The Impact of Culture and Gender on Leadership Styles

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Abstract: Diversity in leadership remains one of the most influential topics in management research. The socioeconomic changes and globalization make business teams more gender and culturally heterogeneous, which challenges leaders. Gaining a comprehensive knowledge of diversity assists leaders in overcoming such challenges and effectively and efficiently managing their teams. The problems identified by researchers in the area include inconsistent empirical evidence on leadership style (LS) preferences of distinct gender groups, incomprehensive understanding of how leadership functions in Africa and its comparison to traditional Anglo theoretical perspectives. Additionally, there is an incomplete understanding of gender similarities and differences across different cultures. This research investigates these problems and, in turn, helps leaders improve communication, collaboration and organisational performance. The foundation for this quantitative research is a self-administered online survey. Survey participants are culturally and gender-diverse managers, studying in the MBA program at the University of London. Consequently, two dominant cultural groups, Anglo and Sub-Saharan African (SSA), were categorized and detailedly assessed. This research casts light and establishes connections between gender, culture and leadership. The men in the Anglo and SSA clusters are more transformative than women. Additionally, top management is more transformative compared to non-management, low management is more laissez-faire than top management and non-managerial females are more laissez-faire than top-managerial females. However, no significant differences were found between genders independently of their culture, residents and native-born residents of Anglo and SSA clusters. The key implications of this research are that professionally educated leaders, independent of their gender, use similar LSs. However, within cultural clusters, gender differences emerge. No differences between the residents and native-born residents indicate that foreign-born leaders adapt their style to the residing culture.

Keywords: Leadership, Culture, Gender, Sub-Saharan Africa, Anglo

1. Introduction

Diversity in leadership studies plays a far greater role than it was counted by researchers in the past. However, diversity management practices become more recognized and have become an integral part of the skill set of a successful leader. Inadequate diversity management reduces the job satisfaction of employees, yet if managed well, helps to resolve diversity issues (Hooijberg and DiTomaso, 1996).

Despite mounting research on diversity in leadership, the existing literature has gaps.

1. There is a deficiency of empirical evidence on gender preferences for LS (Vieira, Madaleno and Lobao, 2022). Past research overlooks gender differences and focuses on a generalized population group (Hooijberg and DiTomaso, 1996).
2. There is a lack of knowledge on leadership in Africa. In the literature, Africa is mainly examined from the traditional Anglo-American perspective, which lacks universality and applicability in postcolonialism (Iwowo, 2015).
3. There is little understanding of gender differences in leadership across different cultures. Past researchers tend to focus on stereotypical thinking about gender, which was, and to a different degree still is, present in societies (Jonsen, Maznevski and Schneider, 2010).

The general aim of this paper is to explore these gaps and to detect if leaders with the same gender and culture (Anglo and SSA clusters) prefer the same LS. The paper examines the simultaneous relationship of gender and culture to the transformational leadership style (TFLS), transactional leadership style (TALS) and laissez-faire leadership style (LFLS).

The focus of global researchers concentrated on European and North American perspectives. While the research on leadership in Africa lacks a deep insight into the local culture, e.g. effectiveness is known to be an important leadership skill. However, what is implied by effectiveness, depends mainly on the cultural context (Adebayo, 2022; Crede, Jong and Harms, 2019). Currently, natively African researchers are seeking to deepen gender studies, but their research is quite restrained because it often lacks time, finance and/or other resources (Adebayo, 2022).

In the literature, many researchers believe that there are no differences in LS based on gender (Eagly and Johnson, 1990; Manning, 2002). The others are stating that large differences exist (Rohmann and Rowold, 2009; Vecchio, 2002). Regarding culture, the scientific voice is united and argues that LS is culturally contingent (Jonsen, Maznevski and Schneider, 2010; Stoeberl et al., 1998). However, the research on African culture is often conflicting (Yohannes and Wasonga, 2021; Gutterman, 2016; Eustace and Martins, 2014).

The current research objectives are:

4. Discover which style of leadership is preferred by female and male leaders globally.
5. Detect the preferences for the LS of Anglo and SSA cultures.
6. Link gender preferences for the LS within the united Anglo and SSA cultures.
7. Locate gender preferences for the LS across separate Anglo and SSA cultures.

This paper applies a quantitative approach. It examines whether LS are culturally contingent and determines dependencies, which further allows the generalized assumption to be established. The empirical, primary data was gathered through the online survey and the received answers helped to fulfil the descriptive purpose and predict future occurrences.

2. Gender and Leadership Styles

Since 1970, some researchers assumed, that gender does not predict LS preferences (Manning, 2002; Eagly and Johnson, 1990). However, others imply that this view is based on biases in society or a lack of empirical evidence (Vecchio, 2002; Vieira, Madaleno and Lobao, 2022). Women are underrepresented in leadership roles and, as a result, poorly researched (Hooijberg and DiTomaso, 1996). A gender-diverse leader is even more difficult to detect because they do not share their gender self-identification (Ladwig, 2023).

The research of Rohmann and Rowold (2009) confirmed that there is a difference in LS based on gender; e.g. women exceeded men in TFLS. Looking at leadership not only from gender but also from a cultural perspective reveals that women in the Netherlands, Germany and the US have better adaptability. The skill of adaptability belongs to TFLS and aids leaders manage uncertain situations (Haghani et al., 2022; Nahavandi, 2015). However, women in Turkey are more afraid of ambiguous situations, which is why their willingness to lead is only 19% (Sule, 2020). This reveals that the adaptability skill is culturally contingent, which is why the predisposition of women to TFLS is not universal.

3. National Societal Culture

The most comprehensive model that assists in understanding leadership in cross-cultural settings was developed by House in 1991 in the GLOBE project. The model explains that leaders, who behave in line with their culture are the most effective. The GLOBE project reviewed the connection between leadership and 62 different cultures and grouped them into ten cultural clusters (Nahavandi, 2015). Furthermore, we will discuss two of them, the Anglo and SSA clusters.

Demographically the SSA is highly heterogeneous and diverse. The reasons for such diversity include the pre-colonial slave trade, the tropical climate, etc. Such heterogeneity occurred ages ago and is now called homogeneity (Green, 2012). However, the social heterogeneity in the Anglo sector is relatively new, due to immigrant movements, e.g., 45 % of the Australian population are first and second-generation immigrants (Koopmans, 2013). Furthermore, the impact of homogeneous (SSA) and heterogeneous (Anglo) cultures on LS will be looked at.

4. Anglo and SSA Culture and Leadership Styles

Patwardhan et al. (2022) suggest, that leaders for the Anglo cluster use collaborative and humane-oriented behaviours, which together relate to TFLS. Nahavandi (2015) adds, that such leaders are also charismatic but low on team-orientation. Charisma is another element of the TFLS. However, if charismatic leaders are self-centred, it indicates narcissism. Narcissistic leaders use their charisma to reach their goals no matter of ethics (Yukl, 2013). This explains why sometimes TFLS harmful to their team (Homan et al., 2020). In conclusion, TFLS is inherent in the Anglo region, but the charisma of a leader can vary from ethical to unethical.

The research of Fadare (2018) states that leadership in the SSA is high on power distance. This conflicts with the results of Nahavandi (2015), which described it as high on human orientation. Gutterman (2016) underpins that the SSA is high on human orientation, but low on autonomous leadership. Where Yohannes and Wasonga (2021)

discovered that SSA leaders are high on the LFLS (autonomous leadership). To conclude, the SSA cluster requires better research and more consistent findings.

To examine everything discussed, the null hypothesis was applied as a basis for research hypotheses.

H_1: There are no significant differences in preferences for LS by gender independent of culture.

H_2: There are no significant differences in preferences for LS between the residents of Anglo and SSA cultures.

H_3: There are no significant differences in preferences for LS between native-born residents of Anglo and SSA cultures.

H_4: There are no significant differences in preferences for LS within the gender groups of the united cultures of Anglo and SSA.

H_5: There are no significant differences in preferences for LS between and within each gender group of separate Anglo and SSA cultures.

5. Methods and Methodology

All the measurements were carried out following the example of Garcia-Solarte, Garcia-Perez de Lema and Madrid-Guijarro (2018) and performed in SPSS.

5.1 Population Sample and Respondents

MBA students, who represent the leadership elite, were chosen to be a population sample. The number of such students according to AACSB (the biggest accreditation body in the world) accounts for more than 250,000 a year (Byrne, 2022). The selected sample of respondents includes MBA students of the UoL. It is an online educational program, which unites culturally and gender-diverse leaders. The program has prior education, experience and financial requirements (University of London, 2022). Such criteria suit the research needs, which is why the purposive sampling technique was used (Saunders and Lewis, 2012).

5.2 Data collection process

For data collection, an online survey was used (surveyplanet.com). The self-administered questionnaire was distributed through WhatsApp within MBA UoL groups. The data collection process started on the 19th of July till the 13th of August 2023. The survey was sent to 361 respondents and received 146 responses. The 11 respondents were excluded from the analysis because they possess a non-managerial position. Out of the remaining 135 responses, based on GLOBE two biggest cultural clusters were identified: Anglo with 32 responses (24 %), Australia (2), Canada (8), the UK (18), the US (4), and SSA with 39 respondents (29 %), Botswana (1), Cameroon (1), Ghana (5), Guinea (1), Kenya (6), Mauritius (1), Nigeria (2), Sierra Leone (1), South Africa (3), Tanzania (12), Uganda (1), Zambia (3), Zimbabwe (2).

5.3 Measurements

The questions were adapted from the multifactor leadership questionnaire (Form 6-S) developed by Bass and Avolio in 1992 (Vinger and Cilliers, 2006; Garcia-Solarte, Garcia-Perez de Lema and Madrid-Guijarro, 2018). The TFLS was tested by Idealized influence (II), Inspirational motivation (IM), Intellectual stimulation (IS) and Individualized consideration (IC) factors, TALS by Contingent reward (CR) and Management by exception (ME) factors, and LFLS by one factor. Each factor comprises three questions. The respondents weighed the questions on the Likert scale (1 – strongly disagree, 5 – strongly agree).

6. Analysis of Results

6.1 Survey and Sample Characteristics

The correlation matrix (Table 1) illustrates how each of the survey questions correlates with one another, where within-factor correlations are vital. However, factor IM (Q1 to Q2), CR (Q1 to Q2), and ME (Q1 to Q2 and Q2 to Q3) have low correlation.

Table 1: Correlation Matrix for Each Leadership Style Question

Questions	II Q1	II Q2	II Q3	IM Q1	IM Q2	IM Q3	IS Q1	IS Q2	IS Q3	IC Q1	IC Q2	IC Q3
II Q1	1											
II Q2	.251**	1										
II Q3	.346**	.479**	1									
IM Q1	.469**	.148	.267**	1								
IM Q2	.227**	.357**	.323**	.051	1							
IM Q3	.115	.186*	.397**	.179*	.260**	1						
IS Q1	.315**	.188*	.175*	.349**	.235**	.233**	1					
IS Q2	.143	.426**	.286**	.120	.468**	.233**	.319**	1				
IS Q3	.158	.254**	.189*	.156	.297**	.322**	.396**	.390**	1			
IC Q1	.304**	.286**	.229*	.292**	.210*	.316**	.425*	.276**	.162	1		
IC Q2	.212*	.191*	.171*	.164*	.326**	.418**	.251**	.304**	.309**	.338**	1	
IC Q3	.221*	.151	.267**	.375**	.204*	.273**	.190*	.142	.251**	.220**	.285**	1
CR Q1	-.040	.090	.012	-.027	.249**	.201*	.098	.045	.047	.115	.066	.160
CR Q2	.230**	.265**	.172*	.042	.333**	.373**	.235**	.288**	.226**	.264**	.561**	.189*
CR Q3	.138	.218**	.141	.114	.192*	.201*	.059	.137	.103	.179*	.298**	.461**
ME Q1	.088	.011	.067	.174*	.092	.200*	.238**	.113	.081	.292**	.125	.097
ME Q2	.094	-.027	-.014	.012	-.063	-.066	-.065	.042	-.010	-.135	-.078	.049
ME Q3	.054	.112	.044	.179*	.096	.085	.087	-.037	.173*	.151	.162	.347**
LFL Q1	.034	.109	.057	.066	.114	-.069	-.081	-.023	-.024	-.088	.000	.016
LFL Q2	.145	-.051	.155	.225**	.032	-.025	.149	-.032	.047	-.057	-.148	.171*
LFL Q3	.192*	.129	.165*	.119	.036	-.020	.052	.050	.110	-.096	-.014	.070

Table 1 (Continued): Correlation Matrix for Each Leadership Style Question

Questions	CR Q1	CR Q2	CR Q3	ME Q1	ME Q2	ME Q3	LFL Q1	LFL Q2	LFL Q3
II Q1									
II Q2									
II Q3									
IM Q1									
IM Q2									
IM Q3									
IS Q1									
IS Q2									
IS Q3									
IC Q1									
IC Q2									
IC Q3									
CR Q1	1								
CR Q2	.127	1							
CR Q3	.317**	.284**	1						
ME Q1	.277**	.021	.124	1					
ME Q2	.027	-.028	-.041	.136	1				
ME Q3	.222**	.061	.371**	.330*	-.034	1			
LFL Q1	.281**	.055	.133	.062	.383**	.052	1		
LFL Q2	.063	-.138	.066	.046	.381**	.060	.304**	1	
LFL Q3	.166*	-.080	.039	.066	.180*	.072	.295**	.307**	1

Notes: *p < 0.05; **p < 0.01

Table 2 demonstrates that all factors have acceptable reliability except IM and ME, which have Cronbach above

0.5. All factors also passed the validity tests, with the KMO above 0.5 and the Barlett test below 0.05.

The explained variance at 50 %, indicates that the factor explains a minimum of 50 % of the variations and the factor load above 0.4, shows a significant correlation between the question and the factor. Table 2 shows all factors load more than 0.4 and the variation only of IM factor is slightly below.

Table 2: Validity and Reliability Scale

LS	Factor	Questions	Factor Loads	Other
TFLS	II	Q1 I make the people around me feel good	0.6	Cronbach = 0.6
		Q2 Other people have complete faith in me.	0.7	Factorial: 1 factor
		Q3 Other people are proud to be associated with me.	0.6	Explained variance: 58%
				Sig. Bartlett: <0.001
				KMO: 0.6
	IM	Q4 I use simple words to explain what we can and should do.	0.7	Cronbach = 0.4
		Q5 I provide attractive images about what we can do.	0.5	Factorial: 1 factor
		Q6 I help others find meaning in their work.	0.4	Explained variance: 45%
				Sig. Bartlett: 0.002
				KMO: 0.5
	IS	Q7 I allow others to think in new ways to solve old problems.	0.6	Cronbach = 0.6
		Q8 I offer others new ways of seeing complex situations.	0.6	Factorial: 1 factor
		Q.9 I make others rethink ideas that they had not questioned previously.	0.8	Explained variance: 58%
				Sig. Bartlett: <0.001
				KMO: 0.6
	IC	Q10 I help others develop themselves.	0.6	Cronbach = 0.5
		Q11 I provide others with feedback regarding their work.	0.7	Factorial: 1 factor
		Q12 I give personal attention to those who appear to be excluded.	0.7	Explained variance: 52%
				Sig. Bartlett: <0.001
				KMO: 0.6
TALS	CR	Q13 I tell others what to do if they want to be rewarded for their work.	0.7	Cronbach = 0.5
		Q14 I provide recognition/rewards when others achieve their goals.	0.7	Factorial: 1 factor
		Q15 I am attentive to what others can obtain according to their achievements.	0.7	Explained variance: 50%
				Sig. Bartlett: <0.001
				KMO: 0.6
	ME	Q16 I feel satisfied when others comply with the agreed-upon rules.	0.7	Cronbach = 0.3
		Q17 As long as things are working, I do not try to change anything.	0.7	Factorial: 1 factor
		Q18 I tell others about the rules that they must be familiar with to perform their work.	0.6	Explained variance: 79%
				Sig. Bartlett: <0.001
				KMO: 0.6
LFLS	LFLS	Q19 I am content to let others continue working in the same way as always.	0.7	Cronbach = 0.6
		Q20 Whatever others want to do is OK with me.	0.6	Factorial: 1 factor
		Q21 I ask no more of others than what is absolutely essential.	0.5	Explained variance: 54%
				Sig. Bartlett: <0.001
				KMO: 0.6

Table 3 shows the dominance of women in managerial positions, which questions the persistent idea by the researchers that women are underrepresented in leadership (Hooijberg and DiTomaso, 1996). None of the leaders were revealed to have gender-diverse sex.

Table 3: Sample Characteristics by Gender

Continuous Variables	Dichotomous Variables		Total
	Female	Male	
Gender of all managers	63 (47 %)	72 (53 %)	135 (100 %)
Gender of Anglo managers	21 (66 %)	11 (34 %)	32 (100 %)
Gender of SSA managers	23 (59 %)	16 (41 %)	39 (100 %)
Gender of managers from the United Anglo and SSA clusters	44 (62 %)	27 (38 %)	71 (100 %)

Table 4 proves our previous assumption that in its nature the Anglo cluster is heterogeneous, whereas the SSA cluster is homogeneous (Green, 2012; Koopmans, 2013).

Table 4: Country Clusters of Residents and Native-born Residents

Cluster	Number of Residents	Number of Native-born Residents	Native-born Residents %
SSA	39	37	95 %
Anglo	32	13	41 %

6.2 Univariate Analysis

The univariate analysis tests are completed with t-student and U-test. Table 5 displays these tests for the female and male groups while holding all the other variables constant. The threshold of $p < 0.05$ suggests that the difference between the variables is significant. Table 5 shows no significant differences in LS based on gender, therefore the H_1 is supported.

Table 5: Differences in LSs According to Gender Independent of Cultural Cluster

	Total N 135			
LS	Female N 63 Mean (SD)	Male N 72 Mean (SD)	t-test	U-test
TFLS	4.03 (0.37)	4.15 (0.38)	.056	.101
TALS	3.79 (0.39)	3.91 (0.44)	.076	.087
LFLS	2.72 (0.68)	2.88 (0.79)	.211	.407

Table 6 considers the members of Anglo and SAA clusters from the perspective of residentship and native-born residentship. According to the t-test, there are no differences. However, the U-test demonstrates that the residents of the SSA cluster are more transformational. To make the final decision about the H_2 hypothesis a further regression analysis will be performed.

Table 6: Differences in LSs According to Anglo and SSA Cultural Clusters

	Total N 71				Total N 50			
LS	Anglo Residents N 32 Mean (SD)	SSA Residents N 39 Mean (SD)	t-test	U-test	Anglo Native-born Residents N 13 Mean (SD)	SSA Native-born Residents N 37 Mean (SD)	t-test	U-test
TFLS	4.10 (0.45)	4.22 (0.32)	.194	.048*	4.12 (0.50)	4.23 (0.32)	.374	.206
TALS	3.90 (0.42)	3.80 (0.45)	.354	.584	3.87 (0.35)	3.80 (0.46)	.619	.788
LFLS	2.85 (0.84)	2.55 (0.77)	.114	.146	2.69 (0.90)	2.52 (0.75)	.507	.840

Notes: *$p < 0.05$

Table 7 compares the gender of the united Anglo and SSA clusters. Both tests show that the males have TFLS. However, this finding differs from the findings of other researchers, who believe that females score more on TFLS (Khan et al., 2012; Rohmann and Rowold, 2009). However, the mentioned researchers studied different cultures, which could lead to inconsistency. The other explanation is that women often doubt their abilities, which could impact their self-evaluation during the survey (Meehan, 2018). To conclude H_4 is rejected.

Table 7: Differences in LSs Within the Gender Groups of the United Cultural Cluster of Anglo and SSA

	Total N 71			
LS	Females of Anglo and SSA Clusters N 44 Mean (SD)	Males of Anglo and SSA Clusters N 27 Mean (SD)	t-test	U-test
TFLS	4.05 (.34)	4.35 (.38)	<.001**	.001**
TALS	3.82 (.40)	3.88 (.48)	.546	.667
LFLS	2.63 (.69)	2.78 (.99)	.457	.986

Notes: **p < 0.01

6.3 Bivariate Analysis

The bivariate analysis (the ANOVA test) is applicable when there are more than two variables within one group (Kim, 2014). Table 8 presents the ANOVA test for the gender in Anglo and SSA clusters separately. The results suggest that there are differences between the adoption of TFLS. To identify these differences the Games-Howell and Tukey HSD tests were done. The results indicate that males of the SSA and Anglo clusters score higher on TFLS than females. These findings are partially consistent with Eustace and Martins (2014), Nahavandi (2015), and Patwardhan et al. (2022) who said that all Anglo and SSA leaders have TFLS. However, our result only relates to male representatives of both clusters.

Table 8: In Group Differences in LS

Group	TFLS Mean	F	TALS Mean	F	LFLS Mean	F	Sig. level
Gender in Anglo and SSA Clusters Separately	*Total N 71*	4.726**	*Total N 71*	1.179	*Total N 71*	1.153	*p<0.05 **p<0.01
A. Female Anglo	3.96 (n=21)		3.81 (n=21)		2.76 (n=21)		
B. Male Anglo	4.35 (n=11)		4.06 (n=11)		3.03 (n=11)		
C. Female SSA	4.12 (n=23)		3.83 (n=23)		2.51 (n=23)		
D. Male SSA	4.35 (n=16)		3.76 (n=16)		2.60 (n=16)		

6.4 Multivariate Analysis

From Table 9 can be observed that H_4 confirms the differences in TFLS between the two gender groups of united Anglo and SSA clusters ($p < .001$, $F > 2.5$) not only from a univariate but also from a multivariate perspective. The t-value > 2 (as well as the t-value < -2), indicates that differences did not occur by chance. Where R^2 reveals that gender characteristics explain 14.8 % of the variation in TFLS. That means that there are 85.2 % of other reasons, outside gender, that affect the decision of a manager to adopt TFLS. The beta coefficient shows us the strength of the connection between the independent and dependent variables. The increase in the number of male leaders by one standard deviation will lead to an increase in transformational leaders by 0.301.

H_5 was also rejected. Gender in it predicts 9.1 % of the adoption of TFLS in the separately considered Anglo and SSA clusters (Coef.: 0.101).

Tables 9 to 11 confirm the acceptance of the H_1 and H_3 by the linear regression. The significance between residents of Anglo and SSA cultures identified by the U-test in H_2 was not verified by the regression analysis. However, the regression prediction is more reliable, which leads to the decision to approve H_2.

Table 9: Linear Regression that Tests the Hypotheses on Preferences for TFLS

Hypothesis	Impact on TSLS	Beta Coefficient	R^2	F	p-value	t-value	Original Hypothesis Supported
H_1	No	.126	.027	3.720	.056	1.929	Yes
H_2	No	.119	.024	1.724	.194	1.313	Yes
H_3	No	.108	.017	.807	.374	.898	Yes
H_4	Yes	.301	.148	11.960	<.001**	3.458	No
H_5	Yes	.101	.091	6.868	.011*	2.621	No

Notes: *p < 0.05; **p < 0.01

Table 10: Linear Regression that Tests the Hypotheses on Preferences for TALS

Hypothesis	Impact on TALS	Beta Coefficient	R^2	F	p-value	t-value	Original Hypothesis Supported
H_1	No	.129	.023	3.189	.076	3.189	Yes
H_2	No	-.097	.012	.872	.354	-.934	Yes
H_3	No	-.070	.005	.250	.619	-.500	Yes
H_4	No	.065	.005	.367	.546	.606	Yes
H_5	No	-.025	.004	.309	.580	-.556	Yes

Table 11: Linear Regression that Tests the Hypotheses on Preferences for LFLS

Hypothesis	Impact on LFLS	Beta Coefficient	R^2	F	p-value	t-value	Original Hypothesis Supported
H_1	No	.160	.012	1.578	.211	1.256	Yes
H_2	No	-.307	.036	2.569	.114	-1.603	Yes
H_3	No	-.170	.009	.447	.507	-.669	Yes
H_4	No	.149	.008	.559	.457	.457	Yes
H_5	No	-.091	.016	1.142	.289	-1.069	Yes

Notes: *p < 0.05; **p < 0.01

7. Summary

The current research determined that random and non-random relationships between gender, culture and LSs normally occur in real-life settings. The assessment of all respondents recognised that women and men have no specific preferences in the adoption of the LS. Similarly, the residents and native-born residents from Anglo and SSA cultural clusters also did not show any preferences. However, when the data about gender and Anglo and SSA cluster was crossed, some similarities started to manifest, showing that the males of a united Anglo and SSA cluster favour more TFLS. The males from the Anglo and SSA clusters score high on TFLS.

8. Conclusion

In practice, the paper assists in estimating, which LS leaders have, based on their demographic characteristics. This, in turn, will ease the building of better cooperation with their team in the future. However, the research also has more global applications. With the increased globalisation, local companies often acquire or merge with foreign companies (Hooijberg and DiTomaso, 1996). The paper can help leadership teams of local companies to solve cross-cultural issues that could arise during that process.

It is important to underline that the paper explains the LS behaviours of residents of Anglo and SSA clusters, but it does not predict the future behaviour of all leaders in these clusters. For example, the managers who reside in Anglo and SSA clusters, but do not have an MBA education can make different choices in the adoption of the LS.

Despite the achieved aim and significant findings the research also has its limitations. The following research papers should place specific attention to the questions within IM and ME factors, they should be reviewed and improved for better reliability.

Despite the limitations, the current research brings new knowledge to the area. However, the uniqueness of the research is that all these three areas intersect, which very closely resemble real-life situations. Additionally, all the objectives of the research were fulfilled. The paper brings more clarity about the SSA culture and creates a better insight into preferred LS in Africa. The paper also proves that Western theories can be used for non-Western countries and they are especially important when one uses such countries in comparison.

9. Future Research

It would be beneficial to explore and compare not only the gender differences to the certain LS altogether but also examine the preferences of these groups for each separate factor (II, IM, IS, IC, CR, ME or LFLS). For example, Garcia-Solarte, Garcia-Perez de Lema and Madrid-Guijarro (2018) stated that women prefer to use more IC and IM factors. However, by exploring the same group no general preferences for one of the LSs were identified. The deep factor analysis of the Anglo and SSA cluster would disclose smaller gender differences.

Future research can generate further benefits by choosing different sample groups. To make better general conclusions about Anglo and SSA clusters, it would be beneficial to examine a group of not-professionally

educated leaders and compare the results with this study. Any difference identified will reveal the impact of education on leadership.

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