your Future Consulting Group, 969 Anne Marie Court, Manteca, CA 95337, USA. E-mail: waslami@aol.com

Nile M. Khanfar (Corresponding Author)

College of Pharmacy, Palm Beach, Nova Southeastern University, 11501 N. Military Trail, Palm Beach Gardens, FL 33410, USA.
Tel: +1-561-805-2242, Fax: +1-561-805-2170, E-mail:khanfar@nova.edu

*A*bstract: Situational leadership has become an important topic in many organizations and academic settings. This empirical research surveyed undergraduate students (N=200) majoring in Management with relevant work experience to learn more about their situational leadership propensities. A total of 100 male and 100 female students were surveyed. The results of this research suggest that males have higher situational leadership propensities when compared to their females counterparts, students born outside of the US have higher situational leadership propensities when compared to students who were born in the US, and millennials have higher situational leadership propensities when compared to their Gen X counterparts. Implications and recommendations are offered for practitioners and educators.

1. Introduction

Leadership has become one of the significant impacts on a broad spectrum of various social areas from political standpoints, business/economics to academy in the past decades. The topic has been studied intensively. The "leadership" term was originally adopted by the famous Greek philosopher, Plato around 427-347 B.C. He is well-known as one of the most influential-leadership thinker of all times (Takala, 1998). According to Plato's philosophy, a man who is able to conceive "management by lying" can be a potential leader. He would become a master in persuading the enemies and his people. In the ideal state, a leader carries himself with prudence, temperance, courage, and justice. Prudence is not referred to best ability of performing technical skills, instead a virtue state of ultimate purposes in overall. (p. 792)

Situational leadership model was originally developed by Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard (1969), even though the concept of leadership was mentioned way before B.C. by Plato and Socrates. As the name implies, situational leadership requires adapting to situations that arise because the "situational contingencies dictate your style for that moment" (Lumsden, & Wiethoff, 2010, p. 258). "Situational leadership stresses that leadership is composed of both a directive and supportive dimension, and each has to be applied appropriately in a given situation" (Northouse, 2004, p. 87). The directive dimension is similar to "task behaviors" and the supportive dimension is similar to "relationship behaviors". "Situational leadership stresses that leaders need to find out about their subordinates' needs and then adapt their style accordingly" (Northouse, 2004, p. 93). For example, if subordinates are lacking confidence, then the situational approach suggests that the leader should lead with a supporting style for optimum outcomes. "Although many theories of leadership are descriptive in nature, the situational approach is prescriptive. It tells you what you should and should not do in various contexts" (Northouse, 2004, p.93). The three core competencies of a situational leader are: diagnosing, flexibility, and partnering. "It seems, then, that flexibility in leadership style is a necessity if a high level of leadership effectiveness is desired and required by the situation" (Silverthorne & Wang, 2001, p. 400). An example of a situational leader is a football coach who is able to adapt to each game of the season by diagnosing the situation, being flexible, and partnering with his or her team.

2. Literature Review

A leader's position is usually associated with task performance at workplace by employees. Griffin & Parker (2010) findings suggest that leaders can motivate employees to be more proactive and adaptive with a clear, compelling and discrepant view of the future. The argument can be made of encouraging individuals with adaptivity would challenge them to practice proactivity. However, Hackman & Wageman (2005) also converged to Griffin and Parker (2010) in the context that leaders are most effective when they play an enabling role by setting a strong vision, compelling directions, and a supportive system among employees. There is a negative relationship between a strong vision leader and individuals with low self-role efficacy. Such individuals might experience less motivation and proactivity than those with higher self-efficacy having a lower leader vision (Griffin & Parker, 2010). These findings suggest that there might not be only one specific leadership style among individuals where each of them possesses a different level of efficacy and confidence in job conductivity.

Today the social roles of women have evolved from early centuries. According to the U.S. Department of Education (2010), the percentage of degrees earned by women in 2007–2008 exceeded those of men: women earned 57.3% of bachelor's degrees, 60.6% of master's degrees, and 51% of doctoral degrees. Women comprise 46.8% of the total labor cost in 2009 (US Department of

Labor Women's Bureau 2009). The percentage drastically increased to 58.1% within 2 years, according to U.S. Department of Labor Women's Bureau 2011. There's emerging hope for female leadership roles to become more prevalent. In the US, only 2.4% of Fortune 500 CEOs were women in 2011, and as of today's date, women hold up to 4.2% in Fortune 500 CEOs. Apple has doubled up number of females in senior management. Some examples of great female leaders are Indra Nooyi and Irene Rosenfeld.

Nooyi was ranked fourth in the world's topmost influential women by Forbes magazine. She joined PEPSICO in 1994, and is now a CEO of the company. She was an ambitious young lady whose parents raised her to believe "I could achieve anything I set my mind to". Her leadership values are vision, dedication, creativity, and assertiveness. The odds of climbing the corporate ladder were stacked against her because she was a minority immigrant woman. However, she was able to achieve substantial success by working twice as hard as male did.

Irene Rosenfeld is a great example of female leader. She holds a leadership position at Mondelez International Inc. Rosenfeld used to work for Kraft foods and returned to the company with a stunning initiative of new branch creation called Mondelez International Inc. in October 2012. The new operation is focused on international markets all over the world and boasts a wide array of products such as cookies, chocolate, gum, and candies (Forbes 2013). Rosenfeld values creativity, rational risk takers, mentoring, and creating relationship with others who may turn out to be one's potential mentor (Fox Business 2011). Rosenfeld's point of view about mentoring was supported by Manlove's (2004) study, in which the finding showed that mentoring others can lead a person to an effective leader.

Despite the fact that women are of higher education earnings compared to men in the U.S., England and colleagues found that highly educated status in women does not translate into higher hourly earnings compared to that in men. The female-to-male ratio of wages of cohabitating or married 25- to 54-year olds employed is lowest in higher education level (England & Gornick, 2012). Therefore, a relevant question on leadership performance is raised for the explanation of lower payment caused by gender gap. Most leadership roles still belong to men. Men have socially supported privilege advantages in their leadership role, while women are trying hard to accomplish "leadership" (Christman & McClellan, 2012).

Before assuming the natural course of men's supremacy, a person should analyze whether or not a leader is born or made. According to Gottesman and Hanson (2005), there is a "genetic-environment interaction" (p. 266). This interaction would be converted from environmental factors to molecularly genetic function via adaptation. The process is called "epigenesis". "Epigenesis" was first theorized by Waddington in 1957 such that all cells originally come from undifferential cells to highly differentiated stage. Cells with selectively best traits over time would be transmitted into future cells'. Gottesman and Hanson (2005) transduced "epigenesis" concept into human behavioral genetics in response to the environment. Similarly, according to Chatuvedi, Zyphur, Arvey, and Avolio (2012), self-reported perceptions on the leadership emergence resulted that charismatic traits accounted for approximately 40% of heritability estimate. Within that study, authors also found that there was no difference in heritability estimates in both women and men during child bearing and rearing ages. Generalizability of inheritance effects on leadership manner is relevant to both genders.

Social interactions and gender cognition gear opposite sexes towards selective behaviors over a life span. There was subgroup within the study on Sweden twins inheritably carrying great leadership characteristics, who were raised in different environments. According to Chaturvedi et al. (2012), heritability estimates of the twins reflected similarly genetic influences still carrying from uncommon environmental backgrounds with different leadership development chances. According to Van Emmerik, Wendt, and Euwema (2010), the most variance among leadership behaviors was predominately observed at individual levels, followed by organizational level, and lastly societal

level with percentage of 79, 11, and 10 respectively. This suggested that heterogeneity of management style only occurring was dependent on size of an organization. The higher hierarchical level one hold leadership positions, the more homogenous managerial model all leaders had in common.

The term "leadership" was introduced in 1969 by Hershey and his colleague Blanchard. It was defined as a potential capability of influencing an individual or a group of people. The author recommended that levels of maturity could have an impact on various management models. According to Hersey, Blanchard, and Natemeyer (1979), these leading styles consisted of four situations: telling, selling, participating, and delegating. However, precisely choosing a certain type of leadership by critically analyzing other counterparts is the key to a successful leader. For instance, dealing with employees in immature work performance, a sharp leader would like to apply telling style in this context. The nature of employees' accountability exhibits within each individual. One can be more self-oriented than the other. Along with leadership style, leaders may also desire to impress different types of power accordingly to worker's maturity. Employees whose boss requires being told and sold are more influenced by penalties. Penalties are usually expressed in "coercive power". On the other hand, Hersey et al. (1979) proposed that legitimate power is in use with employees whose maturity reaches middle level and above.

Roles of integrating gender in the leadership context remain to be understood. Analyzing the concept of leadership without considering gender and culture limits thorough analysis of the view of whole leadership theory. A study by Ayman and Korabik (2010) being exclusive to gender groups suggests a study to lack of internal validation, and may lead to improper generalizations. According to Singh, Nadim, and Ezzedeen (2012), several studies have shown that sex role stereotypes are not applicable to leadership. Both genders acquire similar behaviors to influence followers regardless of their sex. Unquestionably, males are still predominantly leaders in organization. Masculine dominance in the workplace and social feminine inferiority perceptions have created an invisible barrier for women to advance to senior levels of management. Perception of a higher authorization of male leaders was supported by both male and female subordinates from the surveys (Singh et al., 2012). However, this presumed gender bias may no longer hold true and should be in the period of reformation. Reconstructing perceptions of gender roles in leadership should be instilled in the early on once females enter an organization.

The leadership "masculine" or "feminine" model can be shared among male and female leaders irrespectively to sex and management style. Interestingly, according to Brandt and Laiho (2013), transformational relationship of male or female leaders is perceived by followers of either sex as "masculine" or "feminine" behavior. "Masculinity" is defined as initiation of structure, settling an organization, mapping accomplishing goals, and maintaining strong task orientation. The leader whose managerial approach is not intensively expressed at either two end-poles "masculine" or "femininity" is regarded as a non-transformational leader (Kark, Waismel-Manor, & Shamir, 2012). "Masculine" management style is considered assertive, directive, whereas the "feminine" approach is caring, sensitive. Both gender leaders may capture either these two characteristics. According to Van Emmerik et al. (2010), his results also support that male leaders chose the "feminine approach" in the existence of a higher number of female workers. Gender ratio from subordinates may necessarily impact a leader's managerial style. For instance, for male managers, there was a negative relationship between gender ratio and initiating structure model. In other words, Van Emmerik et al. (2010) explained that in a company in which there were more female followers occupied, male managers were less likely to engage authorizing, task-oriented leadership style; while female managers' leadership behaviors were not associated with the existing gender ratio.

Even though there are quite a number of women leaders with "masculine" management, because historically women have been treated as an inferior class, there are obviously more studies

focused on men's roles and leadership. Males tend to be more forceful, dominant, and in control of solving work problem. In contrast, women are believed to be more caring to others. A female who was a manager in a male-dominated company could still adjust to "masculine" leadership style, which was crucial in creating a support system from opposite sex workers (Snaebjornsson & Edvardsson, 2013). However, according to Van Emmerik et al. (2010), females shows statistically significant with management style based on considerations.

It must be taken into consideration if situational leadership theory would be still valid when applying to different ethnic groups. A great example was a study conducted in Taiwan done by Silverthorne (2000). Two sample groups (each group's sample size were greater than 50) were selected when either of them described their bosses as adaptive or traditional leader. The result showed that there was not age-based statistically significant among older vs. younger leader. According to Silverthorne, study suggested that traditional leaders were not naturally born within their race. However, older leaders' managerial style could be possibly adapted to different situations they encountered. In his conclusion, age was not a determining factor, in which leadership style was chosen. This study has brought light to a westernized organizational culture adapted by Asian leaders at time length (Silverthorne, 2000). Meanwhile, the traditional Chinese approach to management was telling, or selling styles according to Redding (1990). Studying the impact of culture on leadership is somewhat challenging since researchers have no clear focus of the study. According to Dickson, Castaño, Magomaeva, and Den Hartog (2012), "broad characteristic" such as encouraging could be universal across cultures, yet the expressing behavior to show encouragement evaluated by subordinates might be diversified among them. One of the largest studies conducted was led by a worldwide team known as Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE). The team was composed of more than 200 researchers with study members of 17,000 managers in over 62 societal cultures from 1994 to 2004. The study's basis was on the foundation of "culturally endorsed implicit leadership theory".

According to Dorfman, Javidan, Hanges, Dastmalchian, and House (2012), "cultural endorsed implicit leadership theory" was defined how societal and organizational culture would shape a person's leadership style within that society/culture. There were six dimensions of culturally endorsed implicit leadership theory listed as charismatic/value-based, team-oriented, self-protective, participative, human-oriented, and autonomous. Each individual culturally affects one's leadership quality. In Eastern culture, leadership was annotated as self-protective dimension, in which a leader chooses to hold face-saving, status consciousness values. Cultural values are predictors of leadership expectations. Understanding cross-cultural perspectives offers both leaders and subordinates insights to other's expectations; therefore, job performance may be at ease. Also, acknowledging culture gap helps reduce miscommunication, devaluation of employees, or underestimating of high-positioned figures originating from diverse sets of culture. GLOBE societies consisted of the following 10 groupings such as Anglo, Eastern Europe, Latin America, Latin Europe, Asia, Nordic Europe, Sub-Saharan Africa, Southern Asia, European Germany, and Middle East. Anglo group is more performance oriented but less "in group collectivism". On the other hand, Latin American cluster holds high "in group" activity but less heavily on intensive performances. According to Dorfman et al. (2012), countries in which leadership dimension is more autonomous are Russia, Egypt, Germany, and China accordingly to their high-to-low scores of autonomous measurement. However, GLOBE project limited its inclusion middle manager participants, but not exclusive top managers.

With acknowledged culture differences, how can women across different cultures integrate their traditionally feminine values to top leader positions? The study conducted by Hussain, Vadhana, and Zakkariya (2012) with a sample size of 43 successful women holding various powerful positions such as doctors, teachers, and managers found that majority of female leaders possesses androgyny management style such as assertiveness. Among female leaders, 75% of them

scored 60 points in leadership effectiveness. The study conducted by Hussain et al. (2012) found that there was a strong correlation leadership effectiveness and androgyny orientation. According to Hussain et al. (2012), women have been reaching to low or middle positions of managerial power by passion or by chance. However, in the process of climbing up higher leadership power, they tend to emerge different sex-role orientation from traditional femininity values.

In Manlove's (2004) literature reviews, there was cord values shared among different ethic women while specific traits were observed extensively in one race over another. Modeling was ranked at highest across women leaders of different colors. Types of leadership management consisted of challenging the process, inspiration of a shared vision, enabling others to act, being a role model, and being encouraging. Overall, African American in the study valued in all style leadership practices. All other ethnic groups except Hispanic scored highest for modeling practice. African American women scored least on encouraging module. College administrators in this study described their organizational culture broadly from "family", "purpose-driven" to "bureaucratic". A family environment is considered to be friendly, respectful to all regardless their positions at a high level of trust. The purpose-driven culture was described as focused task achievement. The last "bureaucratic" type emphasized being set in procedures, institutional policy enforcement, and hierarchy. Not surprisingly, an organizational culture is primarily shaped by a leader's style of management.

Networking is also important to advancing a career. However, women attempt to balance between organizational work duty and family responsibility therefore have little less time left for networking.. Their time spent on familial duties constrains them from activities such as meeting up with project collaborators after work hours. Forret and Dougherty (2004) found that men involve more in networking than women. They defined 5 types of networking: maintaining contacts, participating in professional activities, socializing, engaging in community activities, and increase internal visibility. Women's household load negatively affects them appreciating the necessity to be parts of professional activities or socializing groups. Participating in those meetings usually conducted outside work hours can become a burden for women with household responsibilities. O'Neil, Hopkins, and Sullivan (2011) suggested that firms should set up objective expectations in joining women's network to gain visible leadership. Companies that have implemented women's network groups had return in equity at 35% higher than those with under-represented women.

Women's career pathway in leadership just starts its own journey, yet reflects a poor open to developmental leadership. According to Longman and Anderson (2011), carefully designed women's leadership development program with hierarchical levels is an essential need to stimulate the emergence of future female top leaders. Reviewing a firm's policies is to ensure a cessation to old norms of leadership. Utilizing genders' strengths and improving weaknesses in situational leadership context will empower one's internal renovation to highly creditable management style. According to Ertac and Gurdal (2012), his study showed that women tend to be less risk-taking in making decisions regardless of their leadership positions. It is another way of saying women who like to lead act no different than from women who would not. Interestingly enough, men are opposite. Male leaders take aggressive risks in making decisions, whereas male followers do not exhibit this type of character. Therefore, in Hussain et al. (2012) there is an urge to take serious actions on female training for leadership in corporations to boost up the sustained growth of gross domestic product by utilizing talented females. Leadership training themes make no difference in selecting male and female leaders. According to Muchiri, Cooksey, Di Milia, and Walumbwa (2011), understanding point of views as effective leadership from employees support leaders to "craft" an appropriate leadership management style. A suggestion made by Muchiri et al. (2011) reinforced situational leadership theory, in which leaders flexibly adjust their current context to individual employees. Similarly, Hersey et al. (1979) stated that leaders' desire to know their power in which others perceive in them enhanced probability of influencing employees.

Implanting Hershey's situational leadership theory into organizational culture and gender disparity brings light to females' innovative leadership roles in modern context. Therefore, one can be a successful leader by wisely impressing the counterparts with their behavioral flexibility.

3. Research Design

A survey was distributed to 300 undergraduate students majoring in Management in California. Of the 300 surveys that were distributed, 10 were not completed correctly and 90 students indicated that they do not have any leadership experience and/or any work experience. As a result, those 100 surveys were not used. As such, 200 surveys were successfully completed by 100 males and 100 females. This represents a 66% response rate. This small population sample can be used as a pilot study because of the convenience sampling method, which cannot be generalized to all managers and leaders in the workforce. The main research question for this study is: Who has higher situational leadership scores based upon gender, place of birth, and generational affiliation? The research hypotheses for this study are as follows:

The specific hypotheses for this study are as follows:

Null Hypothesis 1: Both male and female students will have the same scores as to situational leadership scores.

Null Hypothesis 2: Both students born in the US and outside of the US will have the same scores as to situational leadership.

Null Hypothesis 3: Both Generation Y and Generation X students will have the same scores as to situational leadership scores.

For the purpose of this study, situational leadership is defined as a leadership style that requires adapting to situations that arise because the situational contingencies dictate your style for that moment. Below is an example of the survey directions, a survey question, and the 5-point likert-type scale, that was used for the 24-question situational leadership survey.

- The following statements will help you assess your situational leadership style tendency. As you read each statement, try to think of typical situations and how you usually react.

Q1	I check staff's work on a regular basis to assess their progress and learning.	1	2	3	4	5

Please use the following scale:
1. To almost no extent
2. To a slight extent
3. To a moderate extent
4. To a great extent
5. To a very great extent

Furthermore, demographic questions were asked from each participant regarding: gender, place of birth, generational affiliation, work experience, and leadership experience. These questions allowed the researchers to learn more about each student's background.

4. Study Results

For each hypothesis an independent sample t-test was used to analyze the data. A total of 100 males and 100 females were surveyed (N=200). The first hypothesis states that both male and female students will have the same scores as to situational leadership scores. The results of this hypothesis are as follows: (t=12.367, p=0.001). As shown in Table 1, males have a significantly higher mean in situational leadership scores than females.

Table 1. Results regarding gender

Gender	Mean	Standard Deviation
Male	4.317	0.825
Female	2.630	1.079

Note: paired samples statistics: t = 12.367; p = 0.001

The second hypothesis states that students born in the US and outside of the US will have the same scores as to situational leadership. The results of this hypothesis are as follows: (t=-10.753, p=0.001). As shown in Table 2, those born outside of the US have significantly higher means in situational leadership scores than those born in the US.

Table 2. Results regarding place of birth

Place of Birth	Mean	Standard Deviation
Born In the U.S.	2.442	0.896
Born Outside of the U.S.	3.900	1.001

Note: paired samples statistics: t = -10.753; p = 0.001

The third hypothesis states that both Generation Y and Generation X students will have the same scores as to situational leadership scores. The results of this hypothesis are as follows: (t=10.669, p=0.001). As shown in Table 3, Generation Y students have significantly higher means in situational leadership scores than Generation X students.

Table 3. Results regarding generational affiliation

Generation	Mean	Standard Deviation
Generation Y	3.913	.859
Generation X	2.360	.985

Note: paired samples statistics: t = 10.669; p = 0.001

5. Discussion, Implications, and Limitations

Distinctive "masculine" personalities provide males an advantage to be sharp, "quick and flicking" problem solvers in different situations. According to Ones and Anderson (2002), the results show that there are significant differences on personality scale among genders. Some of interpersonal traits are statistically significant such as relaxed, data rational, influential, active, emotionally controlled, active, innovative, competitive and methodical. Although other characteristics are not statistically persuasive, there's tendency of these favoring males than females. A person who possesses calmness and resilience is denoted with more effective leadership in situational circumstances. A great example of leadership adaptability is a study conducted by Arvidsson, Johansson, Åsa, and Akselsson, (2007) on situational leadership applied in air traffic control. Most of traffic control activities involve in great risks, leadership style adaptability is

extensively based on regulatory framework with standardized routines. Arvidsson's et al. (2007) study was conducted at multi-centered areas. In the study, the majority of employees are male population at Air Navigation Services (76% vs. 24%). One of the two Air Traffic Control Centers composed of 52% males and 48% female pool (p. 73). The demographic baseline of the study gender participants reflects gender role is significantly differential at a certain field of work settings.

Because the key of successful situational leaders is to precisely apply a right managerial approach to different individuals, rational ability to this requirement is an advantage of males. According to Christman and McClellan (2012), leading personalities mostly compose of these above behaviors, in which society set up and identified the construction of gender with higher expectations in males. Socioeconomic norms have shaped a man to perceive himself that he should act as androgynous figure since a childhood. A young boy starts expressing his request on something very strongly. The trait remains to an extended level of reflecting his power at a time length.

Situational leadership has been famously applied in different field, but ubiquitously in business world. Hersey's leadership management model is utilized by many types of leaders. A smaller scale of the hierarchical level of management can be observed in the classroom structure. According to Hofstede (1983), psycho-sociological values are fostered and embraced into kids' perception since they are in school. Then, they absorb these values prevailing his or her own society.

There is gap difference between Generation X and Generation Y. According to Weiss (2003), twenty-one year olds integrate their cell phones into their social life, family and friend connections. On the other hand, baby boomers tend to use their phones during business traveling. Utilizing social media for all purposes in Generation Y reflects the emergent needs and innovative perceptions towards technological advancement. Strong competition demands a talented workforce, in which highly qualified persons are fans of technology. According to Kim, Knight, and Crutsinger (2009), the study shows that generation Y'ers are very active in crafting job characteristics and exploring role ambiguity rather than being passive recipients in conventional job design model. To them, clearly described job responsibilities are mediators between their perceptions on performing work expectation and work outcomes. The study did not perform a comparison with baby boomers. However, better understanding and actively searching for job role clarification suggest that Generation Y can be resilient in different situations at workplace. So far, no literature has conducted the correlation between Generation Y traits vs. Generation X on the success of using situational leadership. Another finding is that the confident Generation Y tentatively approach job adaptations at ease to create a meaningful work environment. Low Tasks/High Relationship is considered to be used in the highest level of maturity of employees by leaders (Hersey et al., 1979).

There are several limitations to this study. First, a larger sample size may have yielded different results. Next, all of the students sampled in this study are majoring in Management and a more diverse pool of students (i.e., different majors such as Biology or Engineering) may have yielded unique results. Consequently, additional information regarding leadership experience may have yielded interesting results. Future researchers should consider the above mentioned limitations when considering a similar study. In addition, future researchers should consider investigating the possible link between an individual's culture and leadership style. As such, a qualitative research study may yield useful results that can provide useful theory explaining why individuals have specific situational leadership scores and what influences those scores. Moreover, future researchers may want to survey respondents that are actually employed at the graduate level to derive a more valid conclusion.

6. Conclusion

This study set out to learn more about situational leadership propensities and perceptions among undergraduate Management students who will be entering the workforce. It is imperative to learn as much as possible about students who will be entering the competitive workforce because we live in a survival-of-the-fittest society that focuses on merit and where nepotism and favoritism are becoming extinct. By being able to learn more about situational leaders, HR Managers can do a more effective job of recruiting the best employees for their organizations. Theoretically, it is important to understand how and why situational leadership propensities can be enhanced. Practically, it is important for human resource managers to know what factors to look for when hiring employees for certain types of jobs. The research presented in this article suggests that males have higher situational leadership propensities, students born outside of the US have higher situational leadership propensities, and millennials have higher situational leadership propensities. Situational leaders understand the importance of "adapting and overcoming" when needed. In the workforce, each day is unique and leaders need to learn the importance of using a situational leadership style. When faced with a dilemma or situation, situational leaders are encouraged to use the RED Analysis (i.e., recognizing the issue, evaluating the issue, and developing an action plan) (Kaifi, 2013).

References

[1] Arvidsson, M., Johansson, C. R., Åsa, E., & Akselsson, R. (2007). "Situational leadership in air traffic control", *Journal of Air Transportation*, 12(1): 67-86.

[2] Ayman, R., & Korabik, K. (2010). "Leadership: Why gender and culture matter", *American Psychologist*, 65(3): 157-170. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/a0018806

[3] Baran, H. (2012). "The role of ethnic culture in work-family balance among Armenian women in leadership positions in higher education", [Online] Retrieved on October 28, 2013 from http://digitallibrary.usc.edu/cdm/compoundobject/collection/p15799coll3/id/23511/rec/4980

[4] Brandt, T., & Laiho, M. (2013). "Gender and personality in transformational leadership context", *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 34(1): 44-66. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/01437731311289965

[5] Chaturvedi, S., Zyphur, M. J., Arvey, R. D., Avolio, B. J., & Larsson, G. (2012). "The heritability of emergent leadership: Age and gender as moderating factors", *The Leadership Quarterly*, 23(2): 219-232. doi: 10.1016/j.leaqua.2011.08.004

[6] Christman, D. E., & McClellan, R. L. (2012). "Discovering middle space: Distinctions of sex and gender in resilient leadership", *The Journal of Higher Education*, 83(5): 648-670. doi: 10.1353/jhe.2012.0035

[7] Dickson, M. W., Castaño, N., Magomaeva, A., & Den Hartog, D. N. (2012). "Conceptualizing leadership across cultures", *Journal of World Business*, 47(4): 483-492. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jwb.2012.01.002

[8] Dorfman, P., Javidan, M., Hanges, P., Dastmalchian, A., & House, R. (2012). "GLOBE: A twenty year journey into the intriguing world of culture and leadership", *Journal of World Business*, 47(4), 504-518. doi: 10.1016/j.jwb.2012.01.004

[9] England, P., Gornick, J., & Shafer, E. F. (2012). "Women's employment, education, and the gender gap in 17 countries", *Monthly Labor Review*, 135(4): 3-12. [Online] Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com.ezproxylocal.library.nova.edu/docview/1024596322?accountid=6579

[10] Ertac, S., & Gurdal, M. Y. (2012). "Deciding to decide: Gender, leadership and risk-taking in groups", *Journal of Economic Behavior & Organization*, 83(1): 24-30.

[11] Forret, M. L., & Dougherty, T. W. (2004). "Networking behaviors and career outcomes:

differences for men and women?", *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 25(3): 419-437.

[12] Gottesman, I. I.,& Hanson, D. R. (2005). "Human development: Biological and genetic processes", *Annual Review of Psychology*, 56(1): 263-286. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.56.091103.070208

[13] Griffin, M. A., Parker, S. K., & Mason, C. M. (2010). "Leader vision and the development of adaptive and proactive performance: A longitudinal study", *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 95(1): 174-182. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/a0017263

[14] Hackman, J. R., & Wageman, R. (2005). "A theory of team coaching", *Academy of Management Review*, 30(2): 269-287.

[15] Hersey, P., Blanchard, K. H., & Natemeyer, W. E. (1979). "Situational leadership, perception, and the impact of power", *Group & Organization Management*, 4(4): 418-428. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/105960117900400404

[16] Hofstede, G. (1983). "National cultures in four dimensions", *International Studies of Management & Organization*, 13(1/2): 46-74.

[17] Hussain, F. S., Vadhana, C. R., & Zakkariya, K. A. (2012). "Are women leaders breaking the gender-stereotype? A study on emerging androgynous leadership style among women in the context of globalization", *International Journal of Physical and Social Sciences*, 2(10): 105.

[18] Kaifi, B. A. (2013). *Organizational Behavior: Managing and Leading Organizations*. Tamarac, FL: Llumina Press.

[19] Kark, R., Waismel-Manor, R., & Shamir, B. (2012). "Does valuing androgyny and femininity lead to a female advantage? The relationship between gender-role, transformational leadership and identification", *The Leadership Quarterly*, 23(3): 620-640. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2011.12.012

[20] Kim, H., Knight, D. K., & Crutsinger, C. (2009). "Generation Y employees' retail work experience: The mediating effect of job characteristics", *Journal of Business Research*, 62(5): 548-556. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2008.06.014

[21] Longman, K. A., &Anderson, P. S. (2011). "Gender trends in senior-level leadership: A 12-year analysis of the CCCU U.S. Member Institutions", *Christian Higher Education*, 10(5): 422-443. doi: 10.1080/15363759.2011.559874

[22] Lumsden, G, Lumsden, D., & Wiethoff, C. (2010). *Communicating In Groups and Teams: Sharing leadership* (5th ed). Boston, MA: Wadsworth Cengage.

[23] Manlove, S. L. (2004). "When minority women lead: How leadership practices of women of color administrators influence the institutional culture in their community colleges", *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 65 (05) A, 1863.

[24] Muchiri, M. K., Cooksey, R. W., Di Milia, L. V., & Walumbwa, F. O. (2011). "Gender and managerial level differences in perceptions of effective leadership", *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 32(5): 462-492. doi: http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/01437731111146578

[25] Northouse, P. G. (2004*). Leadership: Theory and Practice* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, California: SAGE.

[26] O'Neil, D. A., Hopkins, M. M., & Sullivan, S. E. (2011). "Do women's networks help advance women's careers?: Differences in perceptions of female workers and top leadership", *Career Development International*, 16(7): 733-754. doi: 10.1108/13620431111187317

[27] Ones, D. S., & Anderson, N. (2002). "Gender and ethnic group differences on personality scales in selection: Some British data", *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 75, 255-276.

[28] Redding, S.G. (1990). *The Spirit of Chinese Capitalism*, Berlin: De Gruyter.

[29] Silverthorne (2000). "Situational leadership theory in Taiwan--a different culture perspective",

Leadership and Organizational Development, 21(2): 68-74.

[30] Silverthorne, C., & Wang, T. (2001). "Situational leadership style as a predictor of success and productivity among Taiwanese business organizations", *The Journal of Psychology*, 135(4): 399-412.

[31] Singh, P., Nadim, A., & Ezzedeen, S. R. (2012). "Leadership styles and gender: An extension", *Journal of Leadership Studies*, 5(4): 6-19. doi: 10.1002/jls.20239

[32] Snaebjornsson, I. M., & Edvardsson, I. R. (2013). "Gender, nationality and leadership style: A literature review", *International Journal of Business and Management*, 8(1): 89-103. [Online] Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com.ezproxylocal.library.nova.edu/docview/1327703678? accountid=6579

[33] Takala, T. (1998). "Plato on leadership", *Journal of Business Ethics*, 17(7): 785-798. [Online] Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com.ezproxylocal.library.nova.edu/docview/198194416? accountid=6579

[34] Van Emmerik, H., Wendt, H., & Euwema, M. C. (2010). "Gender ratio, societal culture, and male and female leadership", *Journal of Occupational & Organizational Psychology*, 83(4): 895-914. doi: 10.1348/096317909X478548

[35] Weiss, M. J. (2003). "To be about to be", *American Demographics*, 25(7): 28-36.