

ASSESSING THE RELATIONSHIPS AMONG TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP, TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP, JOB PERFORMANCE, AND GENDER: AN EMPIRICAL STUDY

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Abstract

The study aims to assess the relationships between transformational leadership and job performance as well as transactional leadership and job performance of the executives. The study also attempts to identify the differences between male and female executives' perceptions regarding transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and job performance. The research sample comprised of 167 executives working at different organizations in Chittagong, the second largest city of Bangladesh. Transformational and transactional leadership was measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Bass & Avolio, 2000), while job performance was assessed by Tsui, Pearce, Porter, & Tripoli's (1997) job performance scale. In data collection, this study used a convenience sampling technique. Data collected were analyzed using descriptive statistics, bivariate correlation, regression analysis, and a non-parametric test. The findings indicate a strong correlation ($r = 0.72$) between transformational leadership and job performance and a moderate correlation ($r = 0.54$) between transactional leadership and job performance. No significant differences between male and female executives' perceptions regarding transformational leadership and job performance were found. But, a significant difference between male and female executives' perceptions regarding transactional leadership was reported. An important implication of the research is that managers should develop appropriate leadership style (transformational and/or transactional) at different organizational levels to improve their job performance. One of the limitations of this study was the use of a convenience sample that might limit the generalizability of the findings. Further research directions are discussed.

Keyword: Transformational Leadership, Transactional Leadership, Job Performance, Gender, Bangladesh

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1. INTRODUCTION

Leadership is the ability to inspire, motivate, and guide others towards achieving a higher job performance for an organization. According to Northouse (2007), "Leadership is a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal" (p.3). It is a bond which makes people work together (Bushra, Usman, & Naveed, 2011). At present, organizations are more concerned about understanding, development, and improvement of their leadership. Among different styles of leadership, transformational leadership has received a considerable, conceptual, and empirical attention in organizational area (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Over the past two decades, transformational leadership has emerged as one of the most popular aspects to understand follower attitudes, behavior, and performance (Walumbwa, Avolio, & Zhu, 2008). It recognizes the need for change, create, and share compelling visions with employees, guide them to accomplish the challenging goal (Bass, 1999). Success of an organization depends on its workforce. Transformational leadership concentrates with individual and team level job performance which lead the organization towards success (Judge & Piccolo, 2004). A number of studies have revealed that transformational leadership positively affects job performance (Avolio, Zhu, Koh, & Puja, 2004; Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003; Piccolo & Colquitt, 2006; Wang, Law, Hackeet, Wang, & Chen, 2005).

Similarly, transactional leadership is a contemporary leadership style which is aimed at monitoring and controlling em-

ployees through rational and economic means (Bass, 1985). It apparently promotes a performance oriented work culture by rewarding performance and weeding out incompetents. This leadership style encourages followers to achieve expected performance by helping them to be aware of job responsibilities, recognize goals, and build up confidence in the desired performance (Riaz, Akram, & Ijaz, 2011). Available studies have also supported the positive relationship between transactional leadership and job performance (Timothy, Andy, Victoria, & Idowu, 2011; Riaz & Hiader, 2010; Chaudhry & Javed, 2012). But some argued that transactional leadership behaviors do not meet the basic criteria for true leadership label (Bryman, 1992). Since it is based on exchange, transactional leadership does not seek to motivate employees that may cause performance and satisfaction to suffer (Bass, 1985; Bryman, 1992; Peters & Austin, 1985). Therefore, transactional leadership style generates lower performance than transformational leadership style (Bass & Avolio, 2000).

Likewise, a number of studies have been conducted to identify the role of gender, i.e. male and female, in the context of transformational leadership. It has been shown that both male and female have displayed different styles of leadership. It is argued that while women were employee-oriented, then men were task-oriented (Balasubramanian & Krishnan, 2012). Other findings demonstrated that women were better transformational leaders than men were (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Kao, Craven, & Kao, 2006; van Eagen & Willemsen, 2004). On the other hand, males typically exhibit transactional leadership behaviors

than women. Additionally, other studies (Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2003; Bass & Avolio, 1995, Powell, Butterfield, Alves, & Bartol, 2004) have supported this statement. But Komives (1991) found no significant gender differences in transformational or transactional leadership, in contrast to the findings of Bass & Avolio (1992). Some researchers found that male and female were insignificant in their job performance (Landy, 2008; Firlie & Robb, 2009; Stuhlmacher & Walers, 1999).

The above discussion reveals that there has been relatively little empirical research examining the relationships among transformational leadership, transactional leadership, job performance and gender in Bangladesh. As the empirical research on the proposed topic is mostly absent here, this research gap has induced the authors to undertake the present study.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Transformational leadership defined

Transformational leaders make use of potential needs or demands of followers based on shared common goals and objectives. This is accomplished by the leader articulating their vision of what they see as the opportunities and threats facing their organization, the organization's strengths, weaknesses, and comparative advantages, and generates awareness and acceptance of the purposes and mission of the group (Dixon, 1999). This is done by appealing to followers' potential motives that seek to satisfy higher needs and engages the full person in order to draw a true consensus

in aligning individual and organizational interests. Followers accept leadership decisions as the best under the circumstances even if it means some individual members' interests may have to be sacrificed to meet common objectives (Stordeur, Vandenberghe, & D'hoore, 2000).

2.2 Components of transformational leadership

Transformational leaders do more with colleagues and followers than set up simple exchanges or agreements. They behave in ways to achieve superior performance by employing one or more of the four core components of transformational leadership (Avolio, Bass, & Jung, 1997; Bycio, Hackett, & Allen, 1995). Descriptions of the components of transformational leadership are presented in the following sections.

Idealized influence: Transformational leaders behave in ways that allow them to serve as role models for their followers. The leaders are admired, respected, and trusted. Followers identify with the leaders and want to emulate them; leaders are endowed by their followers as having extraordinary capabilities, persistence, and determination (Bass et al., 2003). Thus, there are two aspects to idealized influence: the leader's behaviors and the elements that are attributed to the leader by followers and other associates. In addition, leaders who have a great deal of idealized influence are willing to take risks and are consistent rather than arbitrary. They can be counted on to do the right thing, demonstrating high standards of ethical and moral conduct (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Inspirational motivation: Transformational leaders behave in ways that motivate and inspire those around them by providing meaning and challenge to their followers' work. Team spirit is aroused. Enthusiasm and optimism are displayed. Leaders get followers involved in envisioning attractive future states; they create clearly communicated expectations that followers want to meet and also demonstrate commitment to goals and the shared vision (Bass et al., 2003). Idealized influence leadership and inspirational motivation usually form a combined single factor of charismatic-inspirational leadership. The charismatic-inspirational factor is similar to the behaviors described in charismatic leadership theory (Bass & Avolio, 1993; House, 1977).

Intellectual stimulation: Transformational leaders stimulate their followers' efforts to be innovative and creative by questioning assumptions, reframing problems, and approaching old situations in new ways. Creativity is encouraged (Bass & Riggio, 2006). There is no public criticism of individual members' mistakes. New ideas and creative problem solutions are solicited from followers, who are included in the process of addressing problems and finding solutions. Followers are encouraged to try new approaches, and their ideas are not criticized because they differ from the leaders' ideas (Bass et al., 2003).

Individualized consideration: Transformational leaders pay special attention to each individual follower's needs for achievement and growth by acting as a coach or mentor. Followers and colleagues are developed to successively higher levels of potential. Individualized consider-

ation is practiced when new learning opportunities are created along with a supportive climate (Bass et al., 2003). Individual differences in terms of needs and desires are recognized. The leader's behavior demonstrates acceptance of individual differences. The individually considerate leader listens effectively. The leader delegates tasks as a means of developing followers. Delegated tasks are monitored to see if the followers need additional direction or support and to assess progress (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

2.3 Transactional leadership and its components

According to Yukl (2010) "transactional leadership involves an exchange process that may result in follower compliance with leader requests but is not likely to generate enthusiasm and commitment to task objectives" (p.280). Transactional leadership occurs when the leader rewards or disciplines the followers, depending on the adequacy of the follower's performance (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Luthans and Doh (2009, p.474) explained the three components of transactional leadership as follows:

Contingent reward: Contingent reward leadership involves the leader assigning or obtaining follower agreement on what needs to be done with promised or actual rewards offered in exchange for satisfactorily carrying out the assignment. A sample contingent reward item is "The leader makes clear what one can expect to receive when performance goals are achieved" (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Contingent reward is transactional when the reward is a material one, such as a bonus.

Contingent reward can be transformational, however, when the reward is psychological, such as, praise (Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam, 2003).

Management by exception-Active: In active management by exception (MBE), the leader arranges to actively monitor deviances from standards, mistakes, and errors in the follower's assignments and to take corrective action as necessary. Active MBE may be required and effective in some situations, such as, when safety is paramount in importance. A sample item for MBE active is "The leader directs attention toward failures to meet standards" (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Management by exception-Passive: It implies waiting passively for deviances, mistakes, and errors to occur and then taking corrective action. It is applied when a large pool of followers is directed to report their performance to their respective supervisor. A sample item for MBE passive is "The leader takes no action until complaints are received" (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

In today's competitive environment, organizations face many challenges to meet their goals and objectives. Leaders play essential roles in accomplishment of these goals. They also boost employees' performance by satisfying their expectations. Available literature (Leroy, Palanski, & Simons, 2012; Lock & Crawford, 2004; Liang, Chan, Lin, & Huang, 2011; Rahman, 2010; Raman, 2010) shows that job performance is influenced by both transformational and transactional leadership style. The following section provides a brief discussion about job performance.

2.4 Job performance

Scholars, academicians, researchers, and writers have a continuing interest in the arena of performance. As a result, there are almost as many different definitions of performance as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept. Whetten, Cameron, and Woods (2000) believe that performance is ultimately an individual phenomenon with environmental variables influencing performance primarily through their effect on the individual determinants of performance – ability and motivation. According to O'Regan, Ghobadian, and Sims, (2005) an effective performance measurement system ought to cover all aspects of performance that are relevant to the existence of an organization and the means by which it achieves success and growth. Rotundo and Sackett (2002) define performance as those actions and behaviors that are under the control of the individual and contribute to the goals of the organization. Hellriegel, Jackson, and Slocum (1999) define performance as the level of an individual's work achievement after having exerted effort. However, available studies have revealed several types of performance, such as, team performance (Koman & Wolff, 2008), manager performance (Bass & Riggio, 2006), job performance (Sy, Tram, & O'Hara, 2006; Dries & Pepermans, 2007), and management performance (Slaski & Cartwright, 2002). This study aims to focus on job performance of the executives working at the organizations.

Job performance most commonly refers to whether a person performs his or her job well. According to Campbell (1990)

and his colleagues (Campbell, McCloy, Oppler, & Sager, 1993), job performance is an individual level variable. In other words, it is something a single person does. A number of studies (Tsui, Pearce, Porter, & Tripoli, 1997; Heilman, Block, & Lucas, 1992; Welbourne, Johnson, & Erez, 1998) have suggested several factors to measure job performance. According to the preceding authors, it can be measured by quantity, quality, and accuracy of work; employee's efficiency and standard of work; employees' strive for higher quality work, achievement of work goals, and so on. As Tsui et al.'s (1997) job performance scale includes most of the factors, so it was chosen to use in the present study.

3. HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

3.1 Transformational leadership and job performance

Available studies (Leroy, Palanski, & Simons, 2012; Medley & Laroche, 1995; Peng & Tseng, 2011) found that transformational leaders bear a significant impact on job performance. Thamrin (2012) conducted a study to analyze the influence of transformational leadership and organizational commitment on job satisfaction and employee performance on a sample of 105 people. It is found that transformational leadership has a positive significant influence on organizational commitment and employee's performance. Lock and Crawford (2004) also found positive effects on job satisfaction and commitment while they examine the effects of organizational culture and leadership styles on job

satisfaction and organizational commitment regarding comparative sample studies of Hong Kong and Australian managers. Available literature also revealed the significant relationship between transformational leadership and performance (Bass, 1996; Walumbwa, Avolio & Zhu 2008; Walumbwa, Wang, Wang, Schaubroeck, & Avolio, 2010). Furthermore, a high sense of trust and faith on transformation leaders makes the followers feel much more encouraged and inspired to surpass in excellence of performance. Hence, the first hypothesis has been developed as follows:

H1: There is a positive relationship between transformational leadership and job performance perceived by the executives.

3.2 Transactional leadership and job performance

Several studies have been conducted to identify the relationship between transactional leadership and job performance and the findings were more or less similar. Timothy et al. (2011) conducted a study on a small scale industry in Nigeria to examine the effects of leadership style on organizational performance. They found that transactional leadership style was more appropriate in inducing performance in small scale enterprises. Liang, Chan, Lin, and Huang (2011) also conducted a study to investigate the relationship between leadership style and task performance on a sample of 266 employees from 43 electronic companies in Taiwan. They reported a significant relationship between transactional leadership and job performance and these two variables were highly affected by the degree of social distance. Addition-

ally, available literature (Raman, 2010; Riaz & Hiader, 2010; Sahin, 2004) found a positive relationship between transactional leadership and job performance while an exceptional finding was revealed by Awamleh, Evans, and Mahate (2005). They found out that transactional leadership does not positively relate to employees' performance or satisfaction. However, the second hypothesis can be suggested as follows:

H2: There is a positive relationship between transactional leadership and job performance perceived by the executives.

3.3 Gender and transformational leadership

Mandell and Phewani (2003) conducted a study on a sample of 32 managers (13 males and 19 females) in the USA to examine the gender differences between male and female managers as measured by the MLQ 5X (Bass & Avolio, 1995). They found no statistically significant differences between the leadership scores of men and women. Similarly, Carless (1998) investigated gender differences in transformational leadership on a sample of 345 branch managers (126 females and 239 males) and 588 subordinates in a large international bank in Australia. The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5X: Bass & Avolio, 1995), the Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI: Kouzes & Posner, 1990) and the Global Transformational Leadership Scale (GTL: Carless, Wearing, & Mann, 2000) were used to measure the leadership style. The findings showed that superiors evaluated female managers as more transformational than male manag-

ers. Additionally, Kao, Craven, and Kao (2006) conducted a study on a sample of 85 executives in Taiwanese manufacturing companies to examine the relationship between leadership styles and gender. The findings showed that there was no significant difference between the executives' leadership styles and gender. Taken together, the third hypothesis has been developed as follows:

H3: There is no significant difference between male and female executives' mean scores of transformational leadership.

3.4 Gender and transactional leadership

In general, women appear to adopt a more transformational style while men adopt a more transactional style (Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2003; Bass & Avolio, 1995; Powell, Butterfield, Alves, & Bartol, 2004). Men are more likely to hold senior managerial positions in the organizations, which have important implications for organizational assessment processes, whereas women are being potentially hampered by the bias towards the transactional style of leading (Alimo-Metcalfe, 1995). Poulson, Smith, Hood, Arthur, and Bazemore (2011) conducted a study to examine whether men or women were reported a higher evaluation of and appreciation for different leadership style among their college professors on a sample size of 233 students. They found that men were reported to have a higher evaluation of and appreciation for the transactional leadership style than women. Druskat (1994) conducted a study on gender and leadership style in the Roman Catholic Church with 6,359 subordinates of lead-

ers. The research finding was that female leaders are rated to exhibit significantly fewer transactional leadership behaviors than male leaders and both female and male subordinates rated themselves as less satisfied with transactional leadership. From the above discussion, the fourth hypothesis can be devised as follows:

H4: There is a significant difference between male and female executives' mean scores of transactional leadership.

3.5 Gender and job performance

Woodruff (1988) conducted an exploratory study to explain the role of gender, age, education, and tenure on job performance in a sample consisting 202 individuals from twelve computer centers in the USA. The results of this study provided that there was no significant difference between respondents' gender and job performance. Similarly, Igbaria and Baroudi (1995) examined the impact of gender on job performance and career advancement prospects on a sample of 109 MIS employ-

ees in the USA in which 77 employees were men and 32 were women. The results showed that there were no significant gender differences in job performance. In the male dominated society, the performance ratings of female are reported poor while overrated for male (Stuhlmacher & Walers, 1999). Literature also suggests that women are least committed (Graddick & Farr, 1983; Lefkowitz, 1994) to the organization and contributing poorly (Fairlie & Robb, 2009; Landy, 2008) than men do while others (Ali & Davis, 2003; Stuhlmacher & Walers, 1999) have shown the vice-versa. Thus, the fifth hypothesis has been suggested as follows:

H5: There is no significant difference between male and female executives' mean scores of job performance.

A hypothetical model was developed to exhibit the relationships among the transformational leadership, transactional leadership, job performance, and gender as follows:

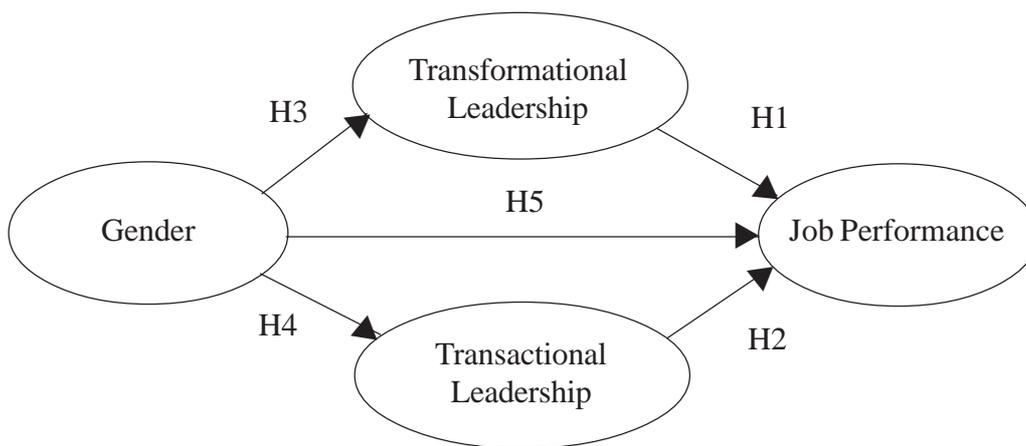


Figure 1: Hypothetical Model

4. RESEARCH METHODS

This study was conducted using a quantitative research method explaining in detail the nature of participants, survey instruments, data collection procedure, and reliability of the scales in the following sections:

4.1 Participants

Data for this study were collected from 167 executives working at different private organizations in Chittagong, the commercial capital of Bangladesh. The organizations were classified into five categories, such as, manufacturing, education, financial, service, and others. The respondents were asked to rate their own transformational and transactional leadership and their job performance. They were classified into three categories, namely: higher-level, mid-level, and lower-level. Respondents were assured that any information provided by them would be kept confidential and used only for academic purposes.

Respondents ranged in age from 26 to 57 years, with a mean of 33.48 (SD = 5.57) years, and 105 (62.87%) were male while 62 (37.13%) were female. Average experience was 6.55 (SD = 4.28) years. There were 25 (14.97%), 87 (52.10%), and 55 (32.93%) representation by the top, middle, and lower-level participants respectively. The respondents were well educated: 38 (22.75%) had completed bachelor degrees, 118 (70.66%) had postgraduate studies while 11 (6.59%) showed other degrees. In terms of organizational units, 48 (28.74%) belonged to manufacturing, 22 (13.17%) to education, 46 (27.54%) to fi-

nance, 39 (23.35%) to services, and 12 (7.20%) to other industry.

4.2 Survey instruments

4.2.1 Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire 5X

The MLQ 5X (Bass & Avolio, 2000) is the most recent version available of the original MLQ form. There are two types of forms in this instrument: self form and rater form. Both forms measure three types of leadership styles and three outcome components. In this study, the self form was used which measured the respondents' perceptions about their own leadership styles. The items were measured on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 0 (not at all) to 4 (frequently, if not always). As mentioned, for the purpose of this study, only the items of transformational and transactional leadership were used.

The transformational leadership consists of five components, namely: i) idealized influence (attributes), ii) idealized influence (behaviour), iii) inspirational motivation, iv) intellectual stimulation, and v) individualized consideration are measured by the MLQ 5X (Bass & Avolio, 2000). Sample items for the transformational leadership components were 'I act in ways that build others' respect for me' (idealized influence attribute), 'I consider the moral and ethical consequences of decisions' (idealized influence behaviour), 'I talk enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished' (inspirational motivation), 'I re-examine critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate' (intellectual stimulation), and 'I consider an individual as having different needs, abilities, and as-

pirations from others' (individualized consideration). The alpha reliability of the transformational leadership for the current study was 0.95.

Transactional leadership consists of three components, namely: i) contingent reward, ii) management-by-exception (active), and iii) management-by-exception (passive) are measured by the MLQ 5X (Bass & Avolio, 2000). Sample items for the transactional leadership components were 'I discuss in specific terms who is responsible for achieving performance targets' (contingent reward), 'I focus attention on irregularities, mistakes, exceptions, and deviations from standards' (management-by-exception active), 'I wait for things to go wrong before taking action' (management-by-exception passive). The alpha reliability of transactional leadership for the current study was 0.91.

4.2.2 Job performance

Six items adapted from Tsui et al., (1997) were used to measure the job performance of the respondents. Sample items were 'My quantity of work is much higher than average', 'My quality of work is much higher than average' etc. The response scale ranged from 1, 'strongly disagree', to 7, 'strongly agree'. During the development of the job performance scale, the alpha reliability reported by Tsui et al.'s (1997) was 0.89. However, the alpha reliability of the job performance scale for the current study was also 0.92.

4.3 Data collection procedure

Convenience sampling technique was used in this study for selecting the respon-

dents. In order to collect data, printed questionnaires were distributed among 167 employees working at different private organizations in Chittagong, the second largest city of Bangladesh. The authors spent three weeks to collect data from the executives. In collecting data for this study, the authors briefed the executives about the purpose of the study and then procedures to complete the printed survey instruments. The executives took thirty minutes on an average to complete the questionnaires. Due to some constraints, it was not possible to collect an equal number of responses from each organization. Finally, a total of 167 (77%) usable responses were received. Then, the raw data were entered into an Excel file for summarization, and then were imported into the SPSS version 16.0 data editor for statistical analysis.

4.4 Reliability of scales and validity of data

Reliability reflects the consistency of a set of item in measuring the study variables/concepts (Cooper & Schinder, 2001; Field, 2005). It illustrates the individual differences concerning the amount of agreement or disagreement of the concepts or variables studies (Page & Mayer, 2000). In this study, reliability measurement is important to verify the consistencies of the items used in emotional intelligence, transformational leadership, and job performance scale in a different culture or country (Hair, Anderson, Tatham, & Black, 2003). Cronbach's alpha is the most widely used method to measure the reliability of the scale (Field, 2005; Malhotra, 2002). It may be mentioned that Cronbach's alpha value ranges

from 0 to 1, but satisfactory value is required to be more than .60 for the scale to be reliable (Malhotra, 2002; Cronbach, 1951). However, Cronbach's alpha of the transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and job performance scale for the current study was 0.95, 0.91, and 0.92 respectively. Therefore, these three instruments were highly reliable for data collection.

The validity implies the extent to which differences in observed scales scores reflect true differences among objects on the characteristics being measured, rather than systematic or random error (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2011). In this study, authors considered only the criterion validity which denotes that criterion variables (i.e. demographic characteristics, attitudinal, and behavioral measures) were collected at the same time. Face and content validity were not essential because authors used the established survey instruments in this study.

5. RESULTS

The mean and standard deviation calculated for the transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and job performance is presented in Table 1. The mean and standard deviation for transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and job performance were consistent with the previous research findings (Bass & Avolio, 1995; 2000; Rahman & Ferdausy, 2012; Rahman, Ferdausy, & Uddin, 2012). Correlations between transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and job performance are also presented in Table 1.

Table 1 shows that there was a signifi-

cant positive correlation (strong) between transformational leadership and job performance ($r = .72, p < 0.01$) while a significant positive correlation (moderate) was found between transactional leadership and job performance ($r = .54, p < 0.01$). Thus, first and second hypotheses were supported by the results.

An analysis of Table 2 implies that only 5%, 19%, and 11% of the variance in transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and job performance were explained by demographic factors such as, gender, age, experience, position, education, number of employees, and category of organizations respectively. The presence of unexplained variance suggests that there were other implied variables which account for variations in transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and job performance.

Table 3 indicates that about 59% and 31% of the variances in job performance were explained by transformational leadership and transactional leadership respectively. The presence of unexplained variance suggests that there were other implied predictor variables which account for variations in job performance.

To address the third, fourth, and fifth hypotheses, a non-parametric test (Mann-Whitney U test) was carried out to identify the significant difference between the male and female respondents' perceptions on the mean score of transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and job performance.

Table 4 shows that male executives' had a mean rank of transformational leadership (=109.01), transactional leadership (=131.38), and job performance (=115.25)

Table 1: Means, Standard Deviations, Reliabilities, and Correlations between Variables

Variables	Mean	Standard Deviation	β	Correlations		
				1	2	3
1. TFL	3.08	.58	0.95	1		
2. TSL	2.01	.95	0.91	.41**	1	
3. JP	5.54	.93	0.92	.72**	.54**	1

Note: **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed); N = 167; TFL = Transformational Leadership; TSL = Transactional Leadership; JP = Job Performance.

Table 2: The summary of regression analysis of potential covariates with TFL, TSL, and JP

Covariates	Co-efficients(β)			Standard Error (β)			Value of t-statistic			Value of R ²			Value of F-statistic		
	TFL	TSL	JP	TFL	TSL	JP	TFL	TSL	JP	TFL	TSL	JP	TFL	TSL	JP
Gender	.06	-.65	-.05	.08	.11	.14	.75	-5.91*	-.34						
Age	-.12	-.40	-.31	.05	.07	.09	-2.1*	-5.62*	-3.3*						
Experience	.04	.02	.10	.04	.05	.07	1.03	.51	1.38						
Position	.09	-.01	.15	.04	.05	.07	2.1*	-.09	1.92	.05	.19	.11	2.5*	13.6*	4.5*
Education	.11	.38	.35	.07	.09	.11	1.62	4.21*	3.00*						
Employees	.04	.15	.08	.03	.04	.05	1.32	3.94*	1.56						
Organization	-.02	-.03	-.02	.01	.02	.02	-1.56	-1.65	-.93						

Note: *. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed); N = 167; TFL = Transformational Leadership; TSL = Transactional Leadership; JP = Job Performance.

Table 3: Summary of Regression Analysis regarding TFL and TSL

Predictor Variables	Explained Variables	Co-efficients (β)	S.E (β)	Value of t-statistic	Value of R ²	Value of F -statistic (ANOVA)
TFL	JP	1.28	0.07	16.52**	.59	273.18**
TSL	JP	.53	0.05	8.96**	.31	80.34**

Note: **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed); N = 167; TFL = Transformational Leadership; TSL = Transactional Leadership; JP = Job Performance.

Table 4: Mann-Whitney U Test regarding Gender perceptions on TFL, TSL, and JP

	Rank				Value of Mann-Whitney Test Statistic	Effect Size
	Respondents' Gender	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks		
TFL	Male	105	109.01	14389.00	5213.00ns	-0.03
	Female	62	105.07	8616.00		
TSL	Male	105	131.38	17342.50	2259.50**	-48.00
	Female	62	69.05	5662.50		
JP	Male	105	115.25	14213.50	5388.50ns	-0.04
	Female	62	109.02	9791.50		

Note: N = 167; TFL = Transformational Leadership; TSL = Transactional Leadership; JP = Job Performance; ns = non-significant; ** = significant

while female executives' had a mean rank of transformational leadership (=105.07), transactional leadership (=69.05), and job performance (=109.02). The test statistics showed that there was no significant difference between male and female executives' perceptions on the mean score of transformational leadership while a significant difference was found between male and female executives' mean scores of transactional leadership. The test statistics also revealed that there was no significant difference between male and female executives' perceptions on the mean score of job performance.

6. DISCUSSIONS

The present study aims to examine the relationship among transformational leadership, transactional leadership, job performance, and gender.

The first purpose of this study was to explore the relationship between transformational leadership and job performance. Hypothesis 1 stated that there will be a positive relationship between transformational leadership and job performance perceived by the executives. The result of current study supports this contention. Thus, executives who possess transformational leadership attributes have a high level of job performance records. This positive relationship is consistent with the findings of previous studies (Lam & O'Higgins, 2012; Risambessy, Swasto, Thoyib, & Astuti, 2012; Thamrin, 2012; Walumbwa et al., 2010). The result is valuable because it shows that transformational leadership style, a modern concept of leadership, is

being liked by the employees of the organization.

The second purpose of the study was to investigate the relationship between transactional leadership and job performance. In consistence with hypothesis 2, the relationship between transactional leadership and job performance was found to be positive as perceived by the executives. This positive relationship is consistent with the assumptions of previous studies (Chaudhry & Javed, 2012; Riaz & Hiader, 2010; Timothy et al. 2011). This tentative interpretation is based on the theoretical assumption that transactional leadership style may pursue employees at high job performance.

The third purpose of this study was to identify the significant difference between male and female executives' perceptions on the mean score of transformational leadership. Hypothesis 3 stated that there would be no significant difference between male and female executives' perceptions on the mean score of transformational leadership. The result of the current study supported this hypothesis, which is consistent with the findings of previous studies (Balasubramanian & Krishnan, 2012; Kent, Blair, Rudd, & Schuele, 2010; Mandell and Pherwani, 2003). The findings of the current study also provide support for the theoretical argument that male and female do not differ in their general perceptions of others as transformational leadership style.

The fourth purpose of this study was to examine the significant difference between male and female executives' perceptions on the mean score of transactional leadership style. Hypothesis 4 stated that

there would be a significant difference between male and female executives' perceptions on the mean score of transactional leadership. The findings of the current study supported this hypothesis, which is consistent with the assumptions of previous studies (Alimo-Metcalfe & Alban-Metcalfe, 2003; Powell et al. 2004; Powell, Butterfield, & Bartol, 2008; Poulson et al. 2011). The results of the current study also deliver support for the notional assumption that male report a higher evaluation of and appreciation for transactional leadership than that of female.

The final purpose of the study was to ascertain the significant difference between male and female executives' perceptions on the mean score of job performance. Hypothesis 5 stated that there would be no significant difference between male and female executives' perceptions on the mean score of job performance. The result of the current study supported this postulate, which is consistent with the assumptions of previous studies (Afolabi, Awosola, & Omole, 2010; Fairlie & Robb, 2009; Kakar, 2002). The findings of the current paper report in favor for the argument that male and female are indifferent in job performance except in male dominated society (Green, Jegadesh, & Tang, 2009).

7. IMPLICATIONS FOR MANAGEMENT

An important implication of the research is that managers should develop appropriate leadership quality to improve their job performance. Managers, at the higher level, should develop transforma-

tional leadership quality, since it focuses on team building, motivation, and collaboration with employees at different levels of the organization, it helps to retain employees in the organization as well as develop their performance. Managers, at the mid and lower levels, should concentrate on transactional leadership style, which focuses on the role of supervision and group performance. This leadership is useful during the crisis and emergency situation of organization, but sometimes it fails to satisfy employees' perception as well as to improve performance.

Another important implication is that both leadership styles and job performance are influenced by gender. Though transformational managers are preferred to by both male and female employees, transactional managers are preferred to by male than female employees. Therefore, at the mid and lower levels of the organization, male employees are more evaluated than at the top level of the organization. But, male and female are indifferent in their job performance at any level. So, modern organizations should focus on transformational leadership competencies of those managers who like to motivate employees to improve their job performance and reduce gender issues in the organization. The current study is relevant to practitioners as well as business leaders, as the findings may help them to recognize the importance of appropriate leadership styles to minimize gender discrimination in facilitating job performance.

8. LIMITATIONS

Despite the positive implications for management, the study has suffered from some limitations. The most important limitation was to use convenience samples which might limit the generalizability of the findings. A random sampling procedure could be the best alternative to assure generalizability of the results. The use of deductive research approach may be another limitation of the study. Inductive research technique (e.g. observation method) could be used to explain the patterns of relationship among the proposed variables. The sample size posed another limitation of the study. A larger and representative sample is needed to further investigate the relationship among transformational, transactional, job performance, and gender. The presence of a common method variance in the measures may have caused inflated relationships between independent and dependent variables. One way to overcome this problem is to split the measures of variable by time. Finally, it should be noted that the current study used transformational, transactional, and job performance scales which were short of 360 degree assessments where senior bosses, supervisors, colleagues, and peers could rate participants on the relevant characteristics.

9. FUTURE DIRECTIONS

Further research is needed to understand the relationship among transformational leadership, transactional leadership, job performance, and gender, longitudinally. Future research would be benefited

from a large sample size, using a variety of samples. The structural equation model may generate more reliable results in terms of the construct validity of the measurement used. Additionally, a research examining the relationship between transformational or transactional leadership and job performance mediated by social intelligence could produce more interesting results. Furthermore, prospective designs would allow for the examination of whether transformational or transactional leadership is predictive of the job performance.

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