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IN THE BLIND SPOT OF THE CAF: GENDER DIFFERENCES IN LEADERSHIP

Maj Sophie Drolet

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ABSTRACT

The current situation of men and women within the Canadian Armed Forces (CAF) demonstrates that there is scope for improvement in gender integration. The lack of recognition of gender differences is stated to be an obstacle to complete gender integration. Awareness, fairness and equity are proposed to replace neutrality, blindness and equality as tenets in policy and decision-making. This paper states that understanding gender trends in leadership style is a key aspect of gender integration.

A review on the leadership theory and recent empirical research allows for association of *feminine-like* behaviors with participative, democratic or transformational leadership. It leads to trends in autocratic, transactional, and charismatic leadership being associated with *masculine-like* styles.

Physiological distinctions between men and women explain some of the trends in gendered leadership. Evolution has caused women's brains to make them better at consequential thinking, to be more detail oriented as well as more conscious of their emotions and those of others. For men's brains, their development has made them rather linear thinkers, more risk tolerant, and have better motor skills and hasty decision-making abilities.

Hormonal systems in women promote social attachment and the seeking of discussion as stress relief. Men's hormones make them more competitive, creative, and cause their tendency to avoid facing problems until they built up the hormonal supplies to face them.

Studies support the popular belief that females are not as physically strong as males, but state that they have the potential to perform in all military trades and

occupations. Despite this, their physical inferiority is thought to have an impact on their ability to be recognized as legitimate leaders in male-dominated organizations such as the CAF.

Perception biases are presented to explain their impact on the assessed performance of female leaders versus male leaders. Theories of social role, role congruity and leadership categorization explain the distorted perception of others, while the Lack of Fit Model introduces the idea that women generate their own self-limiting thoughts and opinions.

Drivers for changes (domestic and international) and their interaction with the CAF's traditionally change resistant culture are examined. The rationale for this culture is explained with a specific emphasis on the value of uniformity within the strong military identity. The requirement for change, despite resistance, is identified as non-discretionary survival mechanism for the organization, should it wish to remain relevant.

Recommendations for improved gender integration are made centring on the requirement for legitimization of gender considerations through education and socialization. Further, the use of more task tailored physical standards is proposed as useful strategy in addressing concerns related to physiological performance.

CHAPTER 1 - INTRODUCTION

1.1 Still Talking About Gender?

On 14 February 1989, the Canadian Human Rights Tribunal (CHRT) rendered a decision that prescribed the full integration of women within the Canadian Armed Forces (CAF), giving the organization ten years to implement specific objectives.¹ A generation has passed since this decision, and many CAF members feel that, although the CHRT targets were not achieved, satisfactory progress was made and we must move on. Genders are represented across all rank and trades, men and women benefit from the same opportunities and compensation, and some think that gender-based discrimination only existed in the past. On the surface, the situation indeed looks positive and the gender-neutral attitudes can lead one to think that the CAF have achieved full integration. Yet, when it comes to gender integration, success should also be measured by qualitative factors based on serving conditions, as they encompass nuances that quantitative factors overlook. While there is no denying that major changes have been implemented, there is scope for further improvement.

From those who genuinely see the pertinence of discussions on gender issues to those simply wanting to move on, opinions vary largely despite what is known to be acceptable. Behind the official messaging, some issues linked to gender still linger, and many themes provoke lively reactions: the perception of a glass ceiling for women given the misrepresentation of women in senior ranks versus in lower ranks, the need for Operation HONOUR to be launched and enforced, and the policies that allow for positive discrimination such as the infamous CAF special measures “pink list” are just a few

¹ "Brown V. Canadian Armed Forces," last modified Feb 20, accessed May 18, 2018

examples.² These themes not only remind us of the challenges that remain in the organization related to gender integration, but they also divide and create tension among members, thus, suggesting that we have not yet struck a balance.

With the undercurrent of a feminist revolution currently ongoing in Canadian society, it is more pertinent than ever to continue examining gender and gender integration. The debate on the subject within the CAF is going strong and it can leave no one indifferent.³ In fact, if not for the good reason of making things right, the CAF will need to address existing issues to be able to fulfill the SSE mandate to be at 25% of women representation by 2026, which implies the need to attract and retain females.⁴ If the premise of this paper that significant issues related to gender remain is in fact accurate, solving it will be crucial prior to tackle greater challenges such as the modernization of the forces through “The Journey”.

1.2 Taking Stock Of The Situation

In Canada, fears of the feminization of the CAF are often twinned with complaints of its civilianization; both women and bureaucrats are viewed as diluting the essential nature of the military.

- Andrea Lane, *Special Men*

In an attempt to treat men and women equally, the CAF have been striving to become gender-blind. As a result, it is generally seen as acceptable not to consider gender

² *Strong Secure Engaged* (Ottawa, ON: National Defence, 2017), 28.; Karen D. Davis and Canadian Defence Academy, *Women and Leadership in the Canadian Forces: Perspectives and Experience* (Winnipeg: Canadian Defence Academy Press,[2007]). ; Goldenberg, I. (2006) *Special selection program for female selection to Canadian Forces Command and Staff Course Programme*. (Technical Memorandum 2006-11). Ottawa, Defence Research and Development Canada.

³ An illustration of the debates is presented in the Defence Womens Advisory Organization Facebook page at: <https://www.facebook.com/groups/2003965319836884/?fref=nf>

⁴ *Strong Secure Engaged*, 23, 33.

in any circumstances. The removal of gender indicators in the evaluation system is a concrete example of a measure taken to make human resources related decision making independent of gender.⁵ To an extent, this policy has been successful and it still prevails in the organization. Still, there are rumbles of discontentment on retention and progression for women, so the CAF continue to struggle with gender integration. This raises the questions of whether gender-blindness is the solution and, perhaps, even if gender neutrality exists.

One of the possible explanations as to why issues remain with a gender-blind approach is the *de facto* implication of such policy that both genders are not equal. If both genders were considered equally as good, why would we not be allowed to recognize them? When applied to talent management, Professor Margaret Karsten writes that inclusivity begins by valuing diverse contributions, not by ignoring differences.⁶ It is the year of 2018 and statistics show that the CAF is stagnated in trying to achieve gender equality. With a view to re-invigorate the efforts and improve the situation, this paper asks: why not aim at treating men and women with the principle of fairness rather than equality? This would require gender differences to be acknowledged.⁷ In fact, a non-discriminatory workplace does not necessarily mean a fair and accepting workplace which is one where individuals are valued for who they are and for what they have to

⁵ The Canadian Forces Personnel Appraisal System proscribes the use of gender indicators in annual performance reporting.

⁶ Margaret Foegen Karsten, *Gender, Race and Ethnicity in the Workplace*, 1. publ. ed. (Westport, Conn. [u.a.]: Praeger, 2006), 153-156.

⁷ For more on the Canadian Government approach, see the Status of Women Canada information accessible at : <http://www.swc-cfc.gc.ca/gba-acis/index-en.html>

offer. Different people have different needs, and these needs can't be met with a gender-blind approach.

The persistent denial of women as women in the military, whether perceived as a gender neutral or gender blind perspective, raises important considerations regarding not only the contribution of women to the Canadian Forces (CF), but also how sex and gender is constructed and understood by the CF.⁸

There is currently an elephant in the CAF in the form of gender differences. Men and women are different, and they do not simply differ physiologically. In the period between the enactment of the Charter (1985) and the CHRT decision of integrating women in all trades, the CAF leadership spent most of its allotted time and resources to conduct studies which would give empirical evidence to prove women's incapacity to fulfill all occupations.⁹ To their despair, studies failed to demonstrate this and the Tribunal ruled "that there [was] no risk based on physical capability to the inclusion of qualified women in [...] all-male units and occupations."¹⁰ The wording for this was chosen carefully, and just so we set the record straight, all agree that *justified* performance standards have to be met by everyone, regardless of personal characteristics such as gender.¹¹

In the same vein, the Tribunal also declared that women had proved to be able to perform in all trades in the Forces and therefore, their potential warranted them the right to serve in any occupation or unit in the Forces, including in roles of combat.¹² Notwithstanding this ruling, both physiological and psychosociological aspects influence

⁸ Karen D. Davis, "Sex, Gender and Cultural Intelligence in the Canadian Forces," *Commonwealth & Comparative Politics* 47, no. 4 (Nov 1, 2009), 431. doi:10.1080/14662040903375091.

⁹ Ibid.

¹⁰ "Brown V. Canadian Armed Forces,"

¹¹ The requirement is to demonstrate legally defensible bona fide occupational requirements or BFORs.

¹² "Brown V. Canadian Armed Forces,"

someone's personality and performance, and by extension, their leadership.¹³ Despite the fact that there are sensitivities around the topic, this makes gender a key consideration when assessing the leadership of a CAF member. I argue that the dialogue has to be re-opened for the current leadership to legitimately be able to pursue organizational improvements in gender integration, and only women can initiate this process. For the sake of all CAF currently serving and future members, a shift in the paradigm of gender sensitivities is proposed.

The line between gender-based discrimination and gender-based policies is thin and there is an imperative to not infringe upon members' rights, including those of men. In order to properly consider this subject without repercussions, a review of scientifically supported facts on gender differences is required. However how difficult to state the respective strength and weaknesses, we must present an honest picture of the situation to properly address gender related issues. At a time where greater challenges await, such as a true integration of all members of our diverse society in the CAF, we have the opportunity to develop and test a model to fully implement changes as they pertain to the workforce becoming less and less homogeneous.

1.3 Thesis And Research Questions

This paper will examine how gender differences in leadership styles and associated trends in results obtained can be used to increase organizational performance within the CAF. This will be accomplished through questions aimed at considering the links between leadership style and the results obtained within the organization as well as the

¹³ Barbara Bird and Candida Brush, "A Gendered Perspective on Organizational Creation," *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice* 26, no. 3 (Apr, 2002), 44. doi:10.1177/104225870202600303.

links between gender and leadership style. The results currently sought by the CAF will be examined with a view to explore the possibilities of using gender as a factor in seeking to better employ people according to their gender. The following questions will guide the research:

Question 1: How do men and women differ physiologically and psychosociologically?

Question 2: Do leaders tend towards different styles of leadership based on their gender?

Question 3: Are there trends in recent research and differences in the results obtained by different leadership styles?

Question 4: What does the CAF aspire to as a government employer with a complex and uniquely challenging mandate?

Question 5: How could gender trends and differences be managed within the organization to maximize the overall CAF performance?

1.4 Limitations

This paper does not examine the issue of progression in the organization in relation to gender. Rather, the focus is on understanding how to potentially employ the differences in how individuals choose to lead to identify the optimum approaches for the person. The paper also focuses on applicability of gender-specific factors in the function of leading the organization rather than in leading the people.¹⁴ Therefore, it explores employment in leadership positions in the officer corps at the rank of major/lieutenant-

¹⁴ Canada. Dept. of National Defence, *Leadership in the Canadian Forces: Conceptual Foundations* (Ottawa: Published under the auspices of the Chief of the Defence Staff by the Canadian Defence Academy, Canadian Forces Leadership Institute, [2005]).

commander and above. Finally, it should be noted that the ideas proposed in this paper are in line with observations made in patriarchal societies. Often times, aside from the physiological differences, the findings are likely to be opposite in matriarchal societies.

1.5 Paper Outline

To begin, a literature review of key theoretical concepts of leadership will be presented to lay the ground for the discussion related to gender-trends in leadership. The following chapter will focus on how gender factors in leadership abilities, style, values and attitudes, as well as in the perception of leaders. After a review of the findings on trends in a chapter dedicated to gender specific findings, the focus of the paper will shift to the CAF themselves. The current and future expectations of leaders within the CAF will be explained and put in the context of changes in the characteristics of those coming from the Canadian society. This will be done in order to ascertain the pertinence of the findings related to gender-trends for the organization. A summary of those findings and observations will be presented, as well as recommendations on how gender could be taken into account in the talent management of the future CAF leaders. The paper will conclude with some thoughts on how this relates to SSE and how the CAF could potentially use this research model to overcome other existing challenges such as ethnic diversity.

1.6 Term Definition: Gender

Prior to delve into the study of leadership trends related to gender, it is appropriate to specify what the term gender is intended to depict. For the purpose of this research, sex refers to the categorization of being either male or female based on biological characteristics (especially physical body parts, chromosomes and hormone levels) and

most often assigned at birth. Gender, however, is socially acquired or learned (most often during adolescence) hence refers to how the individual sees themselves and how they chose to present their identity to others. Thus, an individual presents or performs their gender through a range of behaviours which are culturally known as either feminine or masculine. Of importance, individuals are surrounded from birth in social and cultural contexts that serve to send recurring messages of the appropriate way to present ones gender with a strong emphasis that one's gender is expected to be aligned should assigned sex.

As society is evolving, so is the understanding of *gender* in popular Canadian culture: the concept of flexibility of one's gender is increasingly being accepted to support those who find the binary view of the term overly prescriptive. In other terms, it is suggested that the concepts of men and women and the perspectives of what is masculine or feminine are made through learned behaviors, and that the terms expand on a continuum that the binary categories do not suffice to depict.¹⁵ Although recognized, this concept is set aside for the purpose of analysing existing studies and findings on gender-trends in leadership, which have historically been conducted using the term gender in accordance with the binary view.

¹⁵ Judith Butler, *Performative Acts and Gender Constitution: An Essay in Phenomenology and Feminist Theory* (Columbia UP, 1997), 523.

CHAPTER 2 – LEADERSHIP THEORIES

2.1 Purpose

The objective of this paper is to demonstrate that a recognition of gender factors in leadership could be used for better talent management within the CAF. This chapter presents a review of the theories of leadership emerging through the evolution of modern western culture, which will establish the validity of the proposed shift to consider gender factors. By delving into the strengths and weaknesses of each concept, a case will be made that each of them emerged to address the weaknesses of previous ones. This, in turn, will support the inclusion of the gender aspect as part of the next logical bound in the study of leadership.

2.2 Introduction

Leadership can notably be a profit multiplying factor for businesses, a power asset in politics, or a determining voicing tool for social movements. Whatever the field of expertise, it is a social discipline of immense interest for western cultures and continues to be studied extensively. This chapter will provide a review of three broad categories of theories developed in the 20th century: traits-based, behavioural and contingency. The literature review will continue with the most salient relational theories and will conclude with the most current work on charismatic, transformational, transactional and laissez-faire theories. The chapter concludes with a summary of the key points presented.

2.3 Traits-Based Leadership

Carlyle T. believed that leaders were born, not made, and published his theories in a book in 1907. In search of *the Great man*, he “attributes leaders with special traits of character and believes and that they possess an extraordinary personality which

distinguishes them from the led.”¹⁶ Although criticized for its lack of empirical evidence, the traits-based theory formed the base of contemporary leadership and some of his key concepts are still recognized by scholars over 100 years after his ideas were published.¹⁷ The concept was found to be lacking as no theorist was able to prove that possession of a specific set of traits automatically means that a person is a leader. As will be presented, however, traits-based approaches have recently re-emerged as the subject of further research.

2.4 Behavioral Leadership Theories

In 1939 in the state of Iowa Leadership Studies, Lewin, Lippitt and White introduced a shift of theories from the traits-based explained above towards the analysis of behaviours displayed by leaders.¹⁸ They initiated a series of studies with an experiment where authoritarian, democratic and laissez-faire leaders were compared, and discovered that “democratic leadership positively correlates with motivation and satisfaction of the group members.”¹⁹ The authoritative leader triggered negative reactions among the group, while the chaos in the group led by the laissez-faire leader caused a general lack of resolve.²⁰ One of the issues with this research was its applicability to businesses and other environments of interest in general, since it was exclusively conducted on male children and within the confines of a laboratory.²¹

¹⁶ Thomas Carlyle, *Heroes and Hero Worship* (Chicago: Donohue.

¹⁷ Busse Ronald, "Comprehensive Leadership Review - Literature, Theories and Research," *Advances in Management* 7, no. 5 (May 1, 2014), 54.

¹⁸ Kurt Lewin, Ronald Lippitt and Ralph K. White, *Patterns of Aggressive Behavior in Experimentally Created "Social Climates"*, 1939).

¹⁹ Ibid, 55.

²⁰ Ibid.

²¹ Ibid.

The series of studies of behavioural leadership theories continued under Fleishman's lead at Ohio State in 1945. A two-dimensional approach was presented, proposing that a leader's behavior is dominated either by a concern for task objectives or a concern for relationship objectives.²² As situational leadership theorists would later suggest, this approach did not account for variables such as the context and specific situation, and wrongfully illustrated tasks and relationship related behaviors as mutually exclusive.²³ In the same time period over at University of Michigan, Likert developed a behavioural approach where leaders would be placed on a continuum between having a focus on production and a focus on employees.²⁴ It was distinct from Fleishman's two-dimensional approach in that the behaviours were put on a single axis, as two extremes, asserting that one can't display both behaviours simultaneously.²⁵ Similarly to the task versus relationship theory developed in Ohio, the theory of leaders' behaviour focus on the production versus employees continuum and did not account for context and situational variables.²⁶ The theories following these studies were designed to remediate this gap.

Using the previous studies as a stepping stone to their own approach on leadership styles in 1958, Tannenbaum and Schmidt developed the leadership style continuum, ranging from seven styles between authority and delegation.²⁷ At the core of their

²² Paul E. Madlock, "The Link between Leadership Style, Communicator Competence, and Employee Satisfaction," *Journal of Business Communication* 45, no. 1 (Jan, 2008), 61-78. doi:10.1177/0021943607309351.

²³ Victor H. Vroom and Arthur G. Jago, "The Role of the Situation in Leadership," *American Psychologist* 62, no. 1 (Jan, 2007), 17-24. doi:10.1037/0003-066X.62.1.17.

²⁴ Rensis Likert, *New Patterns of Management* (New York [u.a.]: McGraw-Hill, 1961).

²⁵ Busse Ronald, "Comprehensive Leadership Review - Literature, Theories and Research," , 56.

²⁶ Vroom and Jago, "The Role of the Situation in Leadership," , 17-24

²⁷ Robert Tannenbaum and Warren H. Schmidt, *How to Choose a Leadership Pattern*, Reprint ed. (Boston: Harvard Business Review Press, 2009).

findings, the characteristics of the leader and followers would dictate which of the styles is best suited in given situations.²⁸ Although theoretically useful, Tannenbaum and Schmidt's continuum was not linked with performance indicators, making it of limited practical use to determine what the optimal style would be. Behavioural theories of lesser influence continued to be developed, but from Tannenbaum and Schmidt's leadership styles continuum, contingency leadership theories later emerged.

2.5 Contingency Theories Of Leadership

Fiedler initiated the development of contingency theories in the late 1960s by adding a building bloc to Fleishman's task versus relationship two-dimensional theory, proposing the situation as a third factor influencing leadership effectiveness.²⁹ His research led to the contingency model with the conclusion that different tasks structure and different relationships with followers called for different leadership styles.³⁰ He also provided grounds to assert that leaders perform better when tasks and relationships call for their preferred style, or in Ronald Busse's words in his review of leadership theory, "the job must fit the manager, and not vice versa".³¹ This finding is of particular interest for this paper since it supports the idea that, although a leader must be developed to increase their effectiveness within the CAF by learning to use a wide range of leadership approaches, better performance is likely to happen when people are employed in accordance with their natural strengths or preferred style. Despite the progress put forth

²⁸ Hsi Chang Li, Sam Mirmirani and Joseph A. Ilacqua, "Confucius Institutes," *The Learning Organization* 16, no. 6 (Sep 18, 2009), 469-482. doi:10.1108/09696470910993945.

²⁹ Fred Edward Fiedler, *A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness*, 1967).

³⁰ Busse Ronald, "Comprehensive Leadership Review - Literature, Theories and Research," , 58

³¹ Fiedler, *A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness* ; Busse Ronald, "Comprehensive Leadership Review - Literature, Theories and Research," , 52

by Fiedler, theorists Bass and Stodgill highlighted two main limitations: leaders had to be either tasks or relationships oriented and that the assessment of situational control was often erroneous.³² These were found to reduce the applicability of the theory.

The situational leadership theory, originally known as life cycle theory, was proposed by Hersey and Blanchard in 1977 and is built on Tannenbaum and Schmidt's idea that no one leadership style is the best.³³ Hersey and Blanchard also furthered Fleisman's two-dimensional model, this time by adding the maturity of subordinates as the third variable.³⁴ The more mature the subordinates, the more relationship oriented should the leader be. The main weakness of the theory comes in the assessment of the maturity level which is based on ability and willingness as Hersey and Blanchard developed categories that place the importance of ability above a subordinates' willingness.³⁵ Consequently, ability became the more influential performance indicator, however this statement that has not been supported empirically.³⁶ Finally for the situational theory, it was noted that the model also fails to take the context into account, and the low internal consistency of measures raised many questions that remain unanswered.³⁷

A number of additional contingency theories emerged throughout the 1970s and 1980s, such as House's Path-Goal theory or Vroom, Yetton and Jago's normative

³² Ralph M. Stodgill, *Handbook of Leadership* (New York [u.a.]: The Free Press, 1974).

³³ Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard, *Management of Organizational Behavior*, 6. ed. ed. (New York, NY [u.a.]: Prentice-Hall, 1993) ; Chang Li, Mirmirani and Ilacqua, "Confucius Institutes", 469-482

³⁴ Hersey and Blanchard, *Management of Organizational Behavior*

³⁵ Busse Ronald, "Comprehensive Leadership Review - Literature, Theories and Research," , 58.

³⁶ Ibid.

³⁷ Vroom and Jago, "The Role of the Situation in Leadership," , 17-24

decision model.³⁸ These theories furthered the idea that leadership should be looked at either from the leader's point of view, whether it be about their traits, skills or approach, or from the follower and the context's point of view.³⁹ The dynamic between leaders and led was left out. For instance, the Path-Goal theory proposed that followers' performance and satisfaction can be improved if their leader provides proper motivation and a clear path to be taken.⁴⁰ By assessing the task and the followers, the theory prescribed the use of one in four leadership styles that would provide motivation to subordinates to achieve the goal set for them.⁴¹ Peter Northouse points out the main weaknesses of this theory, citing its complexity, its lack of consideration for the two-way relationship between leader and led, as well as the lack of supporting evidence for a cause and effect relationship between leader's behavior and followers' motivation.⁴² The normative decision model was then proposed, offering several similarities with the Iowa studies of Lewin, Lippitt and White, but adding a decision tree to guide leaders in determining what style is best suited to be adopted.⁴³ Some credit has been given to those contributions to leadership theory, however as the next approach suggests, a focus on the relationships between a leader and each of their followers was seen to offer a better perspective.

2.6 Relational Theory Of Leadership

³⁸ Robert J. House, "A Path Goal Theory of Leader Effectiveness," *Administrative Science Quarterly* 16, no. 3 (Sep 1, 1971), 321-339. ; Gary Yukl, "A Retrospective on Robert House's "1976 Theory of Charismatic Leadership" and Recent Revisions," *The Leadership Quarterly* 4, no. 3 (1993), 367-373. doi:10.1016/1048-9843(93)90041-Q. ; Vroom and Jago, "The Role of the Situation in Leadership," , 17-24

³⁹ Peter Guy Northouse, *Leadership*, seventh Edition , international student edition ed. (Los Angeles [u.a.]: SAGE, 2016), 137.

⁴⁰ Ibid, 115.

⁴¹ Ibid, 117.

⁴² Ibid, 123-124.

⁴³ Lewin, Lippitt and White, *Patterns of Aggressive Behavior in Experimentally Created "Social Climates"* ; Busse Ronald, "Comprehensive Leadership Review - Literature, Theories and Research," , 59.

The most prominent model of relational leadership theory is known as the Leader-Member Exchange theory, put forth in 1975 by Dansereau, Graen, Haga, and Cashman and reviewed by several scholars since.⁴⁴ Through Vertical Dyad Linkages (VDL), this theory started to define relationships between leaders and followers according to one of two categories: the in-group, where there are valuable and also informal exchanges, and the out-group, where greater personal distance is maintained and exchanges remain formal.⁴⁵ As Busse explained in his review, the relationship between “leader and in-group member [...] are empirically proved to produce a high quality relationship that effectively supports motivation, satisfaction and performance.”⁴⁶ The Leader-Member Exchange theory provided solid grounds for the transformational leadership theory to be developed with the main criticism focussed on the failure to account for the situation.⁴⁷

2.7 Charismatic, Transformational, Transactional And *Laissez-Faire* Theories

Weber’s 1947 original work on charismatic leadership stated that followers attribute extraordinary qualities (charisma) to their leader.⁴⁸ Since then, a number of social scientists have studied this type of leadership including House (1976), Burns (1978), Conger (1999) and Hunt & Conger (1999). Over this period, there has been a shift in its description.⁴⁹ As summarised by Yukl in his review of the work on charismatic

⁴⁴ Northouse, *Leadership*, 138.

⁴⁵ Fred Dansereau, George Graen and William J. Haga, "A Vertical Dyad Linkage Approach to Leadership within Formal Organizations," *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance* 13, no. 1 (1975), 46-78. doi:10.1016/0030-5073(75)90005-7.

⁴⁶ Busse Ronald, "Comprehensive Leadership Review - Literature, Theories and Research," , 60.

⁴⁷ Krishnan V. R., Leader-member exchange, transformational leadership and value system, *Electronic Journal of Business Ethics and Organization Studies*, 10(1), 14-21 (2005).

⁴⁸ Yukl, "A Retrospective on Robert House's “1976 Theory of Charismatic Leadership” and Recent Revisions," , 293. ; Gottfried Salomon Delatour, *The Theory of Social and Economic Organization*, Vol. 13 American Sociological Society, 1948), 349-351.

⁴⁹ Northouse, *Leadership*, 164.

leadership: “These theories describe charismatic leadership in terms of the amount of leader influence over followers and the type of leader-follower relationship that emerges.”⁵⁰ In other words, instead of focussing on how exceptional the leader is, the emphasis shifted to the personal traits that will have direct effects on the actions of the followers who recognize them as a leader.

In a leading study of charismatic leadership study, House proposed that charismatic leaders were dominant, had a desire to influence, were self-confident and had strong moral values.⁵¹ They were strong role model, showed competence, articulated goals and set high expectations, expressed confidence and aroused motives.⁵² He argued that the effects of these attributes and behaviors would be to tie “followers and their self-concepts to the organizational identity” which is why charismatic leadership works.⁵³

The transformational leadership style was originally proposed by Bass in 1985 and drew from House’s Charismatic leadership theory.⁵⁴ Bass suggested that leaders use influence on subordinates to make them behave a certain way, or as the name indicates, to transform their behavior.⁵⁵ The theory proposes four leadership factors, called the four “I”s: Idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized considerations.⁵⁶ When their leader successfully employs transformational leadership, followers will act in the desired way and even do more than what is expected

⁵⁰ Yukl, "A Retrospective on Robert House's "1976 Theory of Charismatic Leadership" and Recent Revisions," , 293.

⁵¹ Yukl, "A Retrospective on Robert House's "1976 Theory of Charismatic Leadership" and Recent Revisions," , 367-373

⁵² Ibid.

⁵³ Northouse, *Leadership*, 165.

⁵⁴ Busse Ronald, "Comprehensive Leadership Review - Literature, Theories and Research," , 60.

⁵⁵ Bernard M. Bass, *Leadership and Performance Beyond Expectations*, 1. print. ed. (New York u.a: Free Press u.a, 1985).

⁵⁶ Northouse, *Leadership*, 167-168.

or what they believe they could achieve in order to please their leader or to realize the institutions' goals. This style is more complex and challenging to exercise as it depends on the leader's personal skills to influence others in a desired fashion. Particularly when leaders' official authority or their ability to reward and punish individuals are removed but a relationship of transformational leadership was developed, the subordinates will still follow direction; where the subordinates behaved a certain way only to receive a reward or to avoid a consequence, the desired behavior will cease.

When developing the theory of transformational leadership, Bass identified a continuum of styles including the Laissez-Faire style describing an absence of leadership, and the Transactional leadership as a middle ground.⁵⁷ The best way to explain transactional leadership is to refer to a traditional model of authoritarianism where an individual uses their position of authority, along with their power of punishment and ability to provide rewards, to promote compliance.⁵⁸ This leadership style requires no personal skills *per se*, as it strictly depends on the level of authority and the resources granted to a person. Conversely, in the event that officially recognized authority along with rewards and punishment resources would no longer be at the disposal of the head of the organization, this style would not allow for successful leadership to be exercised. It is considered much less effective than the transformational style but can still provide results so long that the leader follows through with the promises of rewards or with the threats of imposing consequences on those who do not obey.⁵⁹

2.8 Chapter Summary

⁵⁷ Northouse, *Leadership*, 166-167.

⁵⁸ Busse Ronald, "Comprehensive Leadership Review - Literature, Theories and Research," , 60.

⁵⁹ (Canada. Dept. of National Defence 2005, 68.)

In this chapter, the evolution of leadership theory in the modern western culture was presented in five categories: Trait-based; Behavioural; Contingency; Relational; and Charismatic, transformational, transactional and laissez-faire. Carlyle proposed the trait-based approach in 1907 suggesting a list of qualities that would be indicative of leadership skills. In 1939 in the Iowa studies, Lewin, Lippit and White initiated the switch of leadership theory from traits to behaviors, identifying the authoritarian, democratic and laissez-faire styles. Although only tested on male children subjects, the theory established a link between a democratic leadership style and employees' motivation at work, as opposed to negative effects of both other approaches. In Ohio in 1945, research conducted under Fleishman brought the two-dimensional theory of tasks versus relationships focus. Likert proposed that leaders focus either on production or on employees but, like other behavioral studies, failed to account for the situation or the context. In 1958, Tannenbaum & Schmidt proposed the last behavioral theory of importance, with their seven leadership styles defined by the level of authority used and the amount of delegation done. They also introduced the idea that both leaders and followers' characteristics had to be considered in deciding which of the styles to adopt.

In 1960, Fiedler developed contingency theory by adding the situation to the Iowa studies tasks versus relationship focussed approach. These studies provided grounds to affirm that leaders perform best when operating in an environment where their natural style is appropriate, a finding of great importance for this paper. Hersey & Blanchard proposed the situational theory in 1977. Their contribution was the addition of the subordinate's maturity (based on ability and willingness) to the dimensions of tasks and relationships. House proposed the path-goal theory around the same period, where the

importance of employees' motivation and goal setting were proven to be essential to effective leadership. The normative decision model was developed by Vroom, Yetton and Jago as a tool for leaders to assess what style they should use. As part of the relational type of leadership concept, the leader-member exchange theory stated that employees are either classified in the in-group or the out-group of a leader. When part of the in-group, employees had greater motivation and satisfaction at work. In 1985, Bass developed the transformational (based on charismatic leadership), transactional, and laissez-faire styles, highlighting the transformational style as the most reliable style for leaders to adopt.

Through the review of different theories in sequence of emergence, it was observed that the models usually answered specific weaknesses of previous ones but that important findings have continued to emerge since the 1900s. Well known and highlighted in CAF leadership doctrine, transformational remains the best theory developed to this day but does not account for cultural perception biases, such as those towards females, individuals of non-heterosexual orientation, or persons of various ethnicity.⁶⁰ Chapter three will investigate gender factors and theories having an impact on leadership effectiveness using some of the concepts retained from the leadership theory summarized above.

⁶⁰ Ibid.

CHAPTER 3 – GENDER DIFFERENCES IN LEADERSHIP

“Gender blindness is the failure to recognise that the roles and responsibilities of women/girls and men/boys are ascribed to, or imposed upon, them in specific social, cultural, economic and political contexts. Gender-blind project, programmes, policies and attitudes do not take into account these different roles and diverse needs. They therefore maintain status quo and will not help transform the unequal structure of gender relations.”

- United Nations Statistics Division

3.1 Purpose

As stated to in the introduction, men and women are different and are socialized to be different; this fact should be something that can be stated without the originator being accused of being misogynistic. In order for people to be treated fairly and utilized to their full potential, an acknowledgement of men and women’s differences is required in terms of needs and skills, strengths and weaknesses. To this end, this chapter is included for the purposes of asserting differences in men and women, both physiological and psychosociological, and to explain the impact that those have on the results obtained by each gender as leaders. Defining existing gender distinctions is the cornerstone of this paper, which aims at persuading CAF senior leaders that gender is a key aspect of personnel profiling for succession planned positions.

3.2 Introduction

In this chapter, the gender factor will be described as a significant aspect to consider when selecting and assessing leaders. Firstly, physiological differences will be described, starting by looking at the brain composition and functioning differences for each gender. Physiological differences will be discussed further through an analysis of existing literature on hormonal systems dissimilarities between genders. A brief review of what is already known on physical abilities will conclude the section on physiological

distinctions. Secondly, based on the leadership concepts explained in Chapter 2, psychosociological gender differences will be explored to determine the trends they create in terms of leadership effectiveness. This will be done by examining leadership style by gender, as well as values and attitudes. Thirdly and lastly, the topic of perception bias's influence on performance and assessment of leaders will be explored. Theories such as social role, role congruity, and leadership categorization theories will be presented to highlight how people place different expectations on men and women in northwestern society. Concepts from the Lack of Fit model and gender profiling will be developed as the last part of the perception biases section. The goal of this last section is also to explain why similar behaviors are interpreted differently when they are adopted by men as opposed to by women, so an awareness of this bias can be developed.

3.3 Physiological Differences

One of the aspects of physiological differences that is less discussed is how men and women's brains function. According to neuroscience, men and women's brains function differently, and a close look at the activity and composition of their brains can provide evidence of gender trends in decision-making, in behaviors in general, and in reasoning.⁶¹ Other biological factors, such as hormones fluctuations, are found to have impacts on behaviors of men and women, an examination of these factors is necessary to better understand how men and women are different.

3.3.1 Brain Composition

Several aspects of physiological differences pertain to the structure of the brain. Research shows that the prefrontal cortex, the part of the human brain which controls

⁶¹ Barbara Annis and Richard Nesbitt, *Results at the Top* (US: John Wiley & Sons Inc, 2017), 40-44.

judgement, decision making, and consequential thinking, develops earlier in girls and becomes bigger in women brains. This results in many women being less prone to taking risks than men, and more detailed oriented than men with a tendency to verbalize those details when possible. The corpus callosum, the information processing center of the brain that connects the left and right hemispheres of the brain, it is differently shaped and 25% bigger on average in women brains. A consequence of this difference is that men are more likely to be linear-thinkers than women as the latter can more easily use both parts of their brains to organize thoughts and idea. Women's thinking occurs contextually or holistically as they use both parts of their brain simultaneously, while men are rather linear-thinkers as a result of using their left and right brain sequentially. The anterior cortex is also generally larger in women's brains. This causes differences in the way that men and women process memories and emotions and how they reflect and express concerns. For instance, women have a larger area of sensitivity which is suggested to be the source of *feminine intuition*, and they are prone to having more anxiety than men.

The insula, or insular cortex, also happens to be larger in women's brains. Approximately twice as large in fact. It is a highly complex portion of the brain and it drives a wide variety of physical and emotional functions of the cerebral activity. The impact of greater size insula in each hemisphere of the brain enables women to have an increase consciousness of thoughts and emotions, translating them into memories, and rendering them more accessible to draw upon and learn from them as required. Together with the hippocampus, it often moderates women's willingness to take unnecessary risks or even to act hastily and enables women to remember intricate details of past experiences. "The hippocampus is the center for long-term emotional memory and is

almost twice as large and more active in women than in men.”⁶² The overall increase in emotional consciousness and memory is useful knowledge, but it can also be a source of hesitation in decision-making and therefore, this awareness can be both a deterrent and a strength.

The amygdala is another relevant brain component that is significantly different in men’s versus in women’s brains as it is significantly bigger and more active in men. Responsible for our reactions to fear, danger or stress, the amygdala is what enables us to manage and react to those threats. Given their bigger and more active amygdala, many men have an advantage when comes time to act quickly and, often, aggressively to what is perceived as a threatening situation. In the human brain, the cerebellum controls the motor function of the body and plays a role in the span of attention and language abilities. It is one of the areas triggered by the amygdala when a stress or a perceived danger are encountered so again, these abilities tend to be greater in men. When it comes to skills such as non-verbal communications, reaction time, fine-tuning of motor activity, men’s brain gives most of them a significant advantage hence they generally perform better in these areas.

Notwithstanding why or how evolution transformed human brains to be distinctive based on sex at birth, cerebral functions of men and women operate differently and cause people to be naturally better at some things, while struggling at some others. These strengths and associated weaknesses being in reverse for both sex, it is logical to think that men and women complete each other when solving a problem. As an example, while the increased emotional awareness, larger processing of information, memory and

⁶² Ibid, 42.

analysis capabilities are assets for women, it can also cause some to get bogged down in the minutiae and lose sight of the overall objectives pursued. Conversely, over-active amygdala can result in men being too hasty and aggressive when reacting to what they see as a threatening situation. Effective pairing of the strengths of women and men can result in more timely and effective.

3.3.2 Hormonal Composition

As stated earlier in this section, in addition to the brain development and connections, key variances are also noted on the hormones composition in women and men's bodies.⁶³ Testosterone, oxytocin, and cortisol are the three hormones that influence men and women behaviors distinctively. A higher level of testosterone in men, at a level 20 to 30 times higher than in women, plays a role in their drive, competitiveness, creativity, intellect, stress coping abilities, and even the feeling of being successful. As the testosterone level in men decreases when confronted with difficulty or failure, this can explain why some men tend to ignore difficult problems. While appearing withdrawn or shut down, they can in fact be building up the mental strength and testosterone level to tackle the issue.

The hormone of oxytocin enhances social attachment, social recognition, bonding and the formation of trust between people; all positive feelings. Women can experience a rise in their oxytocin level when having a relaxing conversation, or a reduction if they feel ignored. Oxytocin usually affects levels of testosterone and cortisol in men and women in ways that are having opposites effect on the level of stress felt. As a result, men can choose to avoid conversation to preserve testosterone level and better cope with

⁶³ Ibid, 44-45.

stress, because oxytocin reduces their testosterone. Women benefit from conversation when they are stressed, because being alone increases their stress and lowers their oxytocin level.

Cortisol interacts with the two hormones discussed above, and its level needs to be maintained within a certain range in order to be beneficial and avoid negative effects. Too much cortisol can impact physical and mental capacities such as blood pressure and mental functions such as the ability to think clearly or learn. In women, stress increases cortisol, cortisol increases testosterone, and testosterone restrains the production of oxytocin. Since oxytocin reduces stress in women, if the cycle is pushed too far it can cause women to experience levels of stress causing anxiety, preventing them from relaxing and collecting themselves. In men, elevated cortisol lowers testosterone, can cause weight gain and increase anxiety as well as irritability. In summary, the effects of cortisol fluctuations are impacting both sexes negatively, however nowadays, cortisol levels of women average on two to four times that of men depending if they are at home or at work. Women are therefore considered as being more stressed than men in North-American society in general.⁶⁴

3.3.3 Physical Advantages And Disadvantages

While a debate around disparities in men's and women's physical strength and capacities disparity continues, legislation requires employers to give men and women equal opportunities to qualify for employment opportunities. Although not directly

⁶⁴ It should be noted that medicine is also considered gender neutral but is criticized for being male centric hence categorizing women with having problems when they really don't. Klonoff EA, Landrine H, Campbell R. *Sexist discrimination may account for well-known gender differences in psychiatric symptoms*. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*. 2000;24(1):93–99.

related to leadership abilities, physical abilities are deemed to impact how leadership is exercised within the military due to the CAF culture. The organization will be described in greater details in chapter 4, however for the purpose of discussing gender differences it is pertinent to describe how men and women differ physically, since it can affect the acceptance of a leader by a group, their perceived legitimacy, and it can contribute to the success or failure of this individual.

In a paper for the Second International Conference on Physical Employment Standards, a compilation of existing research on men and women's body size and composition, muscular strength and endurance, aerobic power, and anaerobic power was produced.⁶⁵ Their review of the existing literature indicates that women are disadvantaged on the body size and composition, muscular strength and endurance, and in anaerobic power. For aerobically demanding tasks, women were found to be able to potentially perform on par with men, with the caveat that they require arduous training to achieve this. The studies also looked at differences in endurance to extremely hot and cold temperatures. Due to the higher percentage of body fat, women were found to be more resistant to cold temperatures. On the flip side, having a smaller muscular mass and less ability to sweat, women are less resistant to heat, and their physical performance is likely to be lower in very hot temperatures. Finally, the research points out two other factors that disadvantage women on the physical plane: Women are more prone to injuries during training (especially when the training is based on men's body composition), and the female body's abilities decrease faster with age than they do for

⁶⁵ Delia Roberts et al., "Current Considerations Related to Physiological Differences between the Sexes and Physical Employment Standards," *Applied Physiology, Nutrition, and Metabolism* 41, no. 6 (Jun 1, 2016), S110.

males. On average, men perform better on physical aspects that involve brute or explosive strength and endurance while women are better with fine motor skills such as hand/eye coordination and mental dexterity, as well as endurance to cold temperatures. As demonstrated with elite athletes, a key consideration, however, is that, given the right training regimes, some women can perform physical activities on the same level as most men hence women should have the chance to be considered for physically demanding roles.

The next chapter will contain a section specific to the CAF culture, and will explain how the general idea of weakness surrounding women affects their ability to initially be recognized for what they have to offer. Do female leaders suffer from default stigma that must be overcome prior to be able to lead their troops? If so, it would render their task that much more challenging and a recognition of this barrier could explain some of the dynamics that female leaders have to learn to navigate. Although beyond the scope of this paper to examine in detail, this idea will be explored in chapter 4.

3.3.4 Overall Physiological Distinctions

This section discussed the biological distinctions between male and female humans' brain composition, hormonal systems, and physical strength and endurance. The findings related to physical strength reinforce the stereotype of male superiority. However, an overview of all the physiological differences between genders reveal strengths and weaknesses for both genders, which weakens the argument once heard that women cannot access combat trades based on physical limitations.⁶⁶ This is discussed to

⁶⁶ Karen D. Davis, "Negotiating Gender in the Canadian Forces, 1970–1999" ProQuest Dissertations Publishing), , 30-31.

acknowledge it as a reality that must be faced to understand its impact on women's rate of success in the trades that are more physically demanding than other (namely the combat arms), and how this can have an impact on the perception of leadership from both genders in all other trades. It should also be noted that the physical abilities disparity between genders as presented in this section does not account for race and ethnic origins. Theories on gendered ethnicity and physiological differences between races further muddles the line of physiological distinctions between men and women, but are beyond the scope of this paper. Nonetheless, as the CAF prepare to further embrace diversity, this should be factored in when making assumptions based on genders' physical abilities.

3.4 Psychosociological Differences

The type of leader that a person becomes is the sum of their innate traits, their education and socialization, culture, life experiences, and many other variables. To suggest that it is only driven by the person's sex at birth would be simplistic. Despite this, divergent trends exist in psychology between genders. These trends are like most social sciences questions of interest, in that they are not absolute or perfectly understood. Still, there is evidence that being male or female, or more accurately, how one has learned to be male or female, can be an important factor of leadership. Most people can relate to this statement by thinking of men and women that they have observed throughout their lives. A closer look at existing research findings validate some popular beliefs, while contradicting others, but this section will demonstrate that research establishes that men and women can often make different types of leaders. This section reviews gender trends in leadership style, as well as the impact of diverging values and attitudes on decision-making.

3.4.1 Style

On leadership style, social psychology doctor and Northwestern university professor Alice Eagly states that “women are in general more democratic and participative than their male counterparts.”⁶⁷ Entrepreneurial leadership professors Candida Brush and Barbara Bird explain disparities between gender styles by going back to behavioral and relational leadership theories. They state that men are more prone to retain decision making at their level and maintain a greater distance with their subordinates.⁶⁸ In line with behavioral leadership theory, these are indicative of an autocratic style of leader, which can have negative effect on subordinates, such as social pressures and tensions. Researchers Bird and Brush also find women to be more interpersonally oriented, delegating more, feeling a greater sense of commitment to their employees, and this makes them naturally predisposed to a participative approach.⁶⁹ A participative approach is usually associated with a democratic style leader, which is linked to greater motivation and performance in employees. In spite of the tendency for autocratic and democratic styles to provide performance of similar quality, the adverse effects of autocratic leaders on personnel can hinder relationships within a team, and consequently reduce future performance.⁷⁰ Leaders who are naturally participative and democratic are therefore deemed as being better contributors to organizational performance, and women display these abilities in greater proportion than men.⁷¹

⁶⁷ Alice Eagly, *WOMEN AS LEADERS: Leadership Style Versus Leaders' Values and Attitudes* (Boston, Massachusetts: Harvard School of Business, 2013), 4.

⁶⁸ Bird and Brush, "A Gendered Perspective on Organizational Creation," , 50.

⁶⁹ Ibid.

⁷⁰ (Canada. Dept. of National Defence 2005, 63.)

⁷¹ Eagly, *WOMEN AS LEADERS: Leadership Style Versus Leaders' Values and Attitudes*, 5.

When looking at the studies using transformational leadership theory, similar trends are observed. First off, the transformational style is deemed to be both androgynous and hyper-effective, and research shows that “female managers are somewhat more transformational than male managers.”⁷² Furthermore, even when they switch to a transactional style, female leaders are generally doing it in a feminine way. As Eagly explains, in situations of transactional leadership, women tend to use contingent rewards, or positive reinforcement, where men do more management-by-exception, or threat-based incentives.⁷³ This implies that women do adopt what are considered masculine leadership behaviors on occasions although they may do so in different ways. Eagly points out that there are more women doing so than there are men behaving in what is considered as feminine style.⁷⁴ In instances where the situation calls for a transactional style as per Fiedler’s contingency theory, the greater ability of women to transition from a transformational to transactional style can be considered as valuable and important advantage.

It was stated at the commencement of this section on psychosociological differences that many internal and external factors influence the type of leader that a person becomes. The reasons for this can be challenging to narrow down and to do so is beyond the scope of this paper. Nonetheless, it is important to consider all of these factors as gender is not all that defines human beings, and the role of gender differences in leadership may be trumped when individuals experience influences of greater strength.

⁷² Ibid.

⁷³ Ibid. ; Northouse, *Leadership*, 171.

⁷⁴ Eagly, *WOMEN AS LEADERS: Leadership Style Versus Leaders’ Values and Attitudes*, 5.

3.4.2 Values And Attitudes

Leadership is strongly anchored in the values and attitudes held by an individual, because they define the way that effectiveness is conceptualized.⁷⁵ In other words, values and attitudes shape a person's motivations and goals. In 2005, psychology scientists Shalom Schwartz and Tammy Rubel conducted a study to determine the nature of gender trends in values and attitudes.⁷⁶ Their findings among groups of literate men and women of seven different cultures indicated that there are consistent differences between each genders' most basic values.⁷⁷ For women, this study identified that they place higher value in benevolence and universalism, and endorse social values that promote others' welfare. More specifically, they defined universalism as the "understanding, appreciation, tolerance, and protection for the welfare of all people and for nature".⁷⁸ For benevolence, the definition used for the research was the "preservation and enhancement of the welfare of people with whom one is in frequent personal contact."⁷⁹ Women also have a tendency to be prone to self-direction more than men do, meaning that they seek independence in thoughts and action-choosing, creating, as well as exploring.⁸⁰ Conversely, men placed greater importance on values related to power, achievement and stimulation.⁸¹ Consequently, men were more driven by variables such as social status and prestige, or even by the level of control or dominance over people and resources.⁸² From these

⁷⁵ Busse Ronald, "Comprehensive Leadership Review - Literature, Theories and Research," , 16.

⁷⁶ Shalom H. Schwartz and Tammy Rubel, "Sex Differences in Value Priorities," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 89, no. 6 (Dec, 2005), 1010-1028. doi:10.1037/0022-3514.89.6.1010.

⁷⁷ Ibid, 1020.

⁷⁸ Ibid, 1010.

⁷⁹ Ibid.

⁸⁰ Ibid.

⁸¹ Ibid, 1021.

⁸² Ibid, 1010.

conclusions, it is observed that values cherished by each gender were in line with stereotypes of male and female representation. Additionally, subsequent studies have established a link between the values of a leaders and their influence on decision-making. It has been found that those tendencies are indeed replicated.⁸³ Since the value trends extend further than the ones briefly explained above, there are also other benefits tied to having female representation. Other examples even indicate that a link has been established between female leadership and restraint of corruption.⁸⁴ This deduction was drawn from research demonstrating that “women are more likely than men to support ethical business practices”.⁸⁵ Also, overall “women leaders act more in behalf of the public good”.⁸⁶

The way that gender trends in values and attitude shape decision-making of leaders is the critical aspect to understand in order to determine how this could potentially impact the selection of individuals in key assignments. As previously stated, the existing research on the topic confirms the existence of a link between gender, values, and decision-making, specifically in times of crises. For instance, in a study on leaders’ practices during periods of financial stress, female executives were found to take a wider range of stakeholders into account when making decisions, being less likely to lay off employees.⁸⁷ In addition to the impact of women in corporate boards in situations of crises, there is a study that established a relationship between their representation

⁸³ Eagly, *WOMEN AS LEADERS: Leadership Style Versus Leaders’ Values and Attitudes*, 7.

⁸⁴ *Ibid*, 8.

⁸⁵ *Ibid*, 7.

⁸⁶ *Ibid*, 9.

⁸⁷ *Ibid*, 7.

proportion and the a company's philanthropy and charitable giving.⁸⁸ So the distinction between feminine and masculine leaders' decisions is generally well understood and confirms the general population's beliefs. On the other hand, contrary findings obtained may arouse general surprise and will be discussed below.

3.4.3 Overall Psychosociological Distinctions

The concept that different leadership styles, values and attitudes exist is validated by the findings of existing research. Women have a tendency to be more democratic and participative, and tend to use a transformational approach to leadership more often. Men are generally more autocratic, delegate less, and tend to use a management-by-exception transactional approach as their preferred leadership style. The ability to learn and adopt the other gender's typical leadership style vary, but its importance can't be overstated. Women are found to display more behaviors associated with masculine approached to leadership while men use less feminine behaviors. From a perspective of values and attitudes, it has been demonstrated that women focus more on universalism and benevolence and have a stronger sense of ethics, while men place more emphasis on values related to power above others in terms of importance. Combined with the known inclinations in terms of style, differences in values and trends contributes to painting the picture of leaders based on fundamental gender tendencies. This supports the thesis in that it implies that a person's gender is one of the determining factor in the type of leader that they are.

⁸⁸ Robert J. Williams, "Women on Corporate Boards of Directors and their Influence on Corporate Philanthropy," *Journal of Business Ethics* 42, no. 1 (Jan 1, 2003), 1-10. doi:1021626024014.

3.5 Leadership Effectiveness – Men Versus Women

To explain gender distinctions in leadership trends raises questions on leadership effectiveness differences. In addition to gender disparities, studies have investigated the actual results obtained when decisions and choices are influenced by the respective tendencies of men and women. Overall, organizational performance is proven to be increased when there is a presence of female executives that partake in decision-making. Despite these findings, a case can be made that as per leadership theories, feminine tendencies such as participative and transformational leadership are not always the most effective. Context, situation, personal traits of the leader, maturity of the led, the informal vs formal relationship with each led, the nature of the tasks, etc, are all variables that may or may not call for this type of leadership. It has been noted through the review of existing literature on leadership theory that, where the circumstances allow it, participative leadership is known to produce the highest motivation for the led, and to procure the most fulfilling working environment.⁸⁹ But do women lack the assertiveness and authority of male leaders? Where does this leave us in trying to determine the best leaders to select?

A significant caveat must be placed on the findings presented thus far: women are not better decision-makers than men. The idea that is being conveyed is actually that neither are men and women are superior leaders *per se*. In fact, studies have shown that a leader that is participative (as women tend to be) can limit goal achievement, whereas a leader that is authoritarian (as men are prone to be) will damage the social relationships

⁸⁹ Ricky W. Griffin, "Relationships among Individual, Task Design, and Leader Behavior Variables," *The Academy of Management Journal* 23, no. 4 (Dec 1, 1980), 665-683. doi:10.2307/255555.

he has with people in the organization.⁹⁰ Eagly proposes that women leaders' results may fluctuate based on the types of challenges that a company goes through.⁹¹ This brings up the idea that sometimes, men of those displaying mainly masculine leadership behaviours are preferred as leaders, and other times, it is feminine leadership approaches that are needed. This idea supports the thesis in that it is important to acknowledge gender as a skill set indicator, which would allow for better talent management within the CAF. The next chapter will discuss the existing research on this topic with the intent to consider what circumstances call for masculine-like leadership and what circumstance call for feminine-like leadership. To sum up on the topic of leadership effectiveness, having women only in the executive cadre of a company has produced lower results as well as those where there were men only, suggesting that both genders working together that provide optimal results. As discussed in the physiological differences section, there are known complementary genders' strengths and weaknesses that supports this idea. When paired, male and female decision-makers can draw upon each other to improve organizational outcomes, and the same goes for style, values and attitudes.

3.6 Perception Biases

When considering leadership effectiveness in largely male-dominated organizations, one of the topics that must be examined is the one of perception biases. It is a popular belief that similar behaviors get perceived differently when adopted by people of different genders, but a look at the research and theory is necessary to confirm the validity of this assumption. This section will discuss the theories of social role, role

⁹⁰ Daniel R. Ames and Francis J. Flynn, "What Breaks a Leader: The Curvilinear Relation between Assertiveness and Leadership," *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 92, no. 2 (2007), 307-324.

⁹¹ Eagly, *WOMEN AS LEADERS: Leadership Style Versus Leaders' Values and Attitudes*, 6.

congruity, and leadership categorization, as well as the lack of fit model. The topic of perception biases is placed at the end of the chapter on gender differences, as a final layer to be added in thinking about improving gender integration within the CAF.

3.6.1 Social Role And Role Congruity Theories

Eagly and Woods proposed the social role theory as an explanation to the division of roles and responsibilities between men and women in society.⁹² Because individual socialization begins as young children, gender roles are formed and maintained as a person becomes an adult.⁹³ The division of labor between gender is at the core of the social role theory which identifies that two sets driving of factors that were of importance in previous times continue to influence our perceptions today. The first factor came from differences in physical attributes (strength, etc) and biological functions (child bearing and nurturing by women)., namely the overall superiority of men and the child bearing and nurturing by women. The second arose as a result of a range of cultural elements such as economic, social, technological, and ecological influences. Due to these factors, there were efficiencies achieved by dividing the labour in a way where men take on the chores that require strength and motor activity, while women nurture and care for other members of society such as children and the elderly. The cerebral and hormonal distinctions between sexes that are explained in the physiological differences section of this paper are also considered as shaping the social role of men and women.

In conclusion to their research on the topic of social role theory, Eagly and Woods summarize their findings by stating that “human biology and the environment act

⁹² Alice Eagly and Wendy Wood, *Social Role Theory*, 2016), 2.

⁹³ Ibid.

together to produce a division of labor [and] biology and psychology work together to facilitate role performance.”⁹⁴ In turn, this creates cultural expectations for men and women to behave a certain way. The main implication of the social role theory for this paper is to understand that by the time the CAF aspirant recruits report to the recruiting center to get enrolled, they have *learned their gender*. As adults, the social roles inherent to a person’s gender are strongly engrained in their behaviors and perceptions of the world and this reality must be acknowledged as a start point in the mentality of the recruits.

Another well documented phenomenon is explained by Eagly and Karau’s role congruity theory.⁹⁵ They discuss the systematic “backlash effect against women who adopt masculine behaviors” when placed in positions of authority.⁹⁶ This theory empirically demonstrated that “when a stereotyped group member and an incongruent social role become joined in the mind of the perceiver, this inconsistency lowers the evaluation of the group member as actual or potential occupant of the role.”⁹⁷ In the case of women in position of power, the prejudice stems from the incongruity of the socially expected behaviors from women, and the systematic association of masculine behaviors required to be a leader. The social role theory is therefore closely related to the role congruity theory, in that it validated what traits and behaviors are associated with men and women. Friendliness, concern for others, kindness, and lack selfishness are traits associated with women, while dominance, assertiveness, independence, and competence

⁹⁴ Ibid.

⁹⁵ Alice H. Eagly and Steven J. Karau, "Role Congruity Theory of Prejudice Toward Female Leaders," *Psychological Review* 109, no. 3 (2002), 573. doi:10.1037//0033-295X.109.3.573.

⁹⁶ Eagly, *WOMEN AS LEADERS: Leadership Style Versus Leaders' Values and Attitudes*, 5.

⁹⁷ Eagly and Karau, "Role Congruity Theory of Prejudice Toward Female Leaders," , 574.

are rather ascribed to men.⁹⁸ Combined with the fact that recognized leadership traits are generally considered as masculine, a conflict is created on a subconscious level between the expectations of the “appropriate” behaviours based on gender and the appropriate behaviours from one in a leadership role. This results in the perception of feminine leadership effectiveness being biased and in turn, can lead to unfair assessments of women in leadership positions. As in all other aspects called subjectivity, an awareness of the extent to which women’s performance can be affected based on their gender can be an effective mitigation measure.

3.6.2 Leadership Categorization Theory & The Lack Of Fit Model

In understanding all types of information influencing leadership perception, the theory of leadership categorization and Lack of Fit model provide additional explanations. Leadership categorization theory describes the process where the traits and attributes observed or expected of an individual are observed and then associated with the traits and attributes that the observer believes are required to fulfill the requirements of a given position.⁹⁹ Simply put, this is the theory that explains that assumptions are made on a person’s leadership skills based on how they are perceived socially. Contrary to the leadership model proposed in Fiedler’s contingency theory, studies on leadership categorization concludes that the situation does not get taken into account in social perception processes.¹⁰⁰ That is to say that a person’s beliefs in terms of appropriate leadership behaviors supersede their judgement on what appropriate response would the

⁹⁸ Eagly and Wood, *Social Role Theory*, 3.

⁹⁹ Delatour, *The Theory of Social and Economic Organization*, 854.

¹⁰⁰ Lord, Robert G., Alliger, George M., "A Comparison of Four Information Processing Models of Leadership and Social Perceptions," *Human Relations* 38, no. Number 1 (Jan 1, 1985), 62.

situation dictate. By way of example, a brainstorming session with various levels of employees can be considered. In this instance, the situation would clearly not call for an authoritarian type of leadership. Yet, some participants who believe in the requirement to be assertive to be a good leader would potentially perceive their boss as being a poor leader. All this despite the fact that an authoritarian leadership style would likely render the whole working group inefficient. Thus, the leadership categorization theory becomes an addition to the phenomenon of perception biases.

Among the factors that influence the judgement made of a leader's effectiveness, there are the ones coming from the leader themselves. These are known as the self-limiting behaviors. To explain women's tendency for what could also be called self-depravation, psychology professor Madeline Heilman presented the concept of Lack of Fit Model.¹⁰¹ In her research, Heilman offers that, paired with gender discrimination, self-limiting behaviors adopted by a person affect their ability to climb the hierarchy of the organization that employs them. The Lack of Fit Model implies that women can be their own worst enemy and that this tendency must also be addressed in order to break the perceived glass ceiling to professional advancement. Throughout the research on gender and leadership, this is reflected in the systematically low self-assessment of women's skills versus that of others, suggesting that the bias come from women as well as men.

3.6.3 Overall Assessment Of Perception Biases

The importance of discussing the social role and the role congruity theories in a paper addressing gender and leadership in a male-dominated environment such as the

¹⁰¹ Karen S. Lyness and Madeline E. Heilman, "When Fit is Fundamental: Performance Evaluations and Promotions of Upper-Level Female and Male Managers," *Journal of Applied Psychology* 91, no. 4 (2006), 777-785.

CAF can't be overstated. Female leaders are expected to behave in accordance with those male-like attributes when placed in positions of leadership. However, there is a possibility of prejudice arising when people judge women behaving in a way that they believe is appropriate for a leader, but not for a woman. The expectations of gender role and those of the leader role become in competition and may be the cause for an unfavorable assessment of the woman as a leader. A *catch 22* commences and could cause women to suffer from the consequences of this incongruity by being judged negatively. This brings up a question as to what is the best way for women to behave so they can be judged fairly? This conundrum will be discussed in the recommendations section of this paper. In and of itself, the role congruity theory further reinforces the statement that men and women are different and must be treated accordingly.

Perception biases potentially get further exacerbated by the categorization of the appropriate leadership behaviors by the followers. Despite what the circumstances dictate, the leadership categorization theory explains that if a leader adapts their style to the situation, it could tarnish the perception of their followers. This is caused by the fact that some people believe in the requirement to remain *masculine-like* leaders at all time. But the interference of biases does not come exclusively from women. The Lack of Fit Model explains how women form self-limiting opinions which lowers their self-confidence and ambitions. Whatever the reasons and theoretical explanations, the recognition of perception biases is an important step to be taken towards ensuring fairness for all members. In a context such as the military, there is little doubt that leaders are expected to adopt a male-like style and approach to problems which is an aggravating

factor in the possibility of prejudice.¹⁰² This emphasizes the importance of considering gender and associated perception biases in the evaluation and selection of leaders.

3.7 Chapter Summary

In this chapter, physiological and psychosociological gender differences were analyzed as determining factors in individual leadership abilities. On the physiological plane, men and women brains, hormonal systems and physical strength and endurance were described. The cerebral components and activity were explained to depict the fundamental distinctions on how male and female brains drive their behaviors. The variations in hormonal systems were explained by looking at the impact of testosterone, oxytocin and cortisol on female and male behaviors. The last portion of the physiological differences was the physical strength and endurance, which depicted men as overall superior on all fronts except for their resistance to cold temperatures. Physiologically, men and women are different in their mental abilities and problem-solving skills. When highly trained, some women can perform at physical levels that allow them to be excellent soldiers. Within an organizational culture such as the CAF's, it is suggested that women's smaller stature and lower physical performance can contribute to discredit their leadership abilities and lower their perceived legitimacy. This in turn can hinder their effectiveness while exercising their authority. On the psychosociological side, the topic of leadership style, values and attitude trends by gender were explored. Existing studies validated that leadership style trends exist between gender, but that it was not significant. Values and attitudes differences were found to have a greater impact on decision-making, with a conclusion that gender is a key component in defining individual leadership skills.

¹⁰² Eagly and Karau, "Role Congruity Theory of Prejudice Toward Female Leaders," , 577.

This chapter also included consideration of leadership effectiveness and perception biases. Respective strengths and weaknesses of men and women leadership effectiveness suggested that men and women complement each other when paired successfully in decision-making teams. The perception biases portion of the chapter explained the distortion between behaviors and perception of effectiveness when women are assessed. Theories of social role, role congruity and leadership categorization were described to support the idea that gender must be acknowledged as a key characteristic of a leader. Women's tendency for self-depreciation was demonstrated through the Lack of Fit Model, which implies that some work is required at a deeper level than organizational culture to achieve true gender integration.

CHAPTER 4 – THE CAF TODAY AND IN THE FUTURE

4.1 Purpose

This chapter is included to support the thesis by establishing a link between gendered leadership and what the CAF aspire to as a government employer. It will demonstrate that there is a need for the CAF to change their optics on gender integration, shifting from trying to be neutral to recognizing differences, and valuing what both genders can bring to the organization. This will set the stage for the final chapter of the paper, where recommendations will be put forth for advancement towards true gender integration.

4.2 Introduction

The observations made on gender differences throughout this paper can have a diverse impact on one organization versus another. Whether it is a female or male dominated, and the nature of the business conducted make each organization more or less influenced by gender considerations. This chapter will discuss unique characteristics of the CAF and the related gendered impacts. The CAF form a unique environment, almost like a closed micro-society within the greater Canadian population. It is undeniably male-dominated with an approximate majority of 85% men, and this is an important factor in considering the ideals that are so deeply rooted in the organizational philosophy.¹⁰³ The first section of the chapter will discuss how these demographics are drivers for CAF culture and values, which are further influenced by its unique mandate. Following this, the way ahead will be assessed based on the pressure exercised by the Canadian

¹⁰³ *Strong Secure Engaged*

population and international community. The chapter will conclude with an overall assessment of the pertinence of gender issues in the Canadian military context.

4.3 CAF Culture And Values

4.3.1 Uniformity Versus Diversity

There is an internal conflict within the CAF between the traditional military values and the realities of a workforce which is diverse along gender, ethnic and racial lines. Culturally, the first thing that is taught to recruits pertains to the imperative requirement for uniformity among soldiers. When seeking uniformity, members of a group must set aside their personal needs, thoughts, desires, etc, which implies that soldiers must have the ability to be selfless. Along with discipline, obedience, and cohesion, these rules and principles forms the basis of military identity and are considered of the utmost importance in developing military culture. Where does gender fit into this discussion?

On the topic of resistance to gender integration, if this is not questioned it means that the presence of women in the forces is a threat to the organizational identity, just by virtue of being different. This could explain why there has been a pressure for women to become men-like soldiers and leaders, rather than being valued as the feminine being that they are. Fundamentally this might be mainly to preserve uniformity, but the stigma of presumed physical inferiority then comes into play. For many years, it has been the main reason to doubt how women could perform as well as men, triggering a reflex of protection against having women in uniform. As a result, what is considered as feminine is not valued in the CAF culture and the need to change this mentality has never been stronger with the increasing challenges of diversity. An argument could be made that

remediating to this is of greater importance than the preservation of the historical identity and old values.

Based on the review of gendered perceptions of values and attitudes previously presented, the military concepts of selflessness, uniformity, discipline, obedience, and cohesion could be considered as neutral, in that both men and women have similar abilities to adopt them. Nothing in the analysis of feminine versus masculine trends indicates that either gender is more prone to them, but issues do arise when we mix different people together. Taken in isolation, each gender could form a cohesive military force that would comply with the military principles described. However, diverse prioritization of values can be a source of conflict when men and women serve together. Perhaps there is a fundamental clash contained within the concept of a mixed military force, due to its core principle of uniformity conflicting with the reality of gender diversity.

In years past, recruiting discrimination based on social class and physical attributes such as height was utilized as a tool to ensure uniformity, restricting who joined and in what capacity. This is no longer considered as acceptable and this practice has ceased and led to an ever more diverse CAF. As a result, not only gender but also civilianization, religion and ethnicity pose uniformity challenges within CAF culture.

4.3.2 Resistance To Change

A notable characteristic of most, if not all militaries, is their aversion and resistance to change. Understanding the environment that shapes such rigid minds is key to introducing change when it is required. Legal and ethical prescriptions, paired with core

principles which are drivers for resistance must be recognized and incorporated in strategies for change.

The CAF leadership manual *Conceptual Foundations* promotes a values-based leadership approach incorporating legal, ethical and military values.¹⁰⁴ The rule of law and its implications on individual freedom establishes a framework within which soldiers operate, giving them authority and obligations.¹⁰⁵ The rigidity of the legal values renders military members even more stiff than their obedient nature makes them. Although adherence to law is a critical requirement for a professional military and makes military members accepting of existing practices without question, to challenge the law is sometimes a requirement to initiate change. In other words, adherence to the rules and regulations does not prevent change, but the blind acceptance of existing practices does.

Ethically, the CAF have come a long way over the past twenty years largely in reaction to scandals in the media. The organization's guiding principles on ethics include the respect of the dignity of all persons, the service of Canada before self, and the duty to obey and support lawful authority.¹⁰⁶ These obligations speak to the unique mandate of the CAF and are couched within the values of integrity, loyalty, courage, honesty, fairness and responsibility.¹⁰⁷ Those same values drive the way that a military professional ought to behave, and forge a pronounced sense of duty. Where this sense of duty becomes problematic is when duty to uphold values is considered equivalent to a duty to retain past practices regardless of their validity across time. Another way to

¹⁰⁴ Busse Ronald, "Comprehensive Leadership Review - Literature, Theories and Research," , 20-23.

¹⁰⁵ Ibid, 22.

¹⁰⁶ Ibid.

¹⁰⁷ Ibid.

explain this could be to say that the overly prescriptive code of ethics, though honourable, contributes to making military members somewhat unwilling to re-think practices and unable to innovate. All things considered, we can say that by definition, the CAF are not meant to change their ways easily.

4.3.3 Unique Mandate And Evolution Of Military Forces

The previous section has discussed why the CAF may have developed a resistance to change. This section will discuss the circumstances that made it this way, and the way that change may be implemented. More specifically, the unique mandate of the CAF as a military force and the organization's evolution through the centuries will be described.

The CAF mandate is unique in that it combines the responsibility to exercise lethal force with the concept of unlimited liability. Unlike other Canadian citizens, CAF members may be expected to kill, sacrifice their lives, or demand the same of their subordinates. This possibility of ultimate sacrifice for all CAF members causes an internal dynamic where one's life might depend on fellow soldiers' abilities to do their job, mainly as it pertains to physical abilities. Will this person have my back while I complete my duty? Would they be able to pull me out of a firefight if I was wounded? Although the odds of facing such situations are low and only occur to a small percentage of soldiers nowadays, the possibility of it is very real and is a key factor to consider when talking about organizational culture. Inevitably, the physiological differences between men and women discussed in Chapter 3 enter into this dynamic in a way that is unfavorable to integration of women. Considering this issue would be key in successfully completing gender integration.

The unique mandate of the CAF has understandable impacts on the dynamic surrounding recruiting. The CAF recruits on a voluntary basis only, which can make it challenging to remain true to its core values while being an attractive employer for talented youth. As an organization, the CAF needs to convince people to trust that everything is put in place to mitigate the risks of facing death or severe injuries. Universality of service plays a significant role in ensuring that all trades respect a minimum threshold to achieve to earn the right to serve alongside each other. Given the unique mandate of the CAF, the sacred nature of these principles for military organizations, and the core values that universality of service is trying to protect, some physical and ethical standards have to be applied regardless of gender.

While the unique mandate of the CAF gives legitimacy to discrimination based on physical abilities, the evolution of the Canadian military validates its culture and traditions. A proud history of war and of peace have made the military what it is today. So, before trying to change the defining culture learned by the shedding of blood, attention should be paid to what made it the force that it has become. Understanding the origin of the Forces' culture is crucial, but the requirement to conduct internal reviews remains to ensure that past practices are not adhered to purely out of tradition. What has the Canadian military become and are its core values still relevant in the 21st century? The first sub-sections on CAF values and culture discussed a rigid culture and systematic aversion to what is different, which describe what the military has become. But is it still pertinent for the military to be this way?

The military has transformed through the years to ensure its survival, and the current era calls for fundamental changes for this very same reason. The next section on

the way ahead for the CAF will describe the current context and the various forces that pressures the military to change. One thing is for sure, there is a need for the CAF to change. This calls into question the core values and principles of the organization, however there is a need to protect some of them to avoid damaging its ability to fulfill its mandate. Another aspect to consider is the main fact proposed in this paper, which is that men and women differ from each other, and that some flexibility in how both genders are treated would be beneficial. Monolithic policies only provide an illusion of equality and do not take individual characteristics into account.

4.4 Drivers For Change

This section examines how the Canadian and international environment call for the CAF to change, and what it means for the organization. The Canadian public's expectations will first be discussed to illustrate the impact on the CAF policies and decisions. The following sub-section will focus on what the most influential members of the international community want to see from the country's military, to describe the presence of external pressures on the CAF. A section on the need to change will conclude the consequential outlook for the Canadian military, and a brief chapter summary will follow.

4.4.1 Canadian Public Expectations

By virtue of being funded by tax payers, the CAF are continuously scrutinized by the public and have the responsibility to project an image that meets their expectations. Elected politicians drive the country's resource allocation to the military, as well as its various mandates. In order to represent voters adequately and stand the chance of being re-elected, they must do so in accordance with what the public wants. This dynamic

exists in all democratic countries, including Canada. As a military force, the CAF must strive to understand what the public's expectations are, so that it remains acceptable, though it is known to be mostly unpopular, for politicians to invest in its capacities.

With the recognition that the CAF must project an image that fulfills societal expectations comes the requirement to understand and address what these are. For the purpose of this paper, a focus is put on expectations related to gender integration. In general, the Canadian population has increasing expectations related to the treatment of women in the military. The Deschamps report certainly triggered the emergence of greater interest for the hyper-sexualized culture of the CAF and its effects on women, and brought to light the military's inability to properly investigate and remediate sexual allegations. The 2016 defence policy further reinforced the importance of overcoming these issues, and popular movements such as Times' Up and Me Too created a new awareness as a backdrop. In addition to the high interest for how the CAF treats women in their ranks, gender equality is at the forefront of public concern. The publication of a book by Canada's first female infantry officer Sandra Perron in 2017 also sparked some interest in the Canadian public wanting to see that women can access all trades and all ranks.¹⁰⁸ Despite how careful retired Major Perron was to protect the identity and reputation of everyone involved in the negative treatment that she suffered, it remains that some of the perpetrators in her story are now serving at the highest ranks within the CAF. The public therefore seeks reassurance and concrete evidence that senior leadership is committed to gender equality. To overcome this crisis, the military will have to deliver.

¹⁰⁸ Sandra Perron, *Out Standing in the Field: A Memoir of Military Service* (Toronto: Cormorant Books, 2017).

4.4.2 International Community Expectations

Canada continues to project a medium military capability and to provide symbolic support to allies in numerous missions across the globe. The most significant example of Canada's obligations pertaining to gender equality is the United Nation Security Council (UNSC) resolution 1325 unanimously adopted on 31 October 2000.¹⁰⁹ This resolution acknowledged the disproportionate impacts of armed conflicts on women and girls, and called for a gender perspective considering their needs in all phases of peace-making operations.¹¹⁰ An important implication of this resolution is that a feminine gender perspective can be enabled by the increased presence of women in peace support operations. In order to meet its obligations and retain its position as a respected player in the global community, Canada is expected to strive to achieve the targets set in this resolution. In a political context where Canada is aspiring to gain a seat at the UNSC, the country could benefit from taking a leadership role in this regard.

Despite how noble the UNSC resolution 1325's intentions are, if Canada were to take a greater political stand in this matter it would be certain to be perceived differently by different nations. That is to say that the international community's expectations towards Canada are not uniform, and that what might be seen as progressive by some may be seen as weak and unacceptable to others. In addressing this concern, Canada should take stock of the meaningful influence of other nations, such as like-minded

¹⁰⁹ "SECURITY COUNCIL, UNANIMOUSLY ADOPTING RESOLUTION 1325 (2000), CALLS FOR BROAD PARTICIPATION OF WOMEN IN PEACE-BUILDING, POST-CONFLICT RECONSTRUCTION " last modified Oct 31, accessed May 18, 2018

¹¹⁰ Ibid.

democratic allies, and seek to align with these, vice trying to please everyone by avoiding taking a stand.

The Elsie initiative serves as a tangible example of Canada's commitment to advancing gender equality on the international stage, through the increased participation of women in peace operations. The initiative includes training and technical assistance packages, financial support, as well as research, monitoring and evaluation of the interventions completed as part of the project.¹¹¹ Concretely, this could translate into tasks assigned to the CAF to conduct training and development of forces as part of peace operations, which might be mandated to be filled by women. This example clearly illustrates how Canada's international political aspirations with respect to gender issues can have a direct impact on the CAF.

4.4.3 Impact On CAF

This section will discuss how the Canadian societal expectations and those of the international communities' impact where the CAF is headed. In particular, immediate, medium, and long-term impacts will be discussed.

The immediate term comprises primarily of an aggressive campaign to address the issues identified by the Deschamps report through the launching of Operation HONOUR. Containing prescriptive measures on how to address harmful and inappropriate sexual behavior, this operation includes the establishment of resources for the victims and a 100% reporting system to the highest level of leadership for all incidents.¹¹² This

¹¹¹ "The Elsie Initiative on Women in Peace Operations," last modified Mar 12, accessed May 18, 2018

¹¹² "Operation Honour," last modified Oct 12, accessed May 18, 2018

significant response demonstrates that gender issues still exist within the CAF and are being taken seriously.

In the mid-term, the ten-year objectives set in SSE to increase representation of women in the Forces to 25% demonstrate a commitment to address fundamental gender disparities within the CAF. With regards to longer term measures, the CAF is developing an updated body of policy called The Journey which, among other things, aims to remove gendered hurdles to the retention of women. Still under development, The Journey aims at modernizing support for military members and their families, from enrolment to retirement. In other words, it is the program that will enable the 2016 Defence policy vision that insists on putting “people first” and to make the CAF an employer of choice.

As can be seen, none of the current initiatives are directly related to including considerations of gender factors in leadership development and appointments. However, these are the essential building blocks to setting the conditions under which such initiatives could be implemented. Graphically, they could be represented as the foundation layers in the conceptual model below.

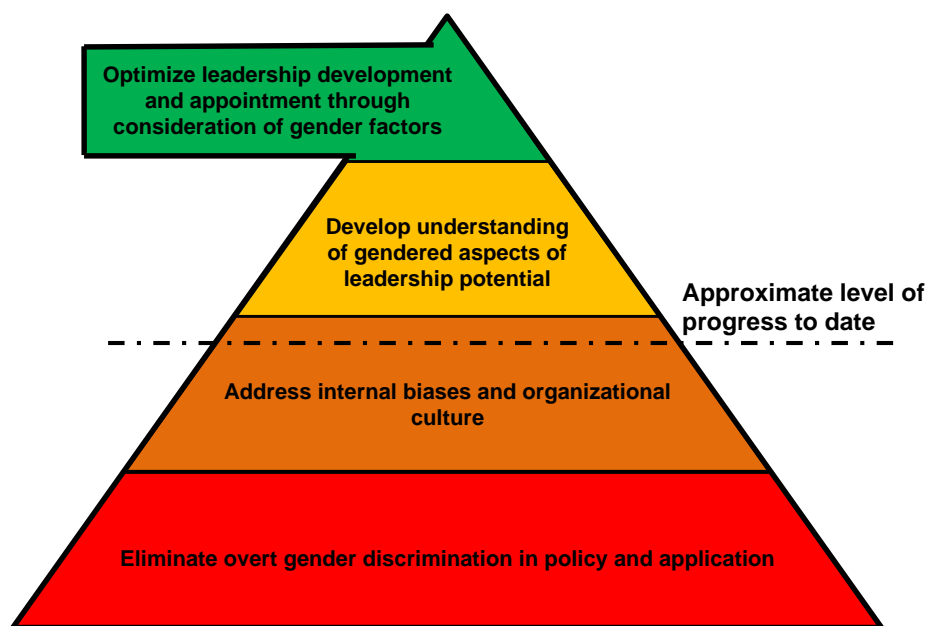


Figure 4.1 – Gender Integration Conceptual Model

As illustrated above, the ultimate objective to achieve true gender integration should be to accept gender as a key determining factor to leadership style, values and attitude, and to change CAF culture to value feminine leadership equivalently. By recognizing gender as a determining factor in leadership approach, there may even be scope to optimize leadership appointments on a situational basis. Before this level of gender integration can be achieved, fundamental issues of discrimination, demographic disparity and internal biases and culture must be addressed. As identified above, significant work in this regard has already taken place.

4.5 Chapter Summary

In this chapter, a closer look at the CAF culture and values described a Forces that is fundamentally averse to entities that are different, systematically opposed to change and having the unique mandate for its members to face death or inflict it on others. With principles such as discipline, obedience and cohesion, the military identity is extremely

strong and evolves only when it is required in order to survive. The current cultural and political climate on the national and international stages are shown to be forces pressuring the CAF to change for sake of survival, despite the organizational tendency to resist change.

CHAPTER 5 –RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

5.1 Purpose

Armed with a better understanding of the existing gender differences, trends and perception biases of leadership, the applicability of solutions related to these findings can be discussed. In the final chapter to this paper, suggestions will be made to demonstrate how organizational performance could be maximized with an increased awareness of gender trends in leadership. These recommendations will be the segue to the conclusion of the paper and a validation of the thesis proposed at the outset.

5.2 Introduction

The CAF cannot progress on the issue of optimizing leadership through gender considerations without first addressing the significant hurdles to the issues of gender equality within the organization. As those initiatives are currently underway, it is time to consider how the next bound will be taken. This final chapter contains suggestions that would shape the environment in a way that would allow for both female and male talent to be maximized. Following the recommendations, a return on the thesis and review of the research questions will be presented in conclusion.

5.3 Recommendations

The following recommendations were deduced as a result of the analysis presented in this paper. They are suggested as potential avenues for progress in achieving the optimization of leadership through the consideration of gender factors as illustrated in the model at figure 4.1.

5.3.1 Recognize gender differences as a fact, and promote typically *feminine* leadership effectiveness as well as the *masculine* type

The relative strengths and weaknesses of each genders' typical leadership style have been discussed. The CAF should take steps to recognize these factors and to promote diverse leadership styles within the overall framework of CAF conceptual foundations.

5.3.2 Role or task specific standards must be high enough to alleviate the concerns related to physiological differences

Concerns regarding the physical capabilities of women in high intensity combat have been identified as a major hurdle to gender integration. A better structured and relevant set of performance standards, tailored to task and role, would be a positive step in alleviating these reservations.

5.3.3 Recognize the starting point in mentalities of recruits upon enrolment

The CAF must recognize that recruits arrive in the organization with a pre-existing understanding of gender. Inclusion of socialization with respect to CAF perspectives on gender, in addition to more traditional military values, would serve to set a baseline for expectations. This baseline would assist in reducing the probability of unfair biases or more significant unacceptable conduct as well as increasing acceptance of diverse leadership approaches.

5.3.4 Provide education on perception biases to sensitize CAF members

Beyond initial recruit training, current CAF members should also receive additional education on how perception biases interfere in the interactions between leaders and followers of different genders.

5.3.5 Recognize gender as one of the criteria that can be used to select the right candidate for the right job

The relative merits of different leadership approaches have been discussed in detail. The CAF should move beyond a simplistic “gender-neutral” approach to one which is willing to include gender as a named factor in the selection of leaders in specific cases.

5.4 Research Questions Re-visited

In this paper, it was demonstrated that gender neutrality does not equal gender integration. The thesis that was proposed was demonstrated through the examination of academic literature and analysis of CAF, government and international policies and actions. The five research questions have been addressed with the answers found summarized below:

5.4.1 Question 1: How do men and women differ physiologically and psychosociologically?

Physiologically, men and women differ in how their brains are proportioned and how this affects the wiring of thought processes and consequent actions. Hormonal systems result in different stress coping mechanisms and social motivations. Finally, muscular strength and endurance combined with average body fat ratios results in uneven physical capacities. Psychosociologically, differences are observed in feminine versus masculine leadership style, values promoted, and attitudes displayed. Diverging influences are exercised on subordinates and can have significant impacts on the environment that is created.

The sum of these physiological and psychosociological differences is that men and women develop different strategies to address challenges or complete tasks. In some

cases, similar results can be achieved, but in others, the outcomes can differ. More studies are required to determine these trends with certainty, but the existence of this dynamic is recognized.

5.4.2 Question 2: Do leaders tend towards different styles of leadership based on their gender?

Whether they adopt feminine-like or masculine-like behaviors, leaders' psychosociological differences, as demonstrated in question 1, result in different leadership trends being observed.

5.4.3 Question 3: Are there trends in recent research and differences in the results obtained by different leadership styles?

Different leadership styles are known to provide different results at times, but this difference is not always present. When it is, it is not always significant and additional research is required in this field.

5.4.4 Question 4: What does the CAF aspire to as a government employer with a complex and uniquely challenging mandate?

The CAF aspires to be an employer of choice that embodies societal expectations on ethics and gender integration. These objectives must be weighed against the unique operational mandate of the CAF which imposes pressures not found in any other context.

5.4.5 Question 5: How could gender trends and differences be managed within the organization to maximize the overall CAF performance?

The CAF should begin by recognizing differences in gendered approach to leadership, provide better education to its members, and be prepared to accept gender as viable criteria for leadership assessment and appointments.

5.5 Conclusion

Gender differences in leadership styles and associated trends in results obtained can be used to increase organizational performance within the CAF. The military fills a unique niche in society with significant responsibilities. In order to meet this mandate, all possible steps should be taken to maximize performance. Given the stakes of military operations, current inefficiencies related to a resistance in understanding remaining gender issues and addressing them are unacceptable. Our women and men in uniform, who put their lives on the line, deserve the best possible leadership and this can be enabled through the consideration of gender factors. As it stands, these remain in the blind spot of CAF senior leaders.

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