Management practices: An analysis of gender differences in the strategy execution

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The paper sets out to investigate the difference between female and male managers–in the context of strategy execution in their organizations with regard to the conceptual framework of leadership and performance. A survey questionnaire was administered to 322 managers to study the 5 dimensions regarding obstacles in strategy execution previously identified. The study primarily used principal component analysis (PCA) and then an analysis of variance (ANOVA) to examine the relationship between dimensions of strategy execution identified in previous research and also to assess empirical differences for socio-demographic variables such as personal and organizational perception of performance, number of years in the management position, number of workforce under supervision and number of years as an employee in the organization. The research found gender differences regarding strategy execution between men and women and confirmed the main hypothesis that there would be difference between men and women in matters of strategy execution. Additional work will be necessary to increase sample size and to specify sector of activity to generalize the findings. The study highlighted gender differences in terms of strategy execution and management practices.

Key words: Gender management, strategy execution, women, organization, performance, leadership.

INTRODUCTION

Several authors have indicated how organizations have long been recognized as a key location for the production and reproduction of gender inequalities within society (Connell, 1987, 1990; Alvesson and Billing, 2002). In the research on gender and organization, management is generally associated with masculine discourses and practices (for example authoritarianism, competitiveness, disciplinary, instrumentality, and control) (Kerfoot and Knights, 1993, 1998). It has been mentioned that the identity work that women undertake when working as managers may be conflictual, contradictory and may produce strain on one’s performance (Priola, 2007).

Meyerson and Kolb (2000) have argued that the research on gender management should move out of the armchair to bridge the gap between feminist theory and practice. Joan et al. (2009) mentioned that a three-decade dialogue between feminist theory and organizational theory has done little to encourage people who work in organizations to be able to see, much less highlight, the intricate organizational practices that ‘do’ gender (West and Zimmerman, 1987) as a path to inequality. Consequently, gender, in all its diversity, ‘gets disappeared’ as a key organizational concern (Fletcher, 1999). In other words, gender obeys the ‘rules of relevance’ (Patai, 1983) that situate it below the horizon of central organizational matters.

More recently, Joan et al. (2009) analyzed an attempt to counter the trend to see gender as irrelevant to organizational practices. They indicated that for Benschop and Verloo (2006), the intricate ways in which everyday organizational practices produce gender-blindness is just as crucial to analyse when gender mainstreaming is introduced, because such policy and its implementation is conducted within organizations. They found that managerial careers are associated with gendered assumptions and practices, for example, facilitating and developing people which contribute to construct management (done by women) as bounded-up characteristically with “feminized” behaviours.

The research on gender work and organization had
found that one of the reasons for this situation is coming from the fact that women tend to participate at lower organizational levels than men (Rubery and Fagan, 1995; Blackburn et al., 2001). It has been found that the career progress of women in the organization is often inhibited in fundamentally structural ways (Acker, 1990).

In the last decade, several studies have documented the empirical link between organizational culture and discriminatory practices (Aaltio-Marjosola, 1994; Alvesson and Billing, 1997; Mills and Mills, 2000; Aaltio and Mills, 2002; Liff and Ward, 2001; Groschen, 1991).

Vincenza and Brannan (2009) have argued that in recent decades, there has been a shift from the analysis of differences in men and women's behaviour at work to an emphasis on gender as a social construction (Alvesson and Billing, 2002), "the meaning, significance and consequences of which vary as a function of power differences" reflected across levels of an organizational hierarchy (Ely, 1995). In this context, the question of organizational practices is an interesting topic to examine gender differences among males and female managers. In this regard, the research has mentioned that a greater emphasis has been placed on gendered processes and masculine and feminine organizational practices (Alvesson, 1998; Gherardi and Poggio, 2007).

Some authors have mentioned the importance of studying not only gender differences in practices but also the link with performance (Poggio, 2006; Bertrand and Hallock, 2000). For instance, Mathieu (2009) has argued that practice oriented approaches to gender in studying organization and management have hitherto stressed practice's performance dimension. Joan et al. (2009) mentioned that this 'practice' turn in studies of gender is increasingly evident in organizational studies (Cockburn, 1991; Fletcher, 1999; Poggio, 2006). Lindorff (2009) explores the attitudes of male and female managers in the public sector toward high performance human resource management (HRM) policies and practices, work, and organizational leadership, and compares these attitudes to those of managers in the private sector. It finds that female public sector managers are more positive about high performance HRM policies and practices. Male public sector managers are less positive than female managers in the public sector and male and female managers in the private sector across all the measures. Psychological contract theory suggests either the changes associated with high performance HRM policies and practices, or attempts to decrease the disadvantage felt by women in the public sector may have resulted in a sense of disadvantage among some men in the sector, and created a changed, more transactional psychological contract between these men and their organisation. Wood (2009) finds some examples of organizational resilience "to involve women in organisations on equal terms" were evident in all the six female managers in the study. In addition, even when levels of success were achieved, it could be questioned these women could be seen whether these women could be seen as "definers of meaning (or culture)." The author argues that organizational rules driven by culture appear to continue to create difficulties for contemporary women in management. Aida (2009) argues that management style affects organizational innovation and not much is known about innovation in women-owned enterprises.

The topic of gender work and organization could be examined through various perspectives. The work of Kolb (1984) and subsequent research inspired by Kolb (Richard and Sabourin, 2009; Sabourin, 2009; Ayandé and Sabourin, 2010), has led us to gather the literature into five perspectives that represent a cycle of implementation of managerial objectives: the rules dimension (clarifying and aligning the objectives), the emotions dimension (getting a commitment for the objectives), the initiatives dimension (translating the objectives into concrete projects/empowerment), the immediate action dimension (facing emergencies and taking valued added in the execution) and the integrity dimension (executing with the organizational values and principles). Let us examine briefly the contributions of the literature according to these perspectives.

A review of the literature in management and of the Kolb model (1984) and subsequent empirical work by Richard and Sabourin (2009), and Sabourin (2009) has led us to support the existence of five dimensions adapted to strategy execution. The study labeled these dimensions as follows: the rules dimension of emotions, initiatives, immediate action and integrity. Further, the study reviews the literature according to these 5 dimensions. However, very few researches on gender management have examined specific factors of the various dimensions of strategy execution if really gender differences exist.

The rules dimension: Clarifying and aligning the objectives

The rules dimension could be defined as a strategy based on a factual analysis of the situations to set up a more coherent and more rational system (Sabourin, 2009). According to Kolb (1984), this strategy has to do with the abstract conceptualization. This strategy leads to the forming of concepts and formulation of generalizations which integrate the observations and the reflections.

Several authors have links gender management with organizational rules, objectives and hierarchies as a theory of gendered organizations. Acker (1990, 1998) has shown how gender is a seggregational factor linked with objectives and rules in corporate organizations. Mills and Mills (2000) have examined the role of rules in the gendering of organizational culture. Joan et al. (2009) has studied the role played by the 'rules of relevance'. They found that it was through the collaborative work of doing the gender analysis that policy actors came to see...
why such an analysis was needed. This necessarily meant seeing the relevance of gender to the policies they dealt with, which could also highlight gender bias in their own organizations. Yet, a bureaucratic and gendered division of labour ensured that those who got to do the gender analysis were those in relatively powerless positions, predominantly women. The study draws on the ‘turn to practice’ in organizational studies and feminist strategies of ‘sudden seeing’ to consider what the results might offer future projects of gender analysis and organizational intervention.

Vincenza and Brenna (2009) draws attention to the "lived reality" of doing management, which for women in particular, involves the reconciliation of contradictions and conflicting pressures. The paper is of value in giving voice to a selection of women managers by allowing them to reflect upon and explore their experience of management. Reynolds et al. (2010) based on a social psychological analysis of diversity, though, it is argued that auditing that are a group of practices related to rules can be highly problematic. They found that these practice can lead to an increase in prejudice and a decrease in performance on relevant organizational dimensions. Abdul-Azeez et al. (2009) indicated that team management is an essential strategy needed to aid business performance; it is also an important tool which helps in improving business performance and productivity that can lead to business prosperity.

The emotions dimension: Getting a commitment for the objectives

This second dimension is connected to emotions and has to do with commitment and the developing of convictions of employees in the context of a service transformation (Sabourin, 2009). This is what Kolb (1984) has labeled reflexive observation. This strategy transformation can bring about commitment by clarifying the problems, reconciling the divergent points of view and establishing consensus. In the context of this strategy, the divergent and conflicting points of view are more readily accepted.

A topic of importance in the research is the one of capacity to influence and use power to get a commitment of employees and collaborators in the execution of manager objectives. For instance, several authors have examined topics related to this perspective such as Connell (1987) and Fletcher (1999). Several authors have argued that collaboration would be a distinctive practice of female managers to get a commitment from their employers and collaborators (Coleman, 2000). In this regard, Bolton and Boyd (2003) have also examined the role of emotion among female managers. Qiao et al. (2007) surveyed 1,176 respondents and revealed that organizational commitment correlates with a higher perception of existence of human resources practices. The demographic characteristics of age, marital status, and education, but not gender, correlated significantly with organizational commitment. However, gender and marital status were found to moderate the relationship between perceptions of the existence of organizational commitment, in that male and unmarried Chinese employees were significantly more affected by the existence of HR practices than female and married employees (Qiao et al., 2009).

Among the factors of the perspective of emotions is the lack of equity that has been highlighted as a demotivation factor for female managers. For instance, Rubbery (1995) examined the performance-related pay and the prospects for gender pay equity. Cockburn (1991) argues that the men’s resistance to sex equality in organizations was a factor of disagreement. Consistently, Acker (2000) found gendered contradictions in equity projects of organizations. Sadi and Al-Ghazali (2010) investigated the courage it takes for women to do business and reveal that self-achievement is the most motivational factor for in Saudi Arabian business women.

The initiatives dimension: Translating the objectives into concrete projects/empowerment

The initiatives dimension relies on the active experimentation of initiatives, realization of projects and continuous improvement of the existing activities (Sabourin, 2009). This is what Kolb (1984) has called the process of active experimentation. In this context, the generated hypotheses are verified in new situations by executing projects. Results are obtained by an active experiment of new methods. This strategy involves creativity and ideas supporting initiatives and its implementation. With such a strategy, decisions are made after feedback has been obtained about the project execution. Burke (1984) examined the role of mentor has a way to translate organizational objectives into concrete projects and to empower female managers. According to Allen et al. (2006), Bozio (2004) and Scandura (1992), mentoring could contribute to organizational success. Van Emmerick et al. (2008) as hypothesized, culture had a stronger impact on leadership behaviors than gender, particularly on initiating structure. In line with predictions, female managers around the world used more consideration. Yet, unexpectedly, women also used more initiating structure. The results suggest that gender differences in managerial behavior are predominantly present in Western societies. Results contradict classic stereotypes regarding male and female managerial behaviors. More theory is needed to understand the interaction between gender and culture in relation with leadership. Outcomes have practical implications for HRM practices in international firms and cross cultural leadership training, which should aim at reducing stereotypical thinking on female and male leadership attributes in different cultures. Sylvia et al. (2009) found that most of the women have more than one mentor. Across all countries, mentoring practices are more strongly linked to career mentoring.
function while the age and gender of the mentor are more strongly linked to psychosocial mentoring. Mentoring from the perspective of mentee has the same directional relationship with situational and individual variables, but the significance of those relationships varies by country. They argue that companies’ interest in fostering mentoring among their members, particularly women, should be aware that different mentoring functions are influenced by different factors.

Sturges et al. (2010) reports the findings of a study, conducted in a UK new media company, that investigated direct and interactive relationships between perceived organizational support (POS), leader-member exchange (LMX), gender, locus of control, and practice of career self-management behaviors. The results show that it is the interactive relationships that have stronger links with internally focused career self-management behavior, whereas the direct associations, with the exception of LMX, are more closely related to externally oriented career self-management activities. POS moderates the relationship between both gender and locus of control and internally focused career self-management behavior, suggesting that it may send out a signal to certain employees about how supportive the organizational environment is of career self-management. Men and women are shown to act in different ways, depending on the level of POS that they receive, whereas POS encourages individuals with an internal locus of control to engage in internal career self-management behavior, in line with trait activation theory.

The immediate action dimension: Facing emergencies and taking valued added in the execution

Fourthly, the immediate action dimension is carried out through instant action and implementation on a small scale to obtain results quickly and adjustments based on feedback (Sabourin, 2009). According to Kolb (1984), results are obtained by means of immediate actions. There is an opportunity for fast decision-making without respect to an established plan. Interaction with the others is favored only as far as it gives results quickly. The research has often linked directly or indirectly, masculinity, with the capacity to take immediate action and face difficult situation (Kerfoot and Knights, 1993). Khilji and Wang (2007) argued that HRM can either motivate or demotivate employees and an organization should be able to implement practices that encourage positive employee behaviors, then, improved performance is probable.

The integrity dimension: Executing the objectives within the organizational values and principles

The integrity dimension deals with the capacity to achieve objectives within the values and principles of the organization (Sabourin, 2009). Executing objective in the context of integrity, it has to do with the capacity to achieve objectives without compromising the values and principles in the functioning of the organization. Rowley et al. (2010) discussed the interaction between national and organizational culture, values and gender in terms of leadership opportunities. Wong et al. (2002) found that fairness and trust positively affect “employees” loyalty to their supervisors. Several authors have linked organizational value clarification with gender management (Aaltio and Mills, 2002; Aaltio-Marjosola, 1994). Other authors such as Mills and Mills (2000) have examined the question of values, sense making in the gendering of organizational culture; “rules, sense making, formative contexts and discourse in the gendering of organizational culture. Regarding gender values, Hwang and Wen (2009) investigated the effect of hotel overbooking and compensation practices on customers’ perceptions of fairness and loyalty and examine the effects of customer gender, reservation time, membership status, and length of stay, payer source, and reservation channel on perceived fairness toward overbooking. This study utilized a scenario-based survey on grocery shoppers to identify relationships between overbooking, fairness and loyalty. The findings showed that customers who perceive a hotel's overbooking and compensation practices to be unfair are less likely to be loyal to the hotel in the future. Women were more likely than men to perceive the practice of hotel overbooking as unfair.

In conclusion, the literature has examined the management practices in general without putting emphasis the role played specific set of practices and gender differences between female and male’s managers. According to the review of the literature and the conceptual framework, the study could formulate these following 9 hypotheses:

H1: The performance driver that related to the emotions dimension such as the capacity to develop convictions and to get a commitment are the most important set of drivers needed by managers when executing their objectives.

H2: The performance driver that related to the taking initiatives dimension such as Learning by doing and giving employees sense of responsibility are the most important set of drivers that were within reach by managers when executing their objectives.

H3: The performance driver that related to the rules dimension such as clarifying and aligning the objectives are the most important set of drivers that managers took into account when executing their objectives.

H4: The performance driver that related to the immediate action dimension such as quick feedbacks and direct contacts rather than comprehension are the most important set of drivers that managers made good use of their organizational objectives execution.

H5: The performance driver that related to the integrity dimension such as ability to meet organizational objectives...
respecting values and structure of the organization are the most important set of drivers that managers made good use of their organizational objectives execution.

H<sub>2</sub>: There are gender differences in terms of performance driver that related to the emotions dimension such as the capacity to develop convictions and to get a commitment by managers when executing their objectives.

H<sub>3</sub>: There are gender differences in terms of performance driver that related to the taking initiatives dimension such as Learning by doing and giving employees' sense of responsibility by when managers are executing their objectives.

H<sub>4</sub>: There are gender differences in terms of performance driver that related to the immediate action dimension such as quick feedbacks and direct contacts by which managers made good use of their organizational objectives execution.

**Research objectives**

The objective of this research was to analyze the performance drivers put into practice by men and women managers in the execution of their organizational strategic objectives. The two specific objectives of this research are:

i. Assess differences among male and female managers for the 5 dimensions of strategy execution identified in previous research on managerial performance.

ii. Assesses empirically gender differences for socio-demographic variables such as professional experience in the organization and in the management position in strategy execution of their objectives.

**METHODOLOGY**

The research is a part of a broader research on managerial strategy execution and was conducted in four major steps as further presented.

**Step 1: Empirical validation of the dimensions of our conceptual framework**

1. Data was collected by managers through structured training in the countries of the organization for economic co-operation and development (OECD). Three regions of the world, namely, Europe, North America and Australia, were randomly selected. 282 respondents completed the questionnaire.

2. The measuring instrument of Kolb and Kolb (2005), which is the ‘learning style inventory’, has been used since the initial variables were related to the modes of learning. The study validated the questions during executive seminar with three managers of the organization.

3. To make sure that each of the questions was understood, the validation was preceded by a pre-test which was conducted on 15 referees of the Belgian Management Training Association. All questions were suitably understood and adjustments were made to one to clarify its understanding from the respondents.

4. Descriptive analyses were completed to identify certain characteristics of the sample. Frequencies analysis and the test of Cronbach alpha were completed. The results of R-square (degree of explained variance by the model) and factorial analyses were used to verify the hypotheses. As shown in Table 2, reference is made to the Cronbach alpha- an indicator of reliability with the scale of measure between 0 (not reliable of the whole) and 1 (reliable).

Four of the five dimensions of the conceptual framework have been validated in previous research. The first four dimensions had a positive Cronbach alpha and the fifth dimension was added afterwards following focus groups. Table 1 presents the concept definition and the variance and reliability obtained in previous work (Richard and Sabourin, 2009).

**Conceptual framework**

The conceptual framework is inspired by the work of Kolb (1984) and Kolb and Boyatzis (1995) on experiential learning and additional work on the topic (Richard and Sabourin, 2009a; Sabourin, 2009a). The study found that the conceptual model of Kolb (1984) provided us with a completed spectrum of perspective on the topic of strategy execution. The empirical evaluation of the experiential learning theory was mainly supported in education (Jarvis, 1987; Johnson, 1987; White, 1992, 1959). Based on this perspective, the conceptual framework suggests that five different, but complementary dimensions could be obstacles faced by managers when executing their strategy (Figure 1).

**Step 2: Focus groups to identify managerial performance**

Twelve (12) focus groups were conducted with an average of 15 managers per group to identify performance employed by managers. The obstacles identified were used as input to elaborate the measurement instrument related to performance drivers.

**Step 3: Development of a measurement instrument**

The study further developed an instrument tool to measure the role of the 25 performance drivers that were identified in focus groups. The questionnaire was administered and the questions were sequentially adjusted with five groups of approximately 25 managers per group. For each of the 25 variables (Table 2), the intensity indications were measured by using a five point Likert-typed scale. All of the constructs were measured by using multi-item scales anchored by 1 (strongly disagree) and 5 (strongly agree).

**Step 4: Surveys of managers**

Once the instrument was validated, the study surveyed 322 managers to better understand the drivers they get in the execution of their objectives. The following objectives were to assess empirically the existence of the 5 categories of drivers. The number of factors was reduced from 25 to 15 after examination the empirical findings for the section on integrity. Table 2 presents the dimensions and the variables.

**Evaluation questions**

Evaluation 1 (Eval1): How would you scored your organization in
Table 1. Concept and definition.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S/no.</th>
<th>Concept definition</th>
<th>Variance and reliability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| 1     | Rules (abstract conceptualization): theoretical conceptualization by means of rules, postulates and models to systematize information | Variance explained: 53.5%  
Cronbach's alpha: 0.799.                                           |
| 2     | Emotions (reflexive observation): problem recognition and capacity to develop convictions and to get a commitment | Variance explained: 60%  
Cronbach's alpha: 0.831.                                           |
| 3     | Initiatives (active experimentation): select a model to test its possible consequences. Learning by trying, finding new ways to put new ideas in practice. Support initiative to responsibilize employees. | Variance explained: 53%  
Cronbach's alpha: 0.8                                                  |
| 4     | Immediate actions: action oriented that is immediate and concrete. Oriented towards direct contacts and apprehension rather than comprehension. Quick adjustments resulting from feedback. | Variance explained: 52.6%  
Cronbach's alpha: 0.740                                                  |
| 5     | Integrity: ability to meet organizational objectives respecting the integrity of its mission. Active and deliberate construction of the organization values into the structure of organization’s everyday actions. | Not applicable                                                  |

Table 2. Description of measurement questions in the dimensions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Driver Dimension and variable</th>
<th>Measurement-question</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Rule dimension</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drv(_1) V(_1)</td>
<td>I have some techniques so that to clarify the expecting of our managers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drv(_2) V(_2)</td>
<td>We evaluate each year our service and goals oriented in client’s relationship satisfaction.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drv(_3) V(_3)</td>
<td>We have techniques so that our people are results oriented in our annual objectives.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drv(_4) V(_4)</td>
<td>We systematically conduct annual reviews of our activities with the other units within our organization.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drv(_5) V(_5)</td>
<td>We are able to estimate the economic value of improvements we wish to make throughout the organization.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Emotion dimension</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drv(_6) V(_6)</td>
<td>We are able to encourage our workers to adhere to our goals so that they are fully aware of their importance.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drv(_7) V(_7)</td>
<td>We are able to communicate a sense of urgency to our workers so that they are able to make rapid decisions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drv(_8) V(_8)</td>
<td>We are able to significantly increase the motivation and levels of engagement of our workers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drv(_9) V(_9)</td>
<td>We work closely with colleagues who are able to support us during the decision-making process.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drv(<em>{10}) V(</em>{10})</td>
<td>We are able to treat our employees fairly.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Initiative dimension</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drv(<em>{11}) V(</em>{11})</td>
<td>We have developed a culture that fosters initiative and accountability.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drv(<em>{12}) V(</em>{12})</td>
<td>We translate our goals into concrete projects for all our employees</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drv(<em>{13}) V(</em>{13})</td>
<td>We are able to develop team based objectives.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drv(<em>{14}) V(</em>{14})</td>
<td>In my organization, we use various techniques of self-resolution to the level of employees in order to solve management dilemma they met.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drv(<em>{15}) V(</em>{15})</td>
<td>In my organization, we use various techniques according to the level of importance of decisions and team-based management.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2. Cont’d.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Immediate action dimension</th>
<th>Driver</th>
<th>Variable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Drv16</td>
<td>V16</td>
<td>We systematically provide improvements and contingency plans to effectively respond to emergencies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drv17</td>
<td>V17</td>
<td>Over the past years, the number of emergencies we responded to has decreased.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drv18</td>
<td>V18</td>
<td>We systematically perform reviews to find sustainable solutions for repeat situations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drv19</td>
<td>V19</td>
<td>I dedicate at least 2 to 3 ninety-minute sessions each week to work directly on their annual goals.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drv20</td>
<td>V20</td>
<td>We dedicate a maximum of one day each week to respond to urgent requests.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Integrity dimension

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Driver</th>
<th>Variable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Drv21</td>
<td>V21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drv22</td>
<td>V22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drv23</td>
<td>V23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drv24</td>
<td>V24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drv25</td>
<td>V25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1. The conceptual framework of the 5 dimensions of strategy execution.

Step 5: Sample

In the specific context of this research, the study surveyed a specific group of 322 to better understand managers’ drivers of performance when executing their objectives. In the sample, on average, 46% of the managers were responsible for 5 to 19 employees working under them. Median years of service at the current organization have been 2 to 5 years of which a majority (65%) has spent less than 5 years at their current managerial position. Majority of the respondents (61%) were 49 years old or younger. In the sample surveyed, the valid percentages of female managers were 46 and 54 for male managers.

DATA ANALYSES

Observation 1: The drivers dimension of rules (mean V₁ to V₅)

According to the conceptual framework, the first dimension of rules deals with the clarification and alignment of the manager’s objectives. The first dimension gathers variables that refer to factual and rational analysis of the situations.

V₁: I have some techniques so that to clarify the expecting of our managers.

Overall, 82% of respondents are clear about the result terms practicing these drivers?

Evaluation 2 (Eval₂): What would be the score of your organization if the management of the 15 (drivers) practices had been mastered?
he/she is expected to achieve with their managers and the organization. Only 1% of them believe there is a lack of clarity in the results they are expected to achieve (median score 4.00, standard deviation 0.856).

V2: We evaluate each year our service and goals oriented in client’s relationship satisfaction.

To the second variable in dimensions of rules, the emphasis was placed on client’s satisfaction. An overall majority of 68% indicated an affirmative emphasis placed on customer service than on financial and compliance rules (median score 4.00, standard deviation 1.037).

V3: We have techniques so that our people are results oriented in our annual objectives.

When questioned about lack of orientation in results and objectives to be achieved, overall, 85% of the managers think that they display clear understanding of the result that needs to be achieved by their respective managers (median score 4.00, standard deviation 0.916).

V4: We systematically conduct annual reviews of our activities with the other units within our organization.

More than 78% of the respondent managers state that there were annual reviews with other work units. Only 12% of them agree there is a lack of meeting between other departments (median score 3.00, standard deviation 1.341).

V5: We are able to estimate the economic value of improvements we wish to make throughout the organization.

90% of the respondent managers state that they were able to estimate economic value of wished improvements to their organizations. Less than 14% of them agree there is a lack of meeting between other departments (median score 3.00, standard deviation 1.176).

V6: We are able to communicate a sense of urgency to our workers so that they are able to make rapid decisions

 Barely 86% of the managers were able to communicate in situation of emergency so as to make rapid decision. On the contrary, 3% of the managers were not capable of communicating when it was urgent to make a decision (median score 4.00, standard deviation 0.964).

V7: We are able to significantly increase the motivation and levels of engagement of our workers

More than 93% of the managers think that they can sufficiently motivate their employees to increase their levels of engagement. 4% of managers did not steadily increase the level of engagement of their employees (median score 3.00, standard deviation 0.947).

V8: We work closely with colleagues who are able to support us during the decision-making process.

More than 86% agree with fact that they needed to work with competent colleagues so that they could count on their support (median score 3.00, standard deviation 0.947).

V9: We are able to treat our employees fairly

79% of the managers treat their employees fairly (median score 4.00, standard deviation 1.035).

Observation 2: The drivers dimension of emotions (mean V6 to V10)

According to the conceptual framework, the second dimension of emotion deals with getting a commitment to the manager’s objectives by its employees. This dimension gathers variables dealing with topic such as getting a commitment, clarifying problems, reconciling the divergent point of views and establishing consensus.

V6: We are able to encourage our workers to adhere to our goals so that they are fully aware of their importance.

With the indicated values on average for median score (4.00) and standard deviation (0.856), nearly 90% of the managers understand how to encourage their workers so that they adhere fully to the importance of the organization goals. Only 3% of the managers think there are no methods to make which supports their objectives by the employees.

V7: We are able to communicate a sense of urgency to our workers so that they are able to make rapid decisions

 Barely 86% of the managers were able to communicate in situation of emergency so as to make rapid decision. On the contrary, 3% of the managers were not capable of communicating when it was urgent to make a decision (median score 4.00, standard deviation 0.964).

V8: We are able to significantly increase the motivation and levels of engagement of our workers

More than 93% of the managers think that they can sufficiently motivate their employees to increase their levels of engagement. 4% of managers did not steadily increase the level of engagement of their employees (median score 3.00, standard deviation 0.947).

V9: We work closely with colleagues who are able to support us during the decision-making process.

More than 86% agree with fact that they needed to work with competent colleagues so that they could count on their support (median score 3.00, standard deviation 0.947).

V10: We are able to treat our employees fairly

79% of the managers treat their employees fairly (median score 4.00, standard deviation 1.035).

Observation 3: The drivers dimension of initiative (mean V11 to V15)

According to the conceptual framework, the third dimension of initiative deals with translating managerial objectives into concrete projects for employees. It gathers variables dealing with introduction of new projects and ideas that results in more willing and more capable employees. This third dimension relies on the active experiment of initiatives; realization of projects and the continuous improvements of the existing activities.

V11: We have developed a culture that fosters initiative and accountability

86% of the managers had implemented a culture of initiative and accountability while 4% had not (median score 3.00, standard deviation 1.045).
Most managers agree and are on average, 89% of the respondents (median score 3.0, standard deviation 1.163). 10% of managers consider that there is a lack of performing reviews for sustainable solutions

V19: I dedicate at least 2 - 3 ninety-minute sessions each week to work directly on their annual goals

Only 92% of managers dedicated a time to work on the achievements of their organization annual goal (median 2.00, standard deviation 1.233).

V20: We dedicate a maximum of one day each week to respond to urgent requests

With a median score of 3.00 (standard deviation 1.308), 13% of the respondents disagree that there is no availability to dedicate a time to respond to urgent request; on the contrary, 81% of managers agreed with this time estimate.

Observation 5: The drivers dimension of integrity (mean V21 to V25)

According to the conceptual framework, the fifth dimension of integrity deals with executing objectives in the context of integrity. It gathers variables dealing with executing objectives in respecting organizational values and principles.

V21: We clearly define the values of our organization

With an average median score of 4.00 (standard deviation 1.030), the variable 21 indicates that overall, 80% of respondents feel that there are shared organizational values.

V22: When under pressure, we are able to reinforce the values of our organization

This variable screens a median of 3.00 and a standard deviation of 1.002. More than 91% managers feel there is no gap between personal and organizational values.

V23: I am able to recognize differences between the values of my employees and those of my organization

Overall, 90% of the managers focus on how to recognize these differences between personal and organizational values with a median average score of 4.00 (standard deviation 1.094). 10% of the managers consider that there is a lack of performing reviews for sustainable solutions

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According to the conceptual framework, the fifth dimension of integrity deals with executing objectives in the context of integrity. It gathers variables dealing with executing objectives in respecting organizational values and principles.

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With an average median score of 4.00 (standard deviation 1.030), the variable 21 indicates that overall, 80% of respondents feel that there are shared organizational values.

V22: When under pressure, we are able to reinforce the values of our organization

This variable screens a median of 3.00 and a standard deviation of 1.002. More than 91% managers feel there is no gap between personal and organizational values.

V23: I am able to recognize differences between the values of my employees and those of my organization

Overall, 90% of the managers focus on how to recognize these differences between personal and organizational values with a median average score of 4.00 (standard deviation 1.094).

V24: We are reputed for the quality of our service delivery

More than 70% of managers agreed with their reputation of service quality delivery. The median average score is 4.00 and the standard deviation is 0.970.
Table 3. KMO and Barlett test.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy</th>
<th>Bartlett’s test of sphericity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Approx. chi-square</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.894</td>
<td>1621.007</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

V25: We have some techniques so that to reinforce our employees sense of responsibility 88% of the managers use these techniques to increase their employee’s sense of responsibility. The median score is of 3.5 and the standard deviation is 0.97.

Surveys of managers to identify the 5 dimensions with principal components analysis

Once the instrument was validated, the study surveyed 322 managers to better understand which of the drivers of performance they are used to implement in the execution of their objectives. The objectives assess empirically the existence of 5 categories of driver’s performance. The number of factors was reduced from 25 to 15 after examination of the empirical findings for the section on integrity. Table 3 presents the dimensions and the variables.

To get a perspective of the five dimensions that gather the 25 variables of the conceptual framework, principal component analysis (PCA) was employed using SPSS analysis tools. The raw scores were standardized to allow uniform unbiased distribution of all variables. The correlation matrix was derived and the eigenvalues of these variables from the matrix was used for multivariate principal components extraction and the (eigenvalues) value plotted on screen plot graph as shown in figure 1. The first four significant principal components with a cut-off of >1.0 were selected. More than 65 % of total variance was attributed to these four principal components. Varimax rotation with Kaiser Normalization was used to obtain a simple obstacle model. Table 3 shows the rotated component matrix of how each dimension variable loads onto each component. For the study, factor loading cut-off of >0.5 was used. As seen in Table 3 that gives the KMO and Bartlett’s test of sphericity results on the reliability of data set, the KMO value of 0.894 is closer to 1.0 and thus statistically very significant. This adds good confidence and weightage to our PCA analysis.

The total variance explained by these 4 components was 60.47% (Table 4). The dimensions, in order of importance are: the emotion dimension (getting a commitment to the objectives), the initiative dimension (translating the objectives into projects), the rules dimension (clarifying and aligning the objectives) and finally the immediate action dimension (value added actions and dealing with urgent matters. It has been noticed that the integrity dimension (executing within the integrity of values and principles) has no significant impact when managers would develop some performance within the framework of their organizational objectives (Figure 2).

ANALYSES OF FINDINGS

Part A: Gender and the dimension of strategy execution regarding performance drivers

Our findings for each of the five dimensions previously identified by the principal component analysis (PCA) are presented thus:

Component 1 - Drivers from the emotion dimension

Higher loading of variables from dimension of emotions marks the first component. This dimension addresses reflexive observation such as: Problem recognition and capacity to develop convictions and to get a commitment. With an eigenvalue of 5.61, this component accounts for 37.45% of the total variance. V7 which is the observation of the capacity to communicate a sense of urgency to the workers so that they are able to make rapid decisions accounts for the highest factor loading of 0.800 (Table 4).

Component 2 - Drivers from the initiative dimension:

The second component was the initiative dimension. It was defined as an active capacity to experimentation and select patterns to put new ideas in practice. The variance explained by this component was 8.79% and an eigenvalue of 1.319. In this cluster, V14 (utilizing various techniques of self-resolution to the level of employees in order to solve management dilemma they met) had the highest factor loading of 0.746 (Table 4).

Component 3 - Drivers from the rules dimension

The third component is the rules dimension. Clarifying and aligning objectives define this dimension. Unlike the conceptual framework, the dimension of rule seems less important with low eigenvalue of 1.124 and accounts for 7.492% of the total variance. V1 (I have some techniques so that to clarify the expecting of the managers) had the highest factor loading of 0.741 in this component cluster that accounts for 7.492% of the variance (Table 4).

Component 4 - Drivers from the immediate action dimension:

The fourth component in the management/leadership
model is the immediate action dimension. This is defined as taking immediate action to respond to urgent matters or to take value added actions. With the lowest eigenvalue of 1.011, the total variance explained by this component was 6.743%. $V_{20}$ (we dedicate a maximum of one day each week to respond to urgent requests) had the highest factor loading of 0.823 that accounts for 6.743% of the variance (Table 4):
H₁: The drivers that related to the emotions’ dimension such as the resistance to change and the lack of commitment are the most important set of performance driver put into operation by managers when executing their objectives (Table 4).

**Figure 3. Summary of ANOVA between driver’s dimensions and gender differences.**

**Part B: Gender differences and socio-demographic variables of strategy execution regarding obstacles**

**ANOVA analysis of gender differences**

The ANOVA analysis allows comparing the means between two groups of variables. In the case study, the two groups are gender (male and female) and the other group is divided in four variables with some relationship. These variables are the number of years as an employee (Nyae), number of years in the position (Nytp), perception of their organization performance practices (Eval₁), perception of their level of mastering these 25 practices of performance (Eval₂) and finally, the variable number of workforce under supervision in the enterprise (Nwfe). For each group of variable cited, an analysis have been done in order to examine the difference in means scores and in terms of the four driver's dimension of performance resulting from the PCA analysis. This would also allow concluding whether the H₀ “there are no significant gender difference between male and female managers” should be accepted if only significant = p is less than 0.05 or rejected if there would have significant level of gender difference between the group of sample therefore, significant = p>0.05.

**Emotions’ dimension driver**

i. The combined variable (Gender*Nyae) gender and the number of years as an employee (Nyae: how long have you been working for this organization?) reveals: significant = 0.039 and F-value = 2.559. When analyzing the means score for men managers, the study found that mean (M) = 0.0318 and standard deviation (SD) = 1.042. While for women managers the mean (M) was -0.0373 and standard deviation (SD) was 0.959. Accordingly to this difference of mean scores which are tougher for men than women, the studies conclude that male managers would have performed better than the female managers as long as both would have acquired progressively experience.

ii. There is a linkage between gender and the variable evaluation of organizational performance perception (Eval₁) in terms of management practice for performance by canalizing the driver of emotion. The variable Eval₁ shows a significant = 0.000 and F-value = 10.784. This difference is emphasized by the means scores: for male managers M = 0.0343 and SD = 1.045. While for women managers, M = -0.0373 and SD = 0.959. In consideration with the four drivers of performance, male managers would have perceived better than female managers their organizational performance positively and adequately to reaching strategic objectives.
**Initiative’s dimension driver**

i. There is a linkage between gender and the number of years as an employee (Nyae: how long have you been working for this organization?) in terms of practice to performance by taking initiative. The variable Nyae shows a significant = 0.058 and F-value = 2.304. This difference is emphasized by the means scores: for male managers M = 0.0355 and SD = 0.948. While for women managers, there are M = -0.0294 and SD = 1.068. The sampled female manager would not have integrated the initiative’s dimension driver as a mean to develop performance for their organizational objectives on the contrary male managers would have scored a better use of the taking initiative dimension. The difference between means score of each category would reveal this advantage in favor of male managers.

ii. There is a linkage between gender and the variable number of workforce under supervision in the enterprise (Nwfe: approximately how many employees directly or indirectly are you responsible for?) in terms of improving their performance by the capacity to take initiative. The variable Nwfe shows a significant = 0.058 and F-value = 2.170. This difference is emphasized by the means scores: for male managers M = 0.0355 and SD = 0.948. While for women managers, there are M = -0.0294 and SD = 1.068. Consequently, the more the employee under supervision are increasing the more male managers would have developed initiative taken and the score for women was low. This is reinforced by the situation where the female’s sample would show the lower mean score.

iii. There is a linkage between gender and the achievements track-recorded (Eval2) in terms of practice to performance by taking initiative. The variable Eval2 shows a Significant = 0.029 and F-value = 1.872. This difference is emphasized by the means scores: for male managers M = 0.0308 and SD = 0.949. While for women managers there are M = -0.0324 and SD = 1.072. The mastering of the 15 practices identified in this study would reveal that male managers have considered better than female managers that these practices would impact to their organizational perspective of performance. This situation is emphasized by the men’s mean score which is greater than female mean score.

iv. There is a linkage between gender and the variable evaluation of organizational performance perception (Eval1) in terms of management practice by taking initiatives. The variable Eval1 shows some level of perception differences considering that significant = 0.000 and F-value = 7.222. This difference is emphasized by the means scores: for male managers, M = 0.0308 and SD = 0.949, while for women managers, there are mean M = -0.0294 and SD = 1.068. In consideration with the driver of taking initiative, male managers would have perceived better than female managers their organizational performance optimistically. The negative mean score for women comparatively to men would attest this difference in their performance perception. In fact, this disproportion is in favor of the category of male managers.

**Rules’ dimension driver**

i. The combined variables (Gender*Nwfe) gender and number of workforce under supervision in the enterprise (Nwfe: approximately how many employees are you directly or indirectly responsible for?) reveals a significant linkage between them in terms of rules management practice as a tool to increase female and male managerial performance. The variable Nwfe shows a significant = 0.003 and F-value = 4.200. This difference is emphasized by the means scores: For male managers M = -0.0081 and SD = 1.0235. While for women managers, there are M = 0.0184 and SD = 0.969. The higher mean score for women would reveal a better capacity than men when they are putting into practice rules as a driver of performance.

**Immediate action’s dimension driver**

i. There is a linkage between gender and the variable number of workforce under supervision in the enterprise (Nwfe: approximately how many employees are you responsible for? directly or indirectly) in terms of practice to performance by taking immediate action. The variable Nwfe shows a significant = 0.006 and F-value = 7.356. This difference is emphasized by the means scores: for male managers M = 1.2755 and SD = 0.9505. While for women managers, there are M = -0.0294 and SD = -0.1366. Men category records a higher mean score and this would show a better capacity than women when they are implementing immediate action as a driver of performance.

**DISCUSSION**

Within the framework of this study, it has been analyzed the impact of drivers of performance in order to assess whether the achievements of an organizational objectives is correlated to the fact of being a female or a male managers. The concept model that has been developed reveals in practice many gender differences. The PCA and the ANOVA analysis help to point out these differences regarding the performance driver deployed by female and male managers.

**PCA of strategy execution regarding dimension of performance drivers**

In order of importance performance drivers implemented by managers the hypothesis are thus:

H1: The performance driver that related to the emotions’ dimension such as the capacity to develop convictions
and to get a commitment is the first important set of
drivers needed by managers when executing their
objectives. H₁ is supported (Figure 3). This hypothesis is
also strengthened by the Khilji and Wang (2007) study’s
results which emphasize the necessity to create for
employees a work environment that enable to motivate
and to improve their performance. As a matter of fact
female managers and male managers are searching at
all costs the development of their employees’ motivation
with the aim at achieving organizational performances. At
the level of managers, the development of the motivation
also signifies the canalization of employees’ emotions
through communication flux in the light of specific
orientations to reaching organizational goals.

H₂: The performance driver that related to the taking
initiatives’ dimension such as Learning by doing and
giving employees sense of responsibility are the second
set of drivers that were within reach by managers when
executing their objectives. H₂ is supported (Figure 3). This
is consistent with the studies of Silvia and al (2009) which
found that mentoring plays a very important role in career
development. In fact, mentoring appears to be a
prerequisite for success (Allen et al. 2006; Bozionelos,

H₃: The performance driver that related to the rules’
dimension such as clarifying and aligning the objectives
are the third set of drivers that managers took into
account when executing their objectives. H₃ is supported
(Figure 3). The hypothesis is consistent with many
authors’ studies such as Acker (1990, 1998), Mills and
Mills (2000), and Joan et al. (2009).

H₄: The performance driver that related to the immediate
action’s dimension such as quick feedbacks and direct
contacts rather than comprehension are the fourth set of
drivers that managers made good use of their
organizational objectives execution. H₄ is supported and
is consistent with Khilji and Wang (2007) that argue the
importance of motivation in developing organizational
performance.

H₅: The performance driver that related to the integrity’s
dimension such as ability to meet organizational
objectives respecting values and structure of the
organization has not been supported as drivers that
managers utilize to reach their organizational objectives
execution. H₅ is not supported. In contrast with Wong and
Ngo (2002) studies, there is no real consistency with H₅.

**Gender differences and socio-demographic variables**
**of strategy execution drivers**

H₆: There are gender differences in terms of performance
driver that related to the dimension of emotions such as
the capacity to develop convictions and to get a commit-
ment by managers when executing their objectives. This
gender difference is characterized by the correlation at
two levels. The first level of linkage is the numbers of
years that managers would have worked for the organiza-
tion and the second level is the performance perception
of their organization. H₆ is supported. Lindorff (2009)
studies also reveal different levels of satisfaction between
men and women managers in the public sector and thus
strengthen H₆.

H₇: There are gender differences in terms of performance
driver that related to the dimension of taking initiatives
such as Learning by doing and giving employees’ sense
of responsibility by when managers are executing their
objectives. The gender difference is emphasized at four
different levels of correlation that are: the numbers of
years managers had been worked in the organization, the
number of employees managers had under supervision,
the perception of their organization performance in terms
practicing these drivers and finally the perception of their
organization performance. H₇ is supported. Indeed, this
hypothesis can also be confirmed by the investigations of
Sturges et al. (2010) that emphasize the gap between
men and women in terms of perceived organizational
support (POS).

H₈: There are gender differences in terms of performance
driver that related to the dimension of rules such as
clarifying and aligning the objectives that managers took
into account when executing their objectives. This gender
difference is characterized by the correlation with the
numbers of years that managers had been employed in
the organization. H₈ is supported. This hypothesis is
consistent with many others research findings such as
Groshen (1991), Helms et al. (2002) and Joan et al.
(2009).

H₉: There are gender differences in terms of performance
driver that related to the dimension of immediate action
such as quick feedbacks and direct contacts by which
managers made good use of their organizational
objectives execution. This gender difference is characterized by the correlation with the numbers of employees that managers had been supervised in the organization. H₉ is supported. Therefore, focusing on the task of translating declared strategic organizational objectives into action can provide a way out of impasse companies, and of course this would mean to reduce the gap or the lack of ‘diversity’ or ‘gender’ in top manage-
ment positions as being the better vehicle for efficient
organizations in terms of value-added creation and
mainstreaming equity policy (Joan et al. 2009). H₉ is
consistent with Vicenza and Brennan (2009) studies that
emphasize the importance of exploring practices that, on
the one hand, contribute to construct women’s careers as
gendered and, on the other hand, contribute to the
embodiment of specific gendered identities within managerial jobs.

Conclusion

The study shows that the men and the women react differently vis-a-vis the stakes of the time to which their organizations must face. The managers use in an explicit or implicit way, several instruments, in order to achieve the strategic goals of their organizations. The emotions' dimension is a considerable factor in the realization of organizational performances. Force is to note that the experience gained in the company, as well as the capacity to manage the teams of projects as well as collaborators are key elements so that the managers achieve their goals. If sometimes male managers are better, it remains obvious that for other managerial aspects, female managers are as much better. It would be interesting to know why this situation that the study had put forward prevailed, when well even the training levels are virtually identical. To conclude, this article has demonstrated that much work remains to be done on understanding management practices in terms of differences between female and male executive managers. In particular, it has shown for the both categories that integrity dimension had not incidence when developing the organizational performance. However the study supported four of the five driver's dimension of performance as very critical to attain their strategic objectives. According to our conceptual framework, men and women in the execution of their organizational objectives had not the same problem-solving approach. In the light of this study's result, we strengthen several previous researches on gender issues in terms of work, leadership and organizational performance. In fact, most of these studies identified some significant differences between men and women. The plausible explanation for these differences that would appear to be fortuitous in some respects did not justify these gaps and from that moment, it seems quite appropriate to involve other disciplines that are not essentially in the fields of management execution strategies in order to deepen the understanding of disparities in management practice. Obviously, further researches are needed to find the best promoting solutions for female and male managers so that to accompany their organizations to the highest peak they had never expected.

RESEARCH LIMITATIONS/IMPLICATIONS

The differences that have been noted on the level of four dimensions of the performance does not mean either that a category is more capable to manage or not. It has only been raised the fact that one group of managers behaved differently to the other group. This situation rather shows that vis-a-vis the complexity of the situations to which men and women managers face, the context in which the latter move, constitute a not less important factor in the decision-making process and the organizational performance.

If female and male managers' experiences have an impact on their ability to mastering their emotions, our comparative study reveals that the more managers have a strong hands-on experience across their work and their organizations, the more these experiences will be translated in terms of performance within the framework of their organizational strategic objectives achievements. We also noted that emotions are a very important factor to specifics organizational objectives success and then, the context's special features impacts too. This impact is inherent in the information's flows and its intensity in terms of communication: the values and cultures' spread across the organization. At this stage, it would be more prudential to refrain from a generalization of the findings because of the wide range of collaborators and companies that all evolve in a changing environment. For instance, the permanent competitiveness' context also implies for firm to lay down political guidelines and its own top priority in terms of strategic HRM, markets' targets and what is at stake for organizations and management.

In this regard, the capacity to take initiatives would depend on the working conditions and these latter are an important characteristic of the managers' tenure. Even if we noted that women are better in some specific area of strategy execution comparatively to men, this difference would not be explained only by their managerial skills; therefore, the work context should imperatively be integrated to their organizational performance scores. Indeed, the sociological, psychological or even anthropological enterprises' context would constitute other's relevant and needed variables to better understand the root causes of these gender differences in strategy execution management. In fact, contextual factors such as culture, economic conditions, institutions, technology advancement, education, are also important determinants to organizational and leadership performance (Shane, 1996; Harper, 1998; McMillan and Woodruff, 2002; Bettignies and Brander, 2007; Bertrand and Hallock, 2000). Female and male managers work context is important for understanding when, how, and why organizational performance happens and who finally becomes involved in the framework to the strategic objectives attainment (Welter, 2011).

However, the implementation of efficient rules is always necessary to do not create gender bias at the level of organizational norms and values, incentives measures and wages (Acker, 1990, 2000; Mills et al., 2000; Groshen, 1991). Promoting effective incentives schemes and also rules could be seen as a part of an enabling environment from within which the performing employees must evolve.
The research highlighted the importance of working under pressure or being in a situation of emergency that implies immediate action to reaching organizational performance. Simultaneously, it has been observed difference between female and male managers in terms of their abilities to face urgent matters but it appeared crucial to go a step ahead within a framework of further research so that to identify and explain the reason of these gender gap.

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