The Moderating Effect of Government Support between Gender Egalitarianism, Assertiveness, Future Orientation, and Female Leadership Effectiveness: Empirical Study of Public Universities in Saudi Arabia

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ABSTRACT

The underrepresentation of women in academic and administrative leadership roles is a global phenomenon. This study aimed to investigate the leadership effectiveness and the important factors that influence the women leadership effectiveness in the context of Saudi universities. There are still many obstacles face academic women leaders in universities. Among these obstacles, there is a limited authority of the women leaders, the centralization of decision making. Thus, this research investigates the impact of gender egalitarianism, assertiveness, and future orientation on the women leadership effectiveness in the public universities by taking government support as a moderating variable. A questionnaire survey was used to collect the data from 271 female academic leaders working in Saudi universities. The results found that gender egalitarianism, assertiveness, and future orientation have significant positive impact on leadership effectiveness. The value of this paper was in showing the significant of government support as a moderating variable for assertiveness, future orientation to enhance the women leadership effectiveness in Saudi universities.

Keywords: Leadership Effectiveness, Gender Egalitarianism, Assertiveness, Future orientation, Government support.
JEL Classifications: I23, J1

1. INTRODUCTION

Female leadership is one of the top important topics in several fields as issues relating to inequality of gender have caught the attention of research circles for the past several years. More specifically, prior studies (e.g., Bonebright et al., 2012; Haslam and Ryan, 2008; Madsen, 2012a; 2012b; Madsen et al., 2012; White, 2012) have stressed on the limited leadership roles and opportunities for women in the context of higher education.

Although several developments have been noted in higher education in light of female advancement there are still discrepancies in gender that are based on four significant findings. The first is the under-representation of women in leadership positions of higher education (Bonebright et al., 2012; Chin, 2011; Lapovsky, 2014; Madsen, 2012a; 2012b; Madsen et al., 2012; Tessens et al., 2011;

White, 2012). Current findings show that only 26% of college and university presidents are represented by women (Cook, 2012; Lapovsky, 2014; White, 2013). According to Lapovsky (2014), Madsen (2012b) and White (2013), the female representation in higher education is ongoing but it has taken a slow path. In this regard, the lack of female leaders in the higher leadership echelons in higher education has been related to the challenges that women face in the academia including discouraging career advancements, personal circumstances, and underlying institutional rules (Cook, 2012; Lapovsky, 2014; Madsen, 2012b).

The second finding is that women in higher education have a tendency to possess lower academic ranking compared to males as evidenced by Madsen (2012a; 2012b; Schneider et al., 2011). Despite women constituting 43.94% of faculty members in American colleges and universities, a mere 26.81% are professors

– the rest hold the following positions, 49.34% are assistant professors, and 29.12% are full professors. In comparison to their counterparts, men constitute 50.66% of assistant professors, 57.82% of associate professors and 70.88% of full professors (NCES, 2014).

The third finding is related to the underrepresentation of women in the faculties of four-year private universities, where women constituted 35.2%, and four-year public universities, where women constituted 38.7% (NCES, 2014). But in community colleges, women constitute 62.4% of faculty members at community colleges (Madsen, 2012b; NCES, 2014; Schneider et al., 2011).

The last finding is the little progress in minimizing the salary gap, with women earning less than their male counterparts. Four decades ago, women earned 83% of their male colleagues earnings, but currently they only earn 82% of what male academics earn as evidenced in prior studies (e.g., Madsen, 2012a; 2012b; NCES, 2014; Schneider et al., 2011).

Moreover, according to Madsen (2012a; 2012b), Pyke (2013), Schneider et al. (2011) and Tessens et al. (2011), From 27 European countries under European Union, women lead only 13% of higher education institutions, with female academics accounting for 16.5% of full time university professors in the UK, and over 19% of full professors in Australia (Morley, 2013; Schneider et al., 2011; Tessens et al., 2011). Moreover, Pyke (2013) reported that the national average for female moving up to associate professor and full professor in Australian institutions of higher learning is only around 27%.

The numbers are higher in the Middle East and North Africa region where only 3.2% of senior leaders are women (Pande and Ford, 2011; Patel and Buiting, 2013). Similarly, in the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) countries namely Bahrain, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia and the UAE, women represent less than 1% of the leaders in organizations (Sperling et al., 2014). Although segregation of gender is practiced in the higher education system of Saudi Arabia, offering opportunities for female leadership, this has not helped women's increased representation as leaders (Jamjoom and Kelly, 2013). According to Al Ankari (2013), more than half of the college students in Saudi Arabian institutions of higher learning are female students but 4% of the university president positions are occupied by female leaders (Jamjoom and Kelly, 2013; Ministry of Higher Education [MOHE], 2016).

Additionally, although more female rates of enrolment, retention and graduation exceed those of males in GCC countries, like Saudi Arabia and the UAE (Hausman et al., 2012), females are still underrepresented in light of academic professional positions (Al Ankari, 2013; Al-Ohali and Al-Mehrej, 2012; Alomair, 2015; Indicators of the UAE Higher Education Sector, IUHES, 2013; MOHE, 2016). This is exemplified by the 2010 obtained data concerning female employment in the 68 institutions of higher learning in Saudi Arabia that highlights the minimal rate of female faculty members (40%), with most of them occupying lower ranks (Al-Ohali and Al-Mehrej, 2012; Jamjoom and Kelly, 2013). The IUHES (2013) also reported that only 30.8% of the

faculty members in the 102 colleges and universities in the UAE are women.

Prior studies including Chin (2011), Madsen (2012a; 2012b) and White (2012; 2013) stated that because of the widespread gender inequality in the education sector, there is an urgent need for female leadership to increase. Considering the predictions of future turnover and the rates of retirement of university presidents and chancellors, there is ample opportunity for promoting and enhancement of gender equality in higher education institutions (Cordova, 2011 ; White, 2012). This is significant as female leaders have several advantages to offer such institutions – they provide a distinct viewpoint and positive experiences, improve performance of institutions and the research scope, and they facilitate transformational change (Madsen, 2012a; 2012b). Moreover, Diehl (2014) revealed that female leaders' interpersonal styles of leadership can promote inclusion, trust, empathy, and concern for others and establish a type of leadership that is transformational, future-centered, participative and democratic. Additionally, female leaders are able to inspire the female youth by taking on the role as models and mentors (Diehl, 2014; Madsen, 2012a; 2012b).

A significant proportion of literature has been dedicated to the women advancement in leadership positions in institutions of higher learning (Collings et al. et al., 2011; Christman and McClellan, 2008; Diehl, 2014; Kellerman and Rhodes, 2014; Keohane, 2014; Madsen, 2012a; 2012b; Pyke, 2013; Tessens et al., 2011; Toma et al., 2010). Such studies dealt with the requirement of developing more female leaders in the academia and highlighted the need to develop female academics and administrators for their successful transition to leadership positions. Nevertheless, majority of researches on women and leadership in the context of education have a tendency to direct their focus on the female leaders' faced challenges and barriers, rather than their development as leaders (Madsen, 2012a; 2012b).

More specifically, according to Kellerman and Rhodes (2014), there is a lack of balance in the home burdens responsibilities, known as disproportionate burden, as women hold more family responsibilities compared to men. Hence, challenges crop up owing to the demands of leading an academic department or a complex firm. Such concept of disproportionate burdens was also mentioned by Toma et al. (2010) who carried out a study with the assistance of 18 female leaders in four Spanish universities. Based on the findings, female leaders face the greatest difficulty in handling demands and commitments of family against those of their careers. The authors revealed that female leaders often decide to take on leadership roles based on particular time in their lives, like when their children are enrolled in school or have left the roost. These findings were supported by Tessens et al. (2011) who conducted a survey study to analyze career development needs of more than 200 female leaders employed in two Australian universities. The results showed that female leaders face challenges that include excessive work-load, difficulty in family-work balance and lack of professional support.

Other related researches like those by Kellerman and Rhodes (2014), Keohane (2014) and Toma et al. (2010) reported that

the top factor that forms attitudes towards women leaders and bars their career advancement is gender stereotypes. Females are confronted with a double bind and double standard owing to the existing gender stereotypes related with leadership and masculinity as evidenced by Kellerman and Rhodes (2014). They explained that assertive female leaders can be viewed as devoid of compassion or sensitivity to others' needs. Such argument was also employed by Keohande (2014) who revealed that gender stereotypes hinders the fair evaluation of women on the basis of their achievements and that women are more likely to be deemed as lacking competency in decision-making because of gender stereotypes. These stereotypes include nurturing, kindness and sensitivity, and this is why women who can make hard decisions are considered to be harsh and insensitive.

Similar findings were mirrored in Toma et al.'s (2010) study that revealed gender discrimination and stereotypes to be existent in male-dominated work environments. They emphasized on the gender roles limiting women in their quest to achieve their leadership aspirations. They also revealed that gender discrimination and stereotype practices including unfair performance evaluations based on the standards set out by males, undervalued women's professional careers, and the view that women do not have leadership qualities. In relation to this, several studies have looked into the effect of variables on effective leadership and these include gender and culture – the two aspects of interest when organizational leadership effectiveness is concerned (Binns and Kerfoot, 2011; Lantz, 2008; Mandell and Pherwani, 2003; White and Ozkanli, 2011).

From the above evidence, it is clear that females face many leadership-related difficulties and challenges in the education sector, especially in universities, which might be due to limited leadership roles and opportunities for women and gender inequality, which can lead to the underrepresentation of females in leadership positions.

Many recommendations have emerged from the studies deliberate efforts are still needed on the part of governments, through its series of efficient policies affecting universities to nurture a climate that is conducive to successful operations of universities (Dandago and Usman, 2011; Sobri Minai and Lucky, 2011).

Ultimately, after reviewing the Saudi context literature, researcher found that no studies have been studies the cultural factors as individual level. Therefore, the researcher is seeking for bridging the gap by studying the effect of gender egalitarianism, assertiveness, and future orientation on leadership effectiveness. In recent years, researchers have considered effects of government support as a key area of concern (Nguyen et al., 2009). However, only few studies have investigated the effect of government support (Nguyen et al., 2009) especially in the context of Saudi universities. On the other hand, previous studies did not investigate the government support as moderating by the role of Saudi government to develop the position leader for women in universities. As well as, globally, no studies have been done to integrate framework including these factors in this study and examine the government support as a moderating variable.

Accordingly, the main research objectives in this study to examine whether government support is influence the relationship between gender egalitarianism, assertiveness, future orientation and leadership effectiveness in public universities of Saudi Arabia. This study be added a new contribution to the body of knowledge in the field of leadership.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Leadership Effectiveness

Leadership effectiveness is a complex concept that is very challenging to describe as it encapsulates varying components including several organizational contingencies interspersed with personal and interpersonal behaviors. Several researchers have attempted to define the concept in different ways. For instance, Stogdill (1974) and Bass and Stogdill (1990) listed and interpreted approximately five thousand studies concerning the concept with great variations in its definitions. Meanwhile, Burns (1978) described leadership as one of the most examined and at the same time least examined phenomenon on the plant as individuals appear to acknowledge a default position that leadership is generally what leaders do and leaders are those that hold power over others.

A notable leadership effectiveness definition that is all inclusive refers to the term as the successful exercise of personal influence by an individual or more that leads to the achievement of shared objectives in such a way that satisfies all the involved individuals. According to Hughes et al. (2009), leadership effectiveness cannot be described on its own but there is a need to understand its three domains to answer the question as to how the leader, the followers and the situation interact in the leadership process.

In a similar study, March and Weil (2005) explained that the levels of effectiveness and efficiency are deemed to be the highest when leadership roles are carried out by individuals that are characterized by competency, enterprising and committed to the institution, and are autonomous in their jobs. He added that competence, initiative, identification and unobtrusive coordination and decisions form the leadership core.

In Hofstede's (1991) study, he provided a description of the way culture is able to program the individuals' minds in order to take or reject distinct values and display distinct behaviors. He highlighted five national cultures dimensions namely power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism collectivism, gender egalitarianism, and institutional collectivism. His model has been extensively adopted to investigate the culture's effect on leadership style. In relation to this, Hofstede's work was updated by Global Leadership Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) Research Program (1992-2000), The GLOBE research has the nine dimensions, which included those five dimensions proposed earlier by Hofstede's (1991). The four new dimensions added to Hofstede's four dimensions were future orientation, performance orientation, humane orientation and assertiveness (Abu-Jarad et al., 2010). Therefore, the researcher is seeking for bridging the gap by studying the effect of independent variables (gender egalitarianism, assertiveness, and future orientation) as individual level on leadership effectiveness.

2.2. Gender Egalitarianism and Leadership Effectiveness

The concept of gender egalitarianism and related constructs can be very complex. There are many antecedents that drive cross-cultural differences in the division of roles between the sexes (House et al., 2004). Antecedents include attitudes, stereotypes, parental investment, religion, economic development and even climate and geographical latitude. To add to the complexity, some studies within a particular area sometimes yield contradictory findings. Even though promoting gender equality, GLOBE study states to the strength to which an organization or a culture reduces gender role alterations while endorsing gender equivalence (House et al., 2004). Hofstede (1980; 1998; and 2001) studied this concept in terms of the emphasis that societies place on masculinity and femininity. Masculine values are related to assertiveness, success, and competitiveness while feminine values are linked to nurturance and solidarity. In addition, he studied the differences among societies in terms of what they viewed as appropriate behaviors for males versus.

Adler (1986) tried to show a general perspective about the situation of female leaders and the barriers that hinder them from advancement. Adler showed the difference in the women's contribution in the employment between various countries in the globe. The author noticed that women's participation in the labor force was lower in the Middle East than that was in the Western world. Adler explained that the difference in rate of women's participation in the labor force was because of social, educational, and legal reasons (Al-Hourani, 2013).

Moreover, Adler (1986) also stated that in spite of the high rate in women's participation in labor force in many countries, there was under representation in top management for women. This under representation of women in management positions was recognized in all cultures (Adler, 1986). There were cultural, social, legal, educational, historical, and psychological barriers. Adler also asserted that there was an increase in the number of women mangers, but it was a slow increase, because of recognition that women in management were perceived differently in management, and because they were perceived as that they contribute less than men to the field of management. Those perceptions cause women face struggles to take their right to advancement to leadership positions as Burns (1987) discussed in his study.

Højgaard (2002) asserted that the high percentage of egalitarian in the country affects the civil service and the political sector, because they are part of the public sector. The author considered that the public sector concerned in the family matters more than the private one did. The author concluded that the egalitarian culture of females and males in Denmark affected the representation of women in leadership positions in the three fields. The issue of presentation of women in leadership positions was not only in politics, business, and public administration but it was clear also in the higher education. However, under-representation of women in higher education was discussed by Hopkins (2004), and White and Ozkanli (2010).

Hopkins (2004) presented the problem of under-representation of women in universities by discussing the problem in economics departments in Australia. The authors used data from the Department of Employment, Science, and Training to obtain information about the numbers of men and women within a specific classification during several years in all departments of the university. He collected other data about economics departments in Australia from their Internet websites. Hopkins found that there are more male senior professors in economics departments than in other university departments.

He noted that the number of women in senior professor positions became fewer after four years, and that the number of academic economist in general declined after three years. The author found the number of women academics decreased for several reasons, such as the low number of women involvement in PhD programs, the decline in women enrollment in economics departments, and the fact that research about women in the field did not interest some men in the field. Recently, there was more research about differences in perceptions towards women and her right for leadership between cultures. Thus, White and Ozkanli (2010) compared those perceptions between Turkey and Australia.

White and Ozkanli (2010) analyzed the differences in perceptions of gender and leadership in Turkey and Australia by collecting data from university senior managers. They wanted to find out about the different cultures of the two countries. There are big differences between Turkey and Australia in the gender gap index, pay equity, and equal opportunities. Those differences impact the perceptions of men and women in universities towards women and their right to take leadership positions. Although there are more women professors in Turkey relative to Australia, there are more women leaders in Australia relative to Turkey.

The author interviewed 45 senior managers in the two countries to explore whether they perceived differences in leadership between men and women. White and Özkanli found that Turkish respondents held a traditional view of gender and leadership, while Australian respondents held a boarder view about leadership styles of senior managers regardless of gender because there were women in senior management teams in their universities. The different cultures affected the perceptions of respondents in the two countries towards gender and leadership. In Turkey, professors wanted to be in senior management to get more respect and better salaries. Whereas in Australia, professors liked to be in senior management in order to provide advantage to the university. Turkish respondents did not consider that there was gender discrimination in leadership positions, and they did not consider that there were barriers to women advancement in universities.

Therefore, the first hypothesis can specified as following:

H_1: There is a significant relationship between gender egalitarianism and leadership effectiveness.

2.3. Assertiveness and Leadership Effectiveness

It refers to the degree to which people are assertive or non-assertive, aggressive or non-aggressive, and tough or tender in social relationship (House et al., 2004). The concept of assertiveness originates in part from Hofstede's (1980; 1998; 2001)

culture dimension of masculinity versus femininity. In masculine cultures, men are imaginary to be self-assured and strong whereas females are shy and affectionate. Hofstede (1980; 2001) explicitly links his tough-tender dimension in terms of values to sex roles and gender equality even if this index has no items mentioning assertive attributes or behaviors.

Assertiveness in the project GLOBE study mentions the extent to which persons in organizations or societies are self-confident, strong, leading, and hostile in their connections with other persons (House et al., 2004). The means for the assertiveness values scale range from 2.66 to 5.56 with a mean of 3.82. People's aspirations regarding assertiveness in society are modestly, negatively related to their assessments of current levels of assertiveness (House et al., 2004).

Terlutter et al. (2010) conducted a survey of consumers in the United States, Germany, Great Britain, Austria, and Argentina. The focus was to explain if there was an impact of assertiveness, as used in the GLOBE study, on the perception and evaluation of standardized advertisement. A non-student sample of 714 respondents (140 from the U.S., 200 Germany, 100 UK, 124 Austria, and 150 Argentina) was included and all were between 18 and 76 years of age with a median age of between 30.6 and 34.3 years old. Results showed assertiveness is a favorable cultural dimension for advertising purposes overall.

However, consumers who positively evaluate advertisements incorporating assertive appeal are not in countries considered highly assertive and showed path coefficients of 0.77 Argentina, 0.55 Germany, 0.46 UK, 0.45 Austria, and 0.44 U.S. Only the relationship between the US and Argentina differs on a 10% level. However, respondents in countries with high social practices of assertiveness like the U.S. perceived the lowest level of assertiveness in the advertisement. It was the same for UK, Austria, Germany, and Argentina.

Cakar and Erturk (2010) conducted a study of 93 small and medium sized organizations in Turkey, to calculate the sound effects of organizational culture and authorization to invention competence. It was assumed that confidence emphasis will be absolutely correlated to modernization ability of a firm. Employees who recognize the self-assurance emphasis higher will describe greater levels of modernism competence. Survey data was collected from 449 employees at 50 medium-sized firms, (60% males and 40% females) and 294 individuals at 43 small-sized firms (78% males and 22% females), The data showed that assertiveness focus had little effect on innovation capability at the individual level and no statistically significant effect at the firm level.

Assertiveness has been correlated with academic self-efficacy, adjustment, and decreased levels of loneliness among international graduate students (Poyrazli et al., 2002), Although assertiveness is not a characteristic that is esteemed in all cultures, it appears that the existence of assertiveness for both men and women in American society has personal, social, academic, and health benefits. Highly assertive individuals possess greater levels of internal locus of control and report experiencing fewer health

problems than people with lower levels of assertiveness (Williams and Stout, 1985).

There is some evidence that changes in self-reports of assertiveness can be influenced by education on the status of women in society and on psychological theory and concepts of women's development. Specifically, it was found that participation in a psychology of women college course positively impacted female undergraduate students' reported levels of assertiveness and attitudes toward women (O'Connell, 1989).

Cassel and Blackwell (2002) suggested that there exists positive, negative, and the absence of assertiveness with positive assertiveness benefiting the individual most by aiding in decision-making. Previous research suggested that assertiveness is made up of four relatively independent response types including defense of interests, social assertiveness, independence, and defectiveness'. Of these four response types, defectiveness', and independence were the best predictors of assertiveness in group performance tasks (Smith-Jentsch et al., 1996).

Gough and Heilbrun (1983) noted that assertiveness correlated with certain Q-sort descriptions (Block, 1961). Among the descriptions with the highest correlations are behaves in an assertive fashion, "initiates humor," and "enjoys sensuous experiences (including touch, taste, smell, physical contact),"Also noted were Q-sort descriptions with large negative correlations including "tends toward over-control of needs and impulses; binds tensions excessively; delays gratification unnecessarily, "and "gives up and withdraws where possible in the face of frustration and adversity."

Assertive individuals are not only perceived as leaders, but they also get things done, implying effectiveness. This assertion is supported by a study of mid-level managers from various industries who reported themselves as assertive and were subsequently found to be more effective by their raters than those reporting themselves as cooperative, self-disciplined, and tactful (Hills, 1984). Perhaps, this increased effectiveness is due to the fact that assertive individuals are active, and they use various influencing tactics to achieve their goals.

This is supported by the fact that goal setting as an influence tactic has been established in literature as a component of assertiveness (Brass and Burkhardt, 1993; Locke, 1976). In light of the discussion above, assertiveness has been found to have both a positive and a negative relationship to leader, it is posited that assertiveness should also predict leadership effectiveness. Therefore, the second hypothesis can specified as following:

H_2: There is a significant relationship between assertiveness and leadership effectiveness.

2.4. Future Orientation and Leadership Effectiveness
According to House et al. (1999), future orientation is the level to which a collectivity inspires and rewards future-oriented attitude like as planning and deferring delight. It has been recognized steadily as a core value orientation of entire cultures (Kluckhohn and Strodtbeck, 1961). Literature on future orientation can be

divided into three perspectives. The first is using a cross-cultural perspective at the societal level which closely ties time perceptions and attitudes to important outcomes such as economic success or overcoming other health or socio-economic societal barriers. Future orientation appears to be developed during childhood and adolescence and is linked to the process of socialization (Trommsdorff, 1983; House et al., 2004). In general, most societies are reported to have moderate levels of future orientation practices giving near equal priorities to futuristic concerns as to immediate issues (House et al., 2004).

A research of Steinberg et al. (2009) scrutinized age variances on the future direction by means of a sample size of 935 individuals age fall between 10 and 30 with 49% men and 51% women. The processes in use in demographics, aptitude, impulsivity, risk behavior and future guidelines. For investigation of future directions, was a 15 item self-report degree of the future way of development that consists of three subscales five elements afterwards anticipate future consequences and planning ahead. The results showed that youths show steadily weaker in the future than young people 16 and older, with significant differences in planning ahead, and given the time orientation. They were also less apprehensive about the future and less likely to anticipate the consequences of their decisions.

Another study by Kerpelman and Moshner (2004) explored the effects of self- efficacy, control and responsibility, and identity development on rural African American adolescents' future orientation. A group of 267 African American students (99 boys and 168 girls) in grades 7th through 12th completed a two-part survey. Grade level was dichotomized as 7th and 8th labeled "lower grade level" and 9th through 12th as "higher grade level." The 18-item Future Orientation Questionnaire (Seginer et al., 1991) was used to measure future education and future career orientation. It was found that all the variables were predictive of future orientation to some extent. T-test results showed that girls scored significantly higher than boys for identity commitment, future education, and future career orientation.

The second perspective of future orientation is at the managerial or organizational level such as long-term orientation and its effect on organizations adaptability, flexibility, and ethics, strategizing, planning, and coping in turbulent competitive environments (Saltzman et al., 2001). A study by Alas et al. (2015), looked at connections between organizational ethics and the different cultural dimensions in the original GLOBE study.

Questionnaires were answered by a total of 356 individuals (59 from Brazil, 236 from China and 61 from Estonia) with 39.89% male and 59.27% were female. Results showed a statistically significant difference in ethical consideration was found between at least two ethics was most relative for Estonian respondents, then for Chinese respondents, and the least for Brazilian respondents. Ethical relativism was positively correlated with future orientation. Future orientation was positively related to ethical relativism with Estonia having the highest score, followed by Brazil and China with the lowest score.

The third perspective of future orientation is that of the psychological or individual level associated with financial and other social behaviors and individual psychological attitudes and well-being. Although future orientation seems to be developed during childhood and adolescence, the impact of various societal, cultural, and demographic factors interact to determine adult attitudes. A study by Howlett et al. (2008) looked at how individual's long-term financial decisions, such as investing in a 401 (k) retirement plan, are affected by self-regulation, future orientation, as indicated by consideration for future consequence (CFC), and financial knowledge.

A total of 89 graduating seniors at a public university participated in an experimental design study. Findings suggest that consumers who express higher levels of future orientation with high CFC are more probable to contribute in a superannuation idea than low CFC consumers; concern qualified by self-regulatory state, and also had less progressive behavior to the high risk/modest return investments.

The results also recommend that the financial knowledge and guidance in the future can cooperate to have emotional impact the likelihood of participation in 401 (k), consumers with a common level of financial information; future oriented customers communicated more prospective to contribute in a pension plan for future oriented customers. But in the absence of knowledge, consumer orientation just before the future does not disturb the likelihood of the 401 participation in the study. The GLOBE investigation determined propensity of organizations with reference to the culture of high future bearings to be persuaded to hold assured leadership styles: Participative, team-oriented, humane-oriented, and charismatic/value-based (Dorfman et al., 2004). GLOBE's leadership theory categorized "other-oriented" match up with this distinct servant leadership trait. As GLOBE originate leadership traits that would be desired by groups in highly future oriented cultures, numerous of which have been discovered as part of the servant leadership concept (together with distinctive characteristic). This study described the more comprehensive investigation of servant leadership and how it communicates to future orientated culture, will approve that the degree of cultural future orientation disturbs the choice of groups for servant leadership behaviors.

Zhao's (2006) research determined that international recruiters undervalued the quantity of value applicants from high future way cultures place on long-term fundamental rewards, such as training and improvement occasions. He further clarifies that such learning occasions well organize and certify contenders for long-term professional accomplishment and proposes that recruiters ability profession advertisements that obviously clarify long-term learning opportunities available, so that the top candidates will be concerned and apply for service at the corporations they characterize.

Ofer (2008) accompanied study in Japanese organizations and create that because of its future orientation, a sole dire success top management care procedure is capitalizing in project management exercise. The researcher described that Japanese project managers

frequently make conclusions with attention of what will support them in the long term; so, in order to certify victory in the future, they follow training support.

Therefore, the third hypothesis can be specified as following:

H_3: There is a significant between future orientation and leadership effectiveness.

2.5. The Government Support

Government support comprises government policy, positions and guidelines, schemes and incentives for different sectors, and especially for the higher education sector (Shariff et al., 2010; Dandago and Usman, 2011; Shariff and Peou, 2008).

Several recommendations were provided by studies in literature in an attempt to call for more government efforts through their policies that bring about universities nurturing climate that leads to successful operations (Dandago and Usman, 2011; Sobri Minai and Lucky, 2011),

Past empirical researches dedicated to examining the relationship between government policy and performance have primarily been conducted in developed organizations. They serve as significant evidence that indicates the relationship between government policies and performance.

Despite the fact that majority of the findings have been dedicated to developed organizations, they have suggested that government policy does affect performance in developing organizations as well (Shariff et al., 2010; Dandago and Usman, 2011; Shariff et al., 2008).

More specifically, according to Nguyen et al. (2009), government policy can have a key business role in the development of sustainable factors and in the development of land infrastructure conditions to assist universities. Also, Sana and Abbas (2005) and United States Agency for International Development (2010) revealed that Iraq, as a country in transition, needs to adopt measures to set up the conditions for the promotion of activities in universities. Prior studies also highlighted that government support, which should play a key role in creating conducive conditions in terms of cooperation and resources use (Brimble et al., 2002; Tambunan, 2005). Theoretical and empirical researches Shariff et al. (2008), Herri (2002) and Opara (2010) evidenced that government support has a consistent influence on performance. Furthermore, Nguyen et al. (2009) revealed that government policies provide support for activities in both developed and developing countries and such policies are referred to as critical factors.

Regardless of the lack of empirical testing of the moderating role of government support for performance in literature, empirical evidence indicates such moderation in the turbulent environment. This shows that government support can be considered as a distinct resource in achieving high performance in universities. With regards to the direction of the relationship as to whether or not government support results in better performance, according

to evidence, the development of government support contributes to the performance in universities. In this background, prior studies showed that perceived government support moderates the relationship between independent factors and performance (Harash, 2014) and this provides a solid basis to support the existence of the government support's moderating effect (Harash, 2014).

This study has examined the relationships between assertiveness, gender egalitarianism and future orientation and leadership effectiveness by using the government support as a moderator. Therefore, the next hypotheses are, as following:

H_4: There is a significant relationship between government support as moderator on the relationship between gender egalitarianism and leadership effectiveness.

H_5: There is a significant relationship between government support as moderator on the relationship between assertiveness and leadership effectiveness.

H_6: There is a significant relationship between government support as moderator on the relationship between future orientation and leadership effectiveness.

3. RESEARCH FRAMEWORK

Based on a detailed review of the literature exposes that the effects of gender egalitarianism, assertiveness, and future orientation on the leadership effectiveness by taking government support as moderating variable are still inconsistent. To resolve this inconsistency, this study suggested the proposed framework which is developed in relation to the hypotheses of this study as shown in Figure 1.

4. METHODOLOGY

To achieve the objective of this study, a quantitative methodology approach was employed. This study used the data collected through the survey questionnaire. The population of the study is the female leaders in the public universities in Kingdom of Saudi Arabia which were selected from the Ministry Official Website. Specifically, the study divided the number of public universities

Figure 1: Research framework
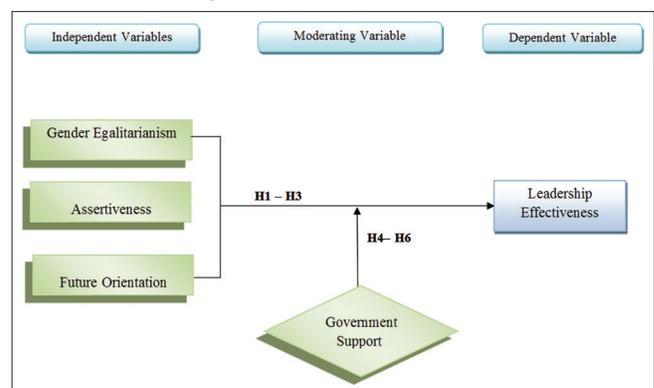
into five geographical clusters (East, West, Middle, North, and South) in each region one university has been selected based on the high number of female leaders in the university. The sample size of this study was 338 samples (Sekaran, 2014). The returned and usable questionnaires were 271 questionnaires which as data analysis in this study.

To examine the model, the partial least squares (PLS)-structural equation modeling (SEM) approach is employed, using PLS 2.0. As the tool for data collection is questioners so the validity and reliability of the items are checked for the convergent validity, construct validity and discriminant validity of the items. Statistical outcomes show that all measurement items are significant and relevant to the measurement of the dependent variable.

5. DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS

A descriptive analysis for data was conducted to describe the assertiveness, gender egalitarianism, future orientation, government support and leadership effectiveness from the women leaders' perspective.

Table 1 shows that the dependent variable (leadership effectiveness) received the minimum mean value among all constructs (3.74) which indicate that women leaders emphasize the lack of leadership effectiveness which is reflected in the main problem statement of the study.

5.1. Testing the Measurement, Outer Model, Using PLS Approach

The goodness of the measures of this study was examined by the PLS-SEM using Smart-PLS 2.0 which was utilized to set up the construct validity of the measures. Before testing the study's hypotheses, the measurement model, outer model, was assessed through the PLS-SEM technique. To achieve that, this study followed the two steps approach suggested by Anderson and Gerbing (1988) as discussed in the following sections:

5.1.1. Convergence validity analysis

Convergence validity is the degree to which a group of variables converge to measure a specific concept (Hair et al., 2010), As suggested by Hair et al. (2010), to establish convergence validity, three criteria should be tested simultaneously, namely factor loadings, composite reliability (CR) and average variance extracted (AVE). Hence, the loadings of all items were examined where all items had loading more than 0.5, which is an acceptable level according to the multivariate analysis literature (Hair et al., 2010),

Table 1: Descriptive statistics

Construct	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard deviation
Assertiveness	271	1	7	3.88	0.917
Gender eegalitarianism	271	1	7	3.48	0.706
Future orientation	271	1	7	3.86	0.696
Government support	271	1	7	4.69	0.804
Leadership effectiveness	271	1	7	3.74	0.783

The second criterion to test convergence validity is the CR which refers to the degree to which a set of items consistently indicate the latent construct (Hair et al., 2010). In Table 2, the values of Cronbach's alpha and CR were examined. The values of Cronbach's alpha ranged from 0.778 to 0.967; and the CR ranged

Table 2: Convergence validity analysis

Construct	Items	Loading	Cronbach alpha	CR[a]	AVE[b]
Assertiveness	AS1	0.502	0.945	0.952	0.575
	AS10	0.815			
	AS11	0.776			
	AS12	0.850			
	AS13	0.716			
	AS14	0.768			
	AS15	0.799			
	AS2	0.730			
	AS3	0.781			
	AS4	0.679			
	AS5	0.822			
	AS6	0.769			
	AS7	0.820			
	AS8	0.692			
	AS9	0.843			
Future orientation	FO1	0.805	0.919	0.937	0.713
	FO2	0.854			
	FO3	0.855			
	FO4	0.864			
	FO5	0.834			
	FO6	0.853			
Gender egalitarianism	GE1	0.737	0.778	0.844	0.541
	GE2	0.718			
	GE3	0.691			
	GE4	0.821			
	GE5	0.611			
Government support	GS1	0.698	0.901	0.921	0.627
	GS2	0.767			
	GS3	0.798			
	GS4	0.780			
	GS5	0.826			
	GS6	0.818			
	GS7	0.845			
Leadership effectiveness	LE1	0.773	0.967	0.969	0.543
	LE10	0.804			
	LE11	0.791			
	LE12	0.616			
	LE13	0.807			
	LE14	0.561			
	LE15	0.523			
	LE16	0.750			
	LE17	0.789			
	LE2	0.766			
	LE3	0.794			
	LE4	0.544			
	LE5	0.693			
	LE6	0.741			
	LE7	0.805			
	LE8	0.784			
	LE9	0.760			

[a]CR=(Σ factor loading)^2/{(Σ factor loading)^2)+Σ (variance of error)}, [b]AVE=Σ (factor loading)^2/{Σ (factor loading)^2+Σ (variance of error)}. CR: Composite reliability, AVE: Average variance extracted

from 0.844 to 0.969, which exceeds the recommended level of 0.7 (Fornell and Larcker, 1981; Hair et al., 2010). Therefore, these results confirm the convergence validity of the outer model.

Furthermore, the values of the AVE were examined to confirm the convergence validity of the outer model. AVE reflects the average of variance extracted among a group of items in relation to the variance shared with the errors of measurement. In other words, AVE measures the variance captured by indicators in relation to the variance assignable to the measurement errors. Hence, if the value of AVE is at least 0.5, then these set of items have an adequate convergence in measuring the concerned construct (Barclay et al., 1995). In the study, AVE values range between 0.541 and 0.713 that indicate a good level of construct validity of the measures used (Barclay et al., 1995).

5.1.2. Discriminant validity analysis
To establish construct validity of the outer model, it is very important to confirm discriminant validity. Therefore, before testing the hypotheses through the path analysis, discriminant validity testing is mandatory. Its measures show the degree to which items differentiate among constructs. In other words, discriminant validity shows that items that are used to measure different constructs do not overlap. In addition, discriminant validity of the measures share variance between each construct, and therefore, should be greater than the variance shared among distinct constructs (Compeau et al., 1999).

For the purpose of this study, discriminant validity of the measures was confirmed by employing the method of Fornell and Larcker (1981). As explained in Table 3, the square root of AVE for all constructs was replaced at the diagonal elements of the correlation matrix. The discriminant validity of the outer model for this study is confirmed since the diagonal elements in the table are higher than the other elements of the column and row in which they are located. As a result of the above testing for construct validity of the outer model, it is assumed that the

obtained results pertaining to the hypotheses testing are reliable and valid.

5.2. Assessment of the Structural Model
Once the goodness of the outer model had been confirmed, the next stage was to test the hypothesized relationships among the variables. Using Smart-PLS 2.0, the hypothesized model was tested by running bootstrapping technique.

This study was using Smart-PLS 2.0, the hypothesized model was tested by running PLS bootstrapping. Therefore, the path coefficients (beta) were generated by using PLS algorithm as illustrated in Figure 2.

Figure 3 aims to confirm whether or not the path coefficients (beta) are significant. This study used the bootstrapping technique in Smart-PLS 2.0, where the t-values of every path coefficient were produced subsequently, along with the P values as shown in Figure 3 and Table 4. The results of this study provide interesting findings for discussion since it gives an insight into relationships effectiveness in Saudi Arabia.

For the purpose of concluding whether or not the path coefficients are statistically significant, bootstrapping technique was employed in this study with Smart-PLS 2.0. As reported in Table 4, the t-values with each path coefficient were generated using bootstrapping technique and P values were subsequently generated. The results show that assertiveness has significant effect on leadership effectiveness ($\beta = 0.227$, t = 2.746, P < 0.01). This result also confirms the importance of assertiveness to improve the leadership effectiveness. The result indicated that for each unit increase in assertiveness, there was an expected increase of 0.227 in leadership effectiveness. This result is consistent with the existing studies (Ames, 2009; Ames, Flynn, 2007; Grove, 2005).

Similarly, future orientation has significant effect on leadership effectiveness ($\beta = 0.151$, t = 1.923, P < 0.05). This result also
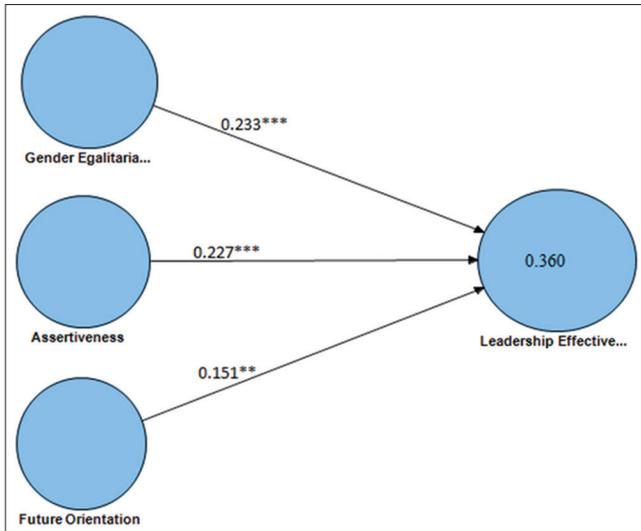
Table 3: Discriminant validity matrix

Construct	Assertiveness	Future orientation	Gender egalitarianism	Government support	Leadership effectiveness
Assertiveness	0.758				
Future orientation	0.749	0.844			
Gender egalitarianism	0.520	0.432	0.692		
Government support	0.372	0.376	0.318	0.792	
Leadership effectiveness	0.457	0.417	0.413	0.474	0.737

Table 4: The results of the inner structural model (hypothesis testing)
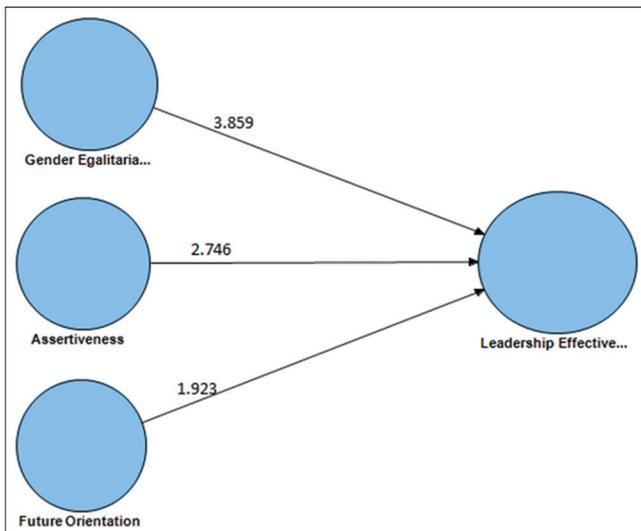
No	Hypothesis	Path coefficient	Standard error	t value	P value	Decision
H1	Gender egalitarianism→Leadership effectiveness	0.233***	0.060	3.859	0.000	Supported
H2	Assertiveness→Leadership effectiveness	0.227***	0.083	2.746	0.003	Supported
H3	Future orientation→Leadership effectiveness	0.151**	0.078	1.923	0.028	Supported
H4	Assertiveness * Government support→Leadership effectiveness	0.250**	0.431	1.929	0.027	Supported
H5	Gender egalitarianism * Government support→Leadership effectiveness	0.195	0.297	0.655	0.256	Not supported
H6	Future orientation * Government support→Leadership effectiveness	0.315***	0.374	2.476	0.007	Supported

*P<0.1; **P<0.05; ***P<0.01

Figure 2: Path model results

Figure 3: Path model significance results

and bootstrapping. The results revealed that government support moderate the relationship between assertiveness and leadership effectiveness at the 0.05 level of significance ($\beta = 0.250$, $t = 1.929$, $P = 0.027$). On the other hand, government support do not moderate the relationships between gender egalitarianism and leadership effectiveness at the 0.05 level of significance ($\beta = 0.195$, $t = 0.655$, $P = 0.256$). Finally, there is moderation effect of government support on the relationship between future orientation and leadership effectiveness at the 0.01 level of significance ($\beta = 0.315$, $t = 2.476$, $P = 0.007$).

6. CONCLUSION AND FUTURE RESEARCH DIRECTIONS

This study aimed to investigate the combined effect of gender egalitarianism, assertiveness, and future orientation on women leadership effectiveness. In addition, this study investigate the effect of government support as moderating variable between the all independent variables (gender egalitarianism, assertiveness, and future orientation) and dependent variable (leadership effectiveness) in context of Saudi universities. This study tried to increase the borders of the knowledge refer to the implications of leadership effectiveness, gender egalitarianism, assertiveness, future orientation and government support. The research model resulted from this study provides an original and unique theoretical framework which could be a reference model to study the women leadership effectiveness, gender egalitarianism, assertiveness, future orientation and government support as moderating variable. This research may contribute to the body of knowledge, and enhance the literature by adding new context such as Saudi context.

The originality of this research framework could be due to the investigation of government support as moderating variable to explain the potential effect between gender egalitarianism, assertiveness, future orientation and leadership effectiveness. In addition, as practical contribution for policy makers: the findings of this study will assist the decision makers to understand the importance of women role in higher education. In addition it is also provide insight about the factors to be consistent in improving the effectiveness of female leadership. For organizations: the finding of this study will guide the government and MOHE to take the proper decision and design the programs to develop the role of women. In other words, the results of this study have confirmed the role of gender egalitarianism, assertiveness, future orientation and government support in influencing the level of women leadership effectiveness.

This evidence results suggests that, gender egalitarianism, assertiveness, and future orientation are crucial for universities to increase the women leadership effectiveness. Interestingly, the results confirmed the role of government support as moderating variable for assertiveness, and future orientation variables in order to enhance the women leadership effectiveness. Consequently, this study has an important contribution as the results would start the debate, discussion and exploit that will lead to helpful changes in the Saudi Arabia.

To gain a deeper understanding on the government support on the leadership effectiveness in higher education, future studies are

confirms the importance of future orientation to increase the leadership effectiveness. The result indicated that for each unit increase in future orientation, there was an expected increase of 0.151 in leadership effectiveness. This result is consistent with the existing studies (Grove, 2005; Sokoll, 2011).

Correspondingly, gender egalitarianism has significant effect on leadership effectiveness ($\beta = 0.233$, $t = 3.859$, $P < 0.01$). This result also confirms the importance of gender egalitarianism to increase the leadership effectiveness. The result indicated that for each unit increase in gender egalitarianism, there was an expected increase of 0.233 in leadership effectiveness. This result is consistent with the existing studies (Grove, 2005; Workplace Gender Equality Agency, 2013).

5.2.1. The results of government support as moderating
As illustrated in Table 4, the moderating effect of government support on the relationship between independent variables (assertiveness, future orientation, and gender egalitarianism) and leadership effectiveness was examined by using the PLS algorithm

recommended to put forth some efforts to investigate the leadership effectiveness as mediating variable to enhance the organization's performance. Further studies could also investigate the some or all GLOBE variables as relationship with leadership effectiveness of men and women in Saudi context should be considered as important variables in these causal relationships.

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