

Lindenwood University

Digital Commons@Lindenwood University

---

Theses

Theses & Dissertations

---

1998

**An Empirical Study on the Differences of Task-Orientation Skills and People-Orientation Skills of Upper and Lower Management in an Organization**

Michelle A. Heppermann

Follow this and additional works at: <https://digitalcommons.lindenwood.edu/theses>



Part of the Business Commons

---

**AN EMPIRICAL STUDY ON THE DIFFERENCES  
OF TASK-ORIENTATION SKILLS AND PEOPLE-ORIENTATION  
SKILLS OF UPPER AND LOWER MANAGEMENT IN AN  
ORGANIZATION.**

Michelle A. Heppermann, B.S.

An Abstract Presented to the Faculty of the Graduate School of  
Lindenwood University in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements  
for the Degree of Master of Business Administration

1998

## ABSTRACT

This thesis will focus on the study of communication between upper and lower management levels in a company and the impact that genders has upon it.

Communication can be divided into two sections: task-orientation and people-orientation. Task-orientation refers to a person's behavior in delineating the relationship between himself/herself and staff members and in endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, communication, and procedures. People-orientation refers to a person's behavior indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in the relationship between leader and his/her subordinates.

Over the years research has suggested that women are prone to be more people-oriented while men are prone to be more task-oriented. The purpose of the present study is to investigate the truth that, within a corporate setting; top level managers are more task-oriented than lower level managers are. Specifically, it is hypothesized that women in the top levels of an organization's hierarchy tend to be more task-oriented than women in the lower levels of an organization's hierarchy. Men in the top levels of an organization's hierarchy tend to be more task-oriented than men in the lower levels of an organization's hierarchy. People in the top levels of an

organization's hierarchy tend to be more task-oriented than people in the lower levels of an organization's hierarchy.

A census of small and middle size service companies from the midwestern region were surveyed. The total number of subjects who participated in the study was 50. The subjects filled out a questionnaire that was similar to the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire Form XII that analyzes task and people orientation.

Results of the analysis produced considerable evidence to suggest that the hypothesis is accepted and to conclude that, within this sample pool, male and female upper level management is more task oriented than lower management levels.

**AN EMPIRICAL STUDY ON THE DIFFERENCES  
OF TASK-ORIENTATION SKILLS AND PEOPLE-ORIENTATION  
SKILLS OF UPPER AND LOWER MANAGEMENT IN AN  
ORGANIZATION.**

Michelle A. Heppermann, B.S.

A Culminating Project Presented to the Faculty of the Graduate  
School of Lindenwood College in Partial  
Fulfillment of the Requirements for the  
Degree of Master of Business Administration

**COMMITTEE IN CHARGE OF CANDIDACY:**

Associate Professor Daniel W. Kemper,  
Chairperson and Advisor

Adjunct Assistant Professor Lisa Boling

Adjunct Assistant Professor Laura Derigne

## Table of Contents

List of Tables.....	iv
Preface.....	v
I. Introduction.....	1
Definition.....	1
Characteristics.....	2
History.....	4
Studies.....	10
II. Literature Review.....	13
Management Behavior.....	13
Gender Equity.....	23
Statement of Hypothesis.....	47
III. Research Methodology.....	48
Subjects.....	48
General Demographics.....	49
Age Responses.....	50
Gender Responses.....	50
Education Responses.....	50
Instrument.....	50
Statistical Procedure.....	51

Data Analysis .....	53
IV. Results .....	56
V. Discussion .....	63
Limitations of this Study.....	65
Suggestions for Future Research.....	66
Appendix A.....	68
Appendix B .....	69
Works Cited .....	73
Vita Auctores .....	78



## List of Tables

Table 1	Ohio State Leadership Questionnaires .....	12
Table 2	Distribution of Communication Scores .....	57
Table 3	Responses for Initiating Structure and Consideration.....	58
Table 4	Communication by management level .....	58
Table 5	Communication by Gender (Female).....	59
Table 6	Communication by Gender (Male) .....	60
Table 7	Multivariate t Results Comparison for Task & People Orientation .....	62

## List of Figures

Figure 1 Paradigm for the Study of Leadership .....	7
---	---

## Chapter 1

### INTRODUCTION

#### Definition

Leadership has been defined as the behavior of an individual when he or she is directing the activities of a group toward a shared goal. This points to a behavior that can be called leader behavior. It includes behavior having a positive and social content as implied by directing a group. It does not include behavior serving only the individual goal attainment. A useful way of investigating leadership behavior, or investigating leadership is by exploring leadership behavior and comparing behavior of effective and ineffective leaders (Dubinsky 133).

Two leadership behavior dimensions that have received substantial empirical attention in organizational behavior via subordinate attitudes and performance are initiating structure and consideration (133).

Initiating structure refers to a leader's behavior in delineating the relationship between himself/herself and staff members and in endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, communication, and procedures (Blanchard 42). It also reflects the extent to which an individual is likely to define and structure his/her role and those of his or her subordinates toward goal attainment (Schriesheim 756).

Consideration refers to a leader's behavior indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in the relationship between a leader and his or her subordinates (Blanchard 42). It also reflects the extent to which an individual is likely to have job relationships characterized by mutual trust, respect for subordinates' ideas, and consideration of their feelings (Schriesheim 756).

### Characteristics

Characteristics are a distinguishing trait or quality. Some distinguishing traits of consideration are treating all people in the work group as equal. Criticizing a specific act rather than a particular member of the work group. Giving in to others in discussions with the work group. Being willing to make changes. Some qualities of initiating structure are encouraging overtime work. Ruling with an iron hand. Criticizing poor work. Talking about how much should be done (Stogdill 157).

Encouraging slow-working people in the work group to work harder. Waiting for people in the work group to push new ideas. Assigning people in the work group to particular tasks. Asking for sacrifices for the people for the good of the entire section. Offering new approaches to problems. Putting the section's welfare above the welfare of any member in it. Letting others do their work the way they think best. Stress being ahead of competing work groups. Needling people in the work group for greater effort. Emphasizing the meeting of deadlines. Deciding in detail what shall be done and how the work groups shall do it. Meeting with the group at regularly scheduled times. Seeing to it that people in the work groups are working up to capacity (Stogdill 157). All of the listed

characteristics above and below are for someone who resembles or uses initiating structure (Stogdill 157).

Characteristics of someone who resembles or uses consideration are as follows. They refuse to compromise a point. Doing personal favors for people in the work group. Speaking in a manner not to be questioned. Asking for more than members of the work group can get done. Helping people in the work group with their personal problems. Acting without consulting the work group. Backing up what people under them do. Are slow to accept new ideas. Putting suggestions made by people in the work group into operation. Getting the approval of the work group on important matters before going ahead (Stogdill 157).

Task motivated leaders tend to be associated with initiating structure. Task-motivated leaders are effective in conditions of high control, in which a cooperative group ensured predictability. Task-motivated leaders are also effective when faced with a clear task, calm and relaxed leaders were able to provide a steady focus for successful task achievement; and in conditions of crisis, in which there was low control, the situation calls for a firm and directive style of leadership (Stogdill 157).

In contrast, people oriented leaders tend to be associated with consideration. People oriented leaders are effective in an uncooperative group or an ambiguous task; and deal well with problems of low morale and create an environment conducive to successful group problem solving and decision making (157).

Men and women have different distinguishing traits that are common to them as well. The characteristic common to women is that they only care about gossip, how everybody feels, and is everyone getting along. Whereas the characteristic common with men is that all they do is business, and they don't care who they have to step on to make it to the top. It has been studied between the genders as to what orientation they are and if there are any differences between the genders. These studies have found that men are more task-oriented, while women are more people-oriented. This gives leniency to the idea that women are more sociable and care more about what people think about them than men. Men tend to want to get the job done and done right without caring who's feet they step on. Although these big differences divide them, the sexes must be able to work together in their organizations (Kenke 329).

### History

Research on leader behavior has been going on since the beginning of the twentieth century (Pratch 169). Studies show that leadership can be divided into three historical periods. The first period extends from the beginning of the twentieth century to World War II and was considered the trait period. The second period continues from the first of World War II to the 1960s and has been considered the behavioral period. From the late 1960s to the present is the third period and has been known as the contingency period (Pratch 169). Although leadership is one of the most observed things, it is also the least understood phenomena on earth (Kenke 326).

Leadership has been defined, constructed and researched from a bewildering number of conceptual perspectives including trait and contingency theories, normative decision theories, leader-follower exchange theories, behavioral and managerial approaches, multiple linkage, transactional, transformational, charismatic and self-leadership. Each of these models has generated its own definitions of leadership, produced a large amount of empirical evidence, yet has failed to serve as the basis for a general accepted knowledge base (326).

The earliest work in the trait approach grew out of the late Victorian fascination with the "Great Man." Individuals who became leaders were understood to be different, somehow, from those who remained followers. The goal was to identify what unique features made an individual a leader (Pratch 169). With the rise in the early part of the twentieth century of the psychological assessment movement, personality measures were used to screen large populations for these traits. In more than forty years, leaders and their followers were compared on various measures of psychological traits that are to be associated with successful leadership. These measures found dominance, ascendancy, and extraversion, to physical appearance and intelligence. "Reviews of the trait studies identified no consistent or reliable pattern." (169)

The failure of the trait approach and the growing emphasis on behaviorism in psychology helped to direct Pratch's attention to the behavior of leaders (169). A study done in the late 1930s by Kurt Lewin and his associates identified three styles or behavioral patterns: democratic, autocratic, and laissez-faire (Pratch

169). The autocratic style was characterized by the leader's tight control of the group's activities and its decisions. The democratic style emphasized group participation and majority rule. The laissez-faire style involved very low levels of activity of any kind by the leader. The researchers examined the different effects of each style on small group productivity and morale. The democratic style was found to have had more beneficial effects than the other two styles (169).

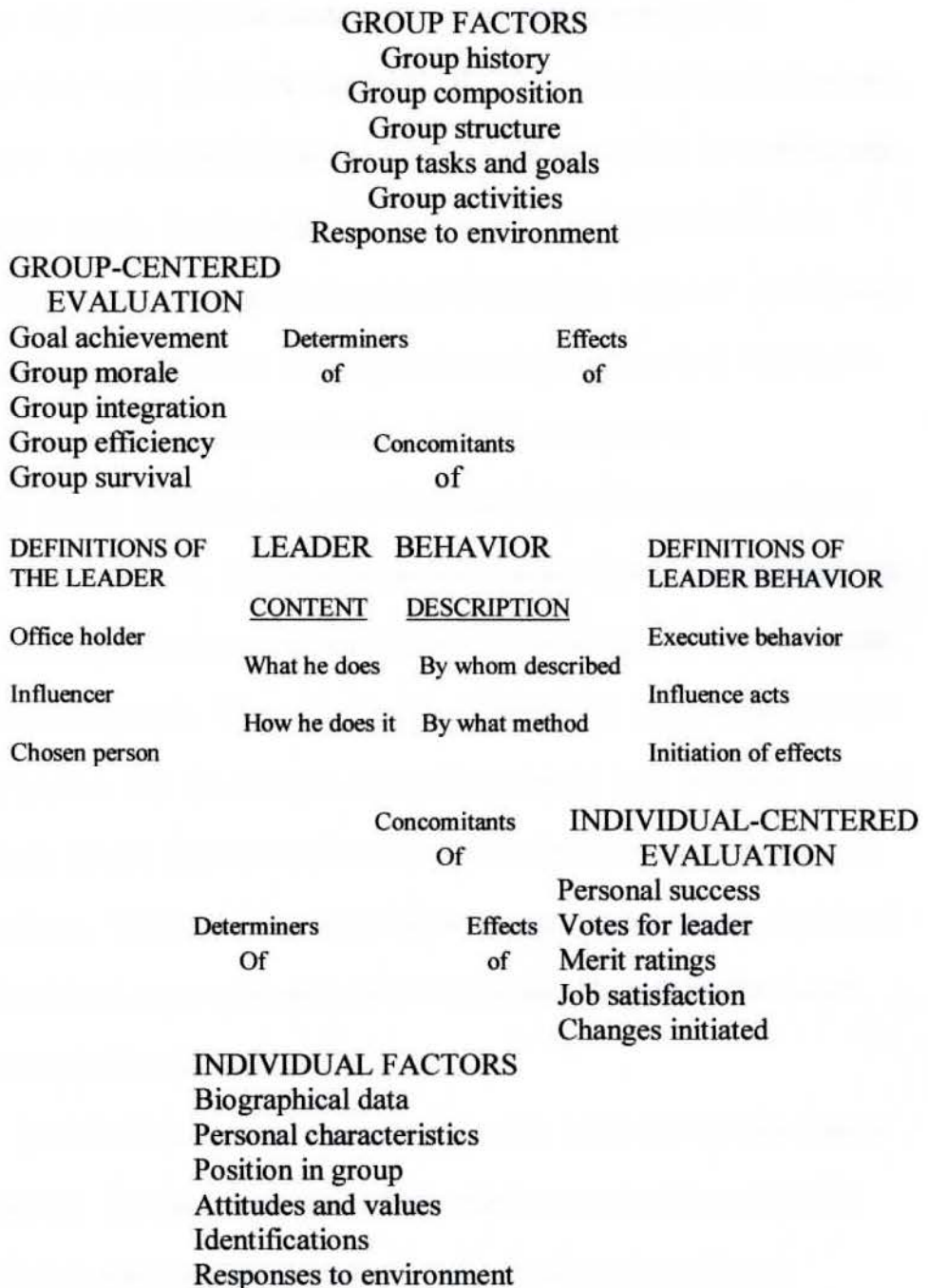
This research influenced the focus of many research studies afterward. A leader may either take the responsibility for making decisions and directing group members or share in the decision making and coordinating functions with them. In the 1950s, researchers moved to trying to identify the specific behaviors of the leaders. Several researchers independently verified the existence of two clusters of leader behavior: socio-emotional versus task-oriented leadership (Stogdill 11).

It has been hypothesized that performance in a position of leadership is determined in a large part by demands made upon the position. In 1945, at Ohio State University the Ohio State Leadership Studies were initiated. It was suggested that leadership should not be regarded as being good leadership. This is what began the research at Ohio State University (12). Stogdill then made a revised paradigm, from Morris and Seman, for the study of leadership (Figure 1). From this paradigm Stogdill began to formulate how to make an effective leadership study. It was decided "that description and evaluation should be conducted as separate research operations, and that description should precede evaluation, because if nature and structure of leadership are not known, the relevance of a proposed criterion cannot be determined" (Stogdill 14).



Figure 1

## PARADIGM FOR THE STUDY OF LEADERSHIP



SOURCE: The Bureau of Business Research College of Commerce and Administration. "Leader Behavior: Its Description and Measurement," by Ralph M. Stogdill and Alvin E. Coons (1957).

The life cycle theory of leadership, first published in 1969, was based on a curvilinear relationship between two dimensions (task and relationship) and maturity, attempted to provide leaders with some understanding of the relationship between an effective leadership style and followers' level of maturity. This theory suggests that structured task behavior is appropriate for working with "immature" people. Leader behavior should move from high-task and low-relationships behavior to high-task and high-relationships behavior. As followers mature, a leader should move from high-relationships and low-task behavior to low-task and low relationships behavior. In 1969, management hierarchy and the command and control approach to people management were alive and well. In 1972, situational leadership was developed, it emphasized task and relationship behavior and focused mainly on the concern for production and the concern for people. When situational leadership came along, some managers became excited. But the managers were still considered to be in charge. In fact, it was rare to involve followers in discussions about their own development level and readiness. The terminology used then was superior, subordinate, department head, hired hand, supervisor, and laborer would probably have rendered such discussions fruitless (Blanchard 42).

In 1969, Blanchard and Hersey's innovative leadership theories came to the forefront. Several dimensions of leadership have evolved throughout the years such as: autocratic and democratic, authoritarian and equalitarian, employee-and production-oriented, goal achievement and group maintenance,

task ability and likability, instrumental and expressive, and efficiency and effectiveness. If carefully considered, all of these dimensions listed above contain the two basic kinds of orientation, task and people; the only thing that has changed is the name that is applied to these dimensions (44).

Studies showed that people's leadership styles varied considerably. Some leaders are rigidly task-oriented in scheduling their followers' activities in terms of task accomplishments; others concentrate on building and maintaining good personal relationships with followers. Some leaders exhibit both task and people oriented behavior. Some provide little initiating structure and do not develop interpersonal relationships (Pratch 170).

The cognitive revolution has profoundly shaped contemporary leadership studies. Cognitive theories emphasize the role of cognitive mediation in influencing the contingencies that regulated relations between leaders and followers (Pratch 170). It is held that what individuals consciously experience and the ways in which they experience it are subject to the bias of tacit beliefs and assumptions about and perceptions of the world. Researchers say that constructive, reality-oriented habits of problem solving may be key components of an executive leader's effectiveness (170).

Now, managers speak of change as a constant process. Many can provide detailed explanations of empowerment, total quality control, team development, and partnering for performance. In essence, a transformation has occurred since then. Now, it's accepted that leadership is done with people, not to people (170).

## Studies

In 1959, Hemphill first researched toward the development of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire. The first versions of the questionnaire contained two factorially defined sub-scales, consideration and initiating structure in interaction. Several new sub-scales have been developed. Among these are four sub-scales identified as production emphasis, tolerance of member freedom of action, influence with superiors, and representation of the follower group (Stogdill 153).

The two leader behavior dimensions isolated by the Ohio State leadership studies program, Initiating structure and Consideration, have become widely used terms in psychology, and hundreds of studies have examined their effects upon subordinate satisfaction, performance, and other criteria. These behavior dimensions have usually been measured through the administration of the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire(LOQ), the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire(LBDQ), or the Supervisory Behavior Description Questionnaire(SBDQ). These three questionnaires have come to be known as the Ohio State leadership scales (Schriesheim 756).

The Leadership Opinion Questionnaire is a Likert attitude scale, which attempts to assess how the supervisor thinks he or she should behave in his or her leadership role. The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire typically measures subordinate perceptions of supervisory behavior (Schriesheim 756). This questionnaire is possibly the most frequently used instrument in contemporary research on leadership (Head 515). The Supervisory Behavior

Description Questionnaire also attempts to obtain information about a supervisor's actual behavior from his or her subordinates. These three questionnaires can be found in Table 1 (Stogdill 123).

Although our understanding of leadership has increased, the research has not yet produced a science that can reliably pinpoint effective leader behaviors in either general or specific situations. Not all of the questions have been asked, and not all of the problems have been solved. Indeed, much remains to be learned about what makes a leader effective. Unfortunately, some of the most important issues in this question have escaped the attention of researchers. Despite attempts to identify these key situational variables, no clear pattern has emerged. Only continued research will help to alleviate some of these forgotten questions or situational variables (Bryant 404).

Therefore, the purpose of this study is to evaluate top level management, in service organizations, to see what type of leadership style led them or helped them move to the top of their organization. The style of orientation that these managers use now can be different than what managers at the lower end of an organization use.

Table 1

## OHIO STATE LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRES

Item	LBDQ	SBDQ	LOQ
<b>INITIATING STRUCTURE</b>			
He makes his attitudes clear to the group.	X		
He rules with an iron hand.		X	X
He speaks in a manner not to be questioned.			X
He schedules the work to be done.	X		
He maintains definite standards of performance.	X		
He emphasizes the meeting of deadlines.		X	X
He encourages the use of uniform procedures.	X		
He lets group members know what is expected of them.	X		
He sees to it that the work of group members is Coordinated.	X		
He offers new approaches to problems.		X	X
He insists that he be informed on decisions made by Foremen under him.		X	X
He lets others do their work the way they think best.		X	X
He needles foremen under him for greater effort.		X	X
He encourages overtime work.		X	X
He stresses being ahead of competing work groups.		X	X
<b>CONSIDERATION</b>			
He does personal favors for group members.		X	X
He is easy to understand.		X	
He backs up the members in their actions.	X	X	X
He treats all group members as his equals.	X	X	X
He is friendly and approachable.	X	X	
He makes group members feel at ease when talking with them.		X	
He puts suggestions made by the group into operation.			
He gets group approval on important matters before Going ahead.		X	X
He helps his foremen with their personal problems.		X	X
He stands up for his foremen even though it makes him unpopular.		X	X
He tries to keep the foremen under him in good standing with those in higher authority.		X	
He stresses the importance of high morale among those under him.		X	

SOURCE: The Bureau of Business Research College of Commerce and Administration, "Leader Behavior: Its Description and Measurement," by Ralph M. Stogdill and Alvin E. Coons (1957).

## Chapter II

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### Management Behavior

Researchers have begun to analyze relationships between distribution channel conflict, behavioral antecedents of conflict such as leadership, power, goal incongruity, differential role perceptions, and dependent measures of performance and satisfaction. The study performed by Dr. Schul hypothesized that employees are likely to be more highly motivated to cooperate with management and thus experience less conflict if the leader exhibits leadership style with consideration for the needs of its employees. This includes displaying a concern for their welfare, and creating a friendly, participative environment (Schul, 43).

It has also been shown that franchisees generally possess a higher level of autonomy than is observed among participants in other types of organizations. Consequently, franchise employees are likely to desire relatively close instrumental direction in performing related activities in order to understand properly and effectively carry out an organization's policies and procedures (43).

This study also hypothesized that satisfaction is a function of leader behavior. It seems reasonable that employees are likely to be more highly motivated and express higher satisfaction with the arrangement if the leader exhibits behavior-emphasizing consideration for the needs of the employees.

Consequently, they are likely to be more satisfied with various aspects of the arrangement (Schul, 44).

To test these hypothesis, they surveyed franchised real estate brokers representing the six major franchise organizations doing business in three south central states served as the general population for the study. The findings of the study generally indicate that the franchisees with high need for people-orientation may be given more overt support and latitude in making decisions that affect their status in the franchise arrangement. In order to do so, a climate must be created in which the franchisor is seen as considerate, supportive, and fair in dealing with franchisees. The franchisor should also attempt to maintain a franchise arrangement in which all members fully understand their roles in franchise operations as well as their relationships with others in the channel system (49).

The next study's focus is on individual and group directed measures of leader behavior descriptions; that is, the measures that question subordinates of a superior leader about that superior's behavior toward an individual subordinate or toward an entire group of subordinates (Yammarino, 739). Changing a superior's initiation behavior should influence subordinates' satisfaction with rewards and view of supervisor control if instituted on a group wide basis. A change in consideration or people-orientation behavior does not appear to be relevant in these cases. Changing a superior's consideration behavior should influence subordinates' role ambiguity and effort if implemented on a group-wide basis. Initiation does not appear to be relevant in these cases. When individual differences are relevant, a change in efforts and in managerial practices should be



instated on an individualized basis rather than on a group-wide basis. In this way, individual perceptions associated with implicit approaches to leadership may be modifiable. First, the findings imply that group based effects were less likely than were individual differences in responses. These findings weaken overall inferences relative to relationships that supposedly apply to whole groups. The present study was intended as a step in this direction by incorporating multiple levels of analysis issues both theoretically and empirically (Yammarino 760).

Adobe Systems Inc. has become a people-oriented/consideration company. As such, employees are allowed to set their own work hours, have an average of 2.5 computers, receive stock options, and can take sabbaticals. Management's job is to direct, not manage, walk around and keep an open door. People do not schedule meetings to discuss problems; they are encouraged to just stop someone in the hall or drop into the manager's office. Adobe is perhaps most proud that it has retained the people-oriented culture of its cofounders. In fact many of the management dress without a tie and wear casual slacks. They come across as being friendly and interested in the welfare of its "family." They say that without its employees, there is nothing of substance in this company. It is the creativity of individuals, not machines, that determines the success of their company (Verespej, 13).

Management at Adobe Systems Inc., tries to make work exciting, challenging, and rewarding, yet, have it in a comfortable, inviting setting with privacy; to bring their employees back the next day. The goal is to let people retain their individual identities but have Adobe as their company. They reinforce

that tie with the company by giving all of its employees stock options so they can own a piece of the company (Verespej 14).

Managers at Adobe direct and make sure that employees have the resources they need to perform all the upward communication across the company. Its management says that if someone has more than one half dozen people in a meeting, they probably can't make a decision. They also say that employees should not have to make an appointment to communicate a piece of information. People just stew over something when they can't communicate it for a few days. Adobe wants to maintain a management philosophy and organizational structure that lets them retain a small company atmosphere and at the same time continue to constantly reexamine the organization and be willing to change it when necessary (16).

A study conducted by Dr. Seltzed investigated how the leadership behavior of a large number of supervisors, as measured by consideration and initiating structure scales, was related to their subordinates' reported burnout. It was hypothesized that when a leader behavior was added to the regression equation, there would be a substantial increase in the amount of variance in burnout that could be explained by age, marital status, experience, formalization, and holding a supervisory position (Seltzer 440).

This study, having used a larger group of supervisors than had previous researchers, confirmed the inverse relationship between consideration and burnout. Individuals who rated their supervisor high on consideration also reported low burnout. For initiating structure, there was a direct relationship

rather than the curvilinear relationship that they had predicted. It is possible that the loss of autonomy that came from having a highly structuring supervisor, especially when coupled with low consideration, may have been an important contributor to burnout (Seltzer 443).

On the other hand, the suggestion that low initiating structure would create ambiguity and thus be associated with burnout received no support. The respondents in this study may not have felt ambiguity, or it may not have contributed to their level of burnout. The current results coupled with the lack of clear previous research finding indicate that further study of the relationship of initiating structure and burnout is needed (444).

Another study by Bryant also looked at leader behavior. The present study supports the proposition that effective supervisors are more likely to monitor the behavior of subordinates and provide frequent feedback contingent on their performance, and that monitoring and consequently their behavior can be used to produce effective supervisory performance. A positive relationship was found between a supervisor's performance and their use of both monitoring and their behaviors. In addition, these results were achieved with retrospective questionnaires instead of direct observation (Bryant 410).

This study also compared monitoring and consequence behavior to the established initiating structure and consideration leadership model. The combination of monitoring and consequence behaviors accounted for as much variance in performance as the combinations of initiating structure and consideration. Furthermore, analysis showed that both monitoring and

consequences accounted for significant and unique variance in supervisory performance. These results also suggest that operant-type behaviors are important for effective supervision and can improve the prediction of performance ratings over structure and consideration variables alone (Bryant 410).

The findings of this research show that subordinates report higher levels of initiating structure, providing consequences, monitoring, and consideration in effective supervisors. The correlations were especially strong for the first three types of behavior. Therefore, while consideration has an impact on performance ratings, effective supervisors seem to devote significant attention to structuring the roles of subordinates, monitoring their progress, and providing frequent feedback to their performance (411).

It is proposed that the implicit leadership theories for appointed and elected leaders considered worthy of influence, consist of expectations organized around category prototypes. People identify and categorize leaders based on their similarity to leader prototypes defined as trait and behavioral expectations. Individuals have preconceived notions about which traits and behaviors typically are associated with leader categories. However, a leader label does not guarantee follower acceptance of leader directives or suggestions (Kenney 1128). Followers may hold a more specific cognitive category for a leader worthy of influence. If an individual meets prototypical expectations associated with a leader worthy of influence category, he or she has probably earned the right to be influential (Kenney 1128).

The results of this study shed light on several important questions regarding leadership and influence. Overall, empirical support for the existence of universal leader traits and behaviors has been inconsistent. Some trait categories appear to be related to effective leadership in some situations but not in others. These inconsistencies may be a result of prescriptive trait and behavior lists that may have been irrelevant to people's implicit preconceptions for effective and influential leaders (1138).

Once people form an impression of a leader as being worthy of influence, people report that they will be more likely to allow that person greater latitude for influence. Finally, impressions are formed by both followers and leaders. Research has shown that follower variables such as, competence, task involvement and interest level may affect leaders' behaviors. The present research assessed follower expectations. Perhaps followers, too, must meet certain leader expectations, so that the leader wants to invest the time and energy necessary for meeting follower expectations or so that the leader wants to engage in the type of influence assessed in the current research, rather than relying on coercion and arm twisting. Both followers and leaders form the final impression. Research has shown that follower variables may affect leaders' behaviors (1139).

In a study about a sales manager's supervisory behavior and whether it can influence salespeople's job attitudes and behaviors (Childers, 363), it was found that if a salesperson's supervisors are task-oriented, the salesperson's job satisfaction tended to be enhanced. They were enhanced to the extent that they develop relationships with their supervisors and are concerned about how their

supervisors evaluate their performance, and use their supervisors as important referents. Studies suggest that sales organizations should facilitate salesperson's joining professional organizations and thus interacting with non-company sales personnel (Childers 364).

In addition, when a sales position's tasks and responsibilities are clearly defined and the job provides performance feedback via non-supervisory means, sales supervisors exhibiting initiating structure behavior have a more favorable influence on salesperson job satisfaction than when a position does not possess these characteristics. This finding apparently suggests that the duties of a sales job need to be specified and clearly articulated to sales people. This might be accomplished through the use of training manuals, or job descriptions. The goal of such approaches is to impart to sales personnel what is expected of them (Childers 376).

Furthermore, task-oriented sales supervisors tend to have a more positive effect on salesperson job satisfaction when customers give salespeople in the performance of their job. This result shows the important impact customers can have on salespeople and the significance of the information they can offer salespeople during the sales process (376). Two other potential substitutes were found to have an effect on salesperson job satisfaction, but they do not moderate the job satisfaction/initiating structure relationship. Competitors' actions in the marketplace are a predictor of salesperson job satisfaction. Specifically, competitor behavior is positively related to job satisfaction. Closely monitoring

competitors' actions can seemingly be instructive concerning what proactive or reactive tactics salespeople need to take to deal with competition (377).

Organizational rewards not within the leader's control was determined to be an homologizer, which influences the strength of the relationship between job satisfaction and initiating structure but does not interact with, nor is related to, initiating structure (377).

Between consideration and job satisfaction moderators, two potential substitutes were found to be moderators of the salesperson job satisfaction and sales manager consideration relationship. The two are closely knit, cohesive work groups and customer relationships. When salespeople's managers exhibit consideration, salespersons' job satisfaction is increased to the extent that they work in a job environment characterized by favorable relationships among co-workers. These positive relationships seemingly provide emotional support, encouragement, and friendship that serve to heighten salespeople's job satisfaction. This result suggests that sales managers need to create an environment that fosters good working relationships among sales and non-sales employees (Childers 378).

This further suggests, that a salesperson's job satisfaction can be increased when they receive direction, guidance, support, and encouragement from both sales supervisors and non-supervisory sources. The sales job itself, sales peers, non-sales colleagues, and customers apparently work in tandem with sales managers to help augment salesperson job satisfaction. Given that salespeople often work alone in the field, perhaps supervisory and non-supervisory sources

offer salespeople a respite from any organizational and estrangement they may feel while working in the field on their own. Having a variety of alternatives from which to acquire adequate direction assists in increasing salespeople's job satisfaction (378).

As the composition of work groups becomes increasingly ethnically diverse, the assumption that knowledge about organizational issues compiled almost exclusively by White men using White subjects applies equally well to non-Whites is increasingly inappropriate. This study examined the validity of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire with respect to race (Allen, 658).

The results of the study lends support to the contention that race is not a variable in studies using the Ohio State leader behavior dimensions. The study did enhance the generalizability of earlier studies of biracial situations that used the considerations and initiating structure dimensions derived from the leader behavior description questionnaire (659).

The search continues for understanding what contributes to a leader being more transformational and what makes transformational leadership more effective and satisfying. During its infancy as a concept, focus was on charismatic qualities such as determination, self-confidence, vision, and moral uplifting. The leader, in effect, fast forwards to the future and brings the future closer so that the leader and other people are able to see goals, future events, or potential outcomes more clearly. At the same time, transformational leaders need to be able to honor the past, recapturing those past events of consequence to the organization's future (Bass 293).



## Gender Equity

In the 1990's, there are many challenges facing management. One of them is that gender equity in management positions is becoming more prevalent. In 1972, women occupied 20 percent of management and administrative jobs. This figure grew to 37 percent in 1987. This indicates that there is every reason that women will continue to progress into the managerial ranks. However, in spite of this progress, women are hitting a "glass ceiling" in their jobs and are not able to penetrate the upper echelons of management (Clovis 2).

The stereotypical roles create an atmosphere that suggests women are warm, passive, nurturing, and cannot be aggressive, intellectual or independent. In fact, most organizations value the active, aggressive, and instrumental behavior of men (3).

Some business leaders claim that women are too sensitive and not strong enough to handle important clients or problems. Yet, these women are also type-casted as "bossy" if they become strong or aggressive. The two-sided dilemma does not allow women to function effectively as business leaders because they are subject to criticism no matter what behavioral traits they utilize. This study suggests that women who are currently serving in management continue to encounter the inherent paradox that demands they pay a price for their behavioral choices: if they act to capable, they risk being perceived as unfeminine; if they act to feminine, they risk being perceived as incompetent (3).

More women are breaking into top corporate slots, and more are successfully launching their own companies. The eighties business archetype of self-absorbed, competitive, aggressive, and even ruthless has been reborn for the nineties as a selfless steward. The latter leads by helping subordinates, cooperating with peers, and nurturing a sense of family in the workplace; behaviors that many people believe are more consistent with the early socialization of females in most cultures (Smith 43).

If the trend toward more female leaders persists, and if emerging perceptions of effective leadership become entrenched, women could find the rules of the game altered in their favor. As women reach executive suites in greater numbers, then, how does their presence affect the organizational environment for other women? Do women exercise leadership differently than men do? And if so, will feminine leadership succeed where masculine leadership does not? (Smith 43)

Research has suggested that female leaders do influence the workplace differently than men do, even though female and male leaders' personal characteristics are very similar. It is suspected that the differences between women and men's leadership styles account for this difference (43).

It has been researched that men and women do act and communicate differently from each other. There are actual communicative differences between men and women. Studies show that women's speech typically tends to be more people-oriented and concerned with interpersonal matters and men's speech tends to involve straight factual communication. Women use tag questions and

qualifiers more often than men. These tag questions and qualifiers are often stereotyped as a means of passive communicators (Clovis 4).

Two theories are used to explain the different environments men and women encounter at work (Smith 44). The structuralism theory argues that men and women receive different treatment in the workplace and that these differences (in such things as job status, duties, and tenure) cause men and women to behave differently at work and to have different attitudes about work. This theory asserts that stamping out gender bias will stamp out differences between men and women at work (Smith 44).

The socialization theory contends that men and women experience work differently because they bring different histories, perceptions, and behaviors to the workplace. This theory asserts that men see work as more central to their lives than women do. Research has found that men and women act differently in the workplace; they also are treated differently in the workplace (44).

Before the 1970s, few researchers considered the role gender plays in the exercise of leadership. Nor did leadership development programs consider the particular challenges female executives' face. The structure of most workplaces was developed by males to accommodate males. Women who strive to claim a position of leadership had only a male model of behavior to emulate. So studies indicate that many women who achieve top-level positions in large corporations tend to perceive, think, value, and behave in ways similar to men. Theodore Newcomb's research on interpersonal attraction suggests that people tend to prefer spending time with others who share our perceptions and values, and, from

an early age, people tend to prefer spending time with others of the same gender (44).

It has been found that male and female employers did not differ significantly in personal characteristics and personnel practices. But female small business owners had better track records for hiring women. Their employees, in general, were happier with their jobs than were employees who worked for male owners (44).

One-third of the 1,500 female managers surveyed said their male supervisors did not treat them with respect. Nearly 20 percent of male managers said they consider working for a female supervisor difficult. Only one third of the men surveyed said that women contribute positively to management (Smith 45). Men are the primary barriers to women in management. Despite some progress, old-fashioned sexist attitudes are still common and represent a real, not imagined barrier to the progress of women (45).

This study's findings suggest that the presence of more women in leadership roles could itself create a momentum that inspires and helps other women assert themselves as leaders. Women, despite their outward similarities to male leaders, tend to create working environments that appeal to females and to younger, better-educated workers. Research also strongly suggests that's because women tend to exercise leadership through strong interpersonal and communication skills. Some see a potential for a new model of leadership to take hold, one better suited to managing increasingly diverse workforces (45).

Optimally, what would emerge from this transformation is neither a masculine nor a feminine model of leadership, but a synergistic model that enables people to work together to maximize their collective strengths and avoid their individual weaknesses. Only a diverse leadership team that includes both feminine and masculine strengths is strong and flexible enough to compete in today's highly competitive, global marketplace. To meet current economic challenges and to prepare for those of the next century, organizations would do well to promote diversity on their leadership teams and to allow women's personal leadership styles to bloom (Smith 46).

In a recent study of more than 900 managers, they found out that women's effectiveness as managers, leaders, and teammates outstrips the abilities of their male counterparts in 28 of 31 managerial skill areas. This study was conducted by Foundation for Future Leadership, a not-for-profit Washington based organization dedicated to studying and evaluating leadership characteristics. It is a departure from traditional presumptions that credit women for being nurturing team players, but lacking in the skills necessary for top-level management roles (Moskal 17).

Women traditionally have been given credit for their intuitive skills and the study confirmed that they do well and outperform men in that area, but the study also showed that women perform even more strongly in logic-based skills than has been shown in previous studies. After the scores from the study were averaged, they found that men and women in the study received the same mean score on only one behavior- delegating authority. Men scored higher in two

behavioral areas, Handling pressure and coping with their own frustrations. In the remaining 28 categories of skills/behaviors necessary for managerial and executive effectiveness, women were perceived as doing better than their male counterparts and significantly outperformed them. "This is evidence that women have the skills to be top managers and shows that a lot of America's best leaders are already women," says Ken Feltman. This study did not aim to single out gender differences at the outset, but rather to identify leadership abilities and develop high performance teams. This is the first solid evidence in the United States that women are more effective as managers and leaders than men are (Moskal 17).

Problem solving, planning, controlling, managing self, managing relationships, leading, and communicating were the seven primary performance factors in the study. Areas in which women outperformed men include resolving conflicts, producing high quality work, adapting to change, developing their own capabilities, and motivating and inspiring others. It was shown in the survey that women rated themselves lower than men in each of the skill areas. Yet women managers scored higher than their male counterparts, even when men were providing the assessment in more than half of the evaluations/surveys given (18).

This study shows that women are more task-oriented, analytical, and controlled in the areas of organizing work, keeping performance within defined tolerances, and making sure that events happen when and as they are supposed to unfold. Women stay on top of their work more closely than men do, are more likely to deliver projects on time, and are more likely to keep commitments than

men. The data from the survey demonstrates that women heavily focus on those tasks for which they are responsible. Women do indeed communicate better than men in all five communicating behaviors and women in this study are more likely than their male counterparts to share information and to keep their co-workers informed about work matters (18).

Men and women received their highest and lowest scores in the same behaviors. Overall, men and women receive their lowest evaluations in the right brain interpersonal area. Both scored their highest evaluations in the left brain intellectual domain. The analysis showed that women practice leadership with subtle differences from men. A review of the leadership performance factor; which is comprised of delegating authority, facilitating meetings, motivating and inspiring others, developing others and giving recognition to others; shows that women are more likely to dispense advice and guidance regarding the requirements for successfully completing tasks. They'll also clarify the expected outcomes with those doing the work. Men are more likely to assign the task and then put it out of their minds, hence providing less follow-up. Also, men appear to be less precise in communicating the parameters of a project (Moskal 19).

The most problematic category on this survey for women is managing self, which includes behaviors such as handling pressure, coping with one's own frustrations, developing one's capabilities, and responding to feedback. Talking about one's problems, is often viewed as a shortcoming by men. In the area of communication, women are more effective than their male colleagues and receive higher ratings than men in all five communicating behaviors such as; articulating

ideas, listening to others, keeping others informed, giving performance feedback, and communicating expectations. Also, women let others know what they need and expect in the way of support. They seek clarity of communication, which ultimately reduces confusion and conflict (19).

Today, women account for 30 percent of middle management positions, 5 percent of senior management positions and just 2 percent of CEO posts of major corporations. This study says that "Women are one of corporate America's strategic advantages. America is far and away ahead of the rest of the world, including Europe and the Far East, in using women in corporations." (Moskal 19)

Men and women have different communication styles. They view the world differently. Whether or not gender always determines these styles, two dynamics appear to play a role. Status style contains two dominant factors: status and task-orientation. These are the following attitudes: Life is a contest, speech often is a display of knowledge, and relationships are built through activities such as sports and by talking about activities. Connect style contains three dominant factors: Life is a network of relationships, speech is characterized by small talk, and relationships are built via conversations with personal content (Baher 3).

When status people interact with connect people, each side tends to misinterpret the other. Status types typically write off connect types because the connect people seem self-deprecating and insecure. Connect people often write off status types because they appear closed off, unfriendly and aloof. The only way to cure this conflict is to make people aware and understand the two worldviews embodied in these styles (3).



Women often assume one-down or passive listening positions, in which they appear passive and polite, ceding all authority to the speaker. Another way to look at it is that women are good listeners and consequently they are like parallel processors: They're simultaneously hearing what's being said/what isn't being said/what tone is being used, and so on, and then converting the data into useful material. A new generation of female bosses has quietly come of age. These are women who feel completely comfortable with their own styles and management approaches (Kling 432).

Men tend to view negotiation as a form of argument, and they'll use any tactic at hand, intimidation, interruption, brinkmanship, and browbeating to defeat their opponent. Women, on the other hand, usually see negotiation as a sign of a strain or rift. Women therefore try to mend that rift. It has been stated that men are better at winning, women at resolving (433).

Men and women today are working together in greater and greater numbers but straying ever further apart. They don't trust each other. They are not communicating effectively, they are not interacting professionally, and they're not moving forward to get the job done. But at the same time, companies are supposed to be moving toward more open communication and encouraging more creative environments (Filipczak 25).

When women use language they do so to develop the relationship between themselves and their audience. When men use language, they do it to tell their audience what they know. "That's why a husband gets in trouble when he responds with "nothing" to his wife's query about what happened at work today.

She is seeking to create rapport; he is reporting that no significant events occurred.” (Filipczak 26) The current tension between men and women in the workplace is a temporary aberration, a transition phase in the evolutionary movement toward gender equality. And the fact that some men are nervous is certainly no reason to back off from the serious business of fighting sexual harassment (Filipczak 27).

There are two basic kinds of corporate power structures. The first is called the dominator model; this is patterned after the military system, where a few people at the top issue orders while the many at the bottom obey. This model is slowly beginning to fade from view. It is going to be replaced by the partnership model that stresses cooperation and collaboration. It’s not a coincidence that this partnership model values skills traditionally regarded as feminine strengths while the fading dominator model values more masculine traits (27).

As the dominator model is replaced by the partnership model, the current chill probably will fade, although slowly. As people adjust to the new structure of power, most of the problems caused by sexual harassment and glass ceilings will disappear. The movement toward worker empowerment, flattened hierarchies and teamwork will greatly benefit women in the workplace. As decision making power gets spread around and women find themselves less threatened by the dominator structure, then sexism and discrimination will become less prevalent and less damaging (28).

It would be difficult to imagine an area in which clear communication between the genders is more important than that of resolving conflicts. Part of the

puzzle can again be found in each gender's use of language. Men want to make a decision faster; they're less concerned with hearing everyone's point of view or with building a consensus. Women are just the opposite, they are more likely to keep a discussion going longer so that all sides of the issue can be examined and a consensus reached. It's easy for the two groups to get on each other's nerves (Filipczak 29).

Gender has more to do with day-to-day interactions, in which these characteristics are reified and internalized, than with any predetermined, permanent or universal traits (DeFrancisco 41). In the United States men are traditionally thought to be the dominant, strong, assertive, logical, and task oriented. In contrast, women are expected to be submissive, weak, unassertive, emotional, and consideration oriented (DeFrancisco 41).

A woman's assertiveness may be called bossy, whereas a man's is called confident or being a man. In actuality, it is not the behavior that is assertive, bossy or confident, it is the social relations attributed between the speaker and the listener's behavior that determines the meaning of that behavior. Inequitable gender treatment helps to create and maintain limiting gender identities and inequalities in people. Stereotypic gender expectations may influence how language specialists evaluate and nurture speech and language development (41).

Whenever gender in communication is the topic, people seem to want a quick list of sex differences in verbal and nonverbal behaviors. The ethical concern is that by focusing on studies of isolated behaviors scientists may actually reinforce stereotypical or prejudicial. Realistically, by focusing on lists, gender

is portrayed as a natural phenomenon and gender behaviors as its product, rather than recognizing that it is in fact the other way around. The behaviors in day-to-day interaction help socially to construct gender in each unique cultural context. Lists of communication differences are not realistic because there is not one female or one male experience. DeFrancisco pointed out that African American women have almost always had to work in both spheres. Consequently, these women have developed a more assertive communication style than is seen as proper for a white lady (DeFrancisco 44).

It has been found that simultaneous talk and minimal responses functioned as cooperative behavior in talk between women, but functioned as competitive behavior in talk between men and women. Thus social context seems to influence gender behaviors. What was once claimed an indicator of a woman's inferior, less confident style by using tag questions, now is seen as a woman's strategy to help ensure a response from an uncooperative male partner, because asking a question makes the need to respond more explicit (45).

As an example, women are stereotypically presumed to talk more than men do. Yet, most research shows that men tend to dominate the floor through talk time in public situations. One researcher found that whenever she approached 40 percent of the talk time with a man, she was perceived as dominating the conversation. The women in her studies averaged no more than 15 to 30 percent of the talk time with men, yet participants perceived the talk time as equitable (44). This paradox can be explained by suggesting that perhaps the expected amount of talk for women should not be compared to that allocated to

men, but as compared to silence. In other situations, men's talk also seems to be valued more than women's are, but in these situations the controlling device is silence or non-cooperation, the common "inexpressive male" women complain about. Thus the issue is not who talks more, but how such behaviors are interpreted and consequently who has more control over the interaction (DeFrancisco 45).

The powerful influence of gender socialization is that both women and men internalize beliefs about what is considered appropriately differentiated behaviors for women and men. It is essential to understand not only that gender is a central social category, but that ethical explorations on the topic call for a move beyond common quantitative studies of isolated variables of speech to an understanding of the ways in which context helps to create gender messages (50).

If this were not the case, one could examine the communication tendencies of women presented in this article and conclude that women are the more competent communicators in American society. After all, a competent communicator is commonly defined as one who is attentive, appropriate, and flexible in interaction style (50). So why are men the predominant leaders in American society instead of women? It seems that when these speech qualities are met with uncooperative styles of male dominance, their value is lost. It is not the speech style alone that makes the person a leader; it is the socially defined relation between the sex of the speaker and her or his style (51).

Men's friendships with men are characterized by doing things, talking about activities, less expression of emotion, a focus on commonality, and a less

holistic orientation. With women's friendships, talk is more central than activities; mutual help, support, and similar values are important; there is more talk about feelings and problems; the relationship is perceived as more intimate; and there is more emotional support present than in men's friendships (Fritz 29).

Some researchers argue that large differences exist between men and women. Conversely, others argue that sex-differences are not as impressive as researchers have been led to believe. Despite these claims, researchers inherently know that men and women do differ in some respects. Within the realm of emotion, researchers recognize similarities and differences in how men and women express themselves. Society tells its own story about the polarization of gender expectation, about how men and women are to feel and behave differently (Emmers 4).

The term gender encompasses both biological sex and cultural associates with being male and female. Within the realm of emotion, societal influence can have an enormous impact on how men and women cognitively process and express their emotions. Societal influence has led many to grasp and perpetuate destructive gender stereotypes. For example, "that man should not cry whereas it is acceptable for women to do so" (4). Women are encouraged to express positive emotions openly, such as happiness, whereas men are encouraged to suppress such feelings; and expressing negative emotions, such as anger, is socially undesirable for women, but acceptable for men. The so-called masculinity scale is primarily a measure of instrumentality, and the femininity scale is primarily a measure of expressiveness (5).

Most career decisions involve compromises. The need to compromise can be attributed to the fact that the characteristics of the options in the occupational world do not necessarily match the ideal career image of the career decision-maker. The way individuals handle the need to compromise has significant implications on their career decision making process and their occupational outcomes, and hence on the quality of their life. The increased recent concern with compromise reflects recognition in the theoretical and practical significance of this issue (Gati 2).

A study conducted found that there were no overall differences between men and women in the readiness to compromise in the simple aspects, or in the complex aspects. In the present study, compromise was investigated in terms of within-aspect preferences. Specifically, compromise was defined as the readiness to accept a range of levels instead of only the optimal level and as being indifferent with respect to certain complex aspects or regarding them desirable or undesirable. The finding revealed only a relatively few, small, yet interpretable differences between men and women in the readiness to accept career compromises. These differences in the readiness to compromise reflect differences in preferences (9).

Specifically, gender differences were observed in complex aspects where some people expressed a tendency for unacceptable behaviors (men were not willing to accept providing mental help, whereas women expressed unacceptable behaviors for using technical skills). The fact that the differences found between the sexes in the readiness to compromise were small can be attributed, perhaps, to

a change in women and men's approach to the career world, reflecting decreased sex-role differences among young adults of today (10).

Several studies have revealed differences between ratings of male and female leaders on initiating structure, consideration, or effectiveness, while other studies have not detected any differences. Mr. Dobbins and Ms. Platz conducted a Meta analytic review on the differences of male and female leadership. They concluded that the meta-analytic review did not support the proposition that a leader's gender exerts a significant influence on leader behavior or on subordinate satisfaction. Male and female leaders differed only on the criteria of effectiveness, and then, only when the study was conducted in a lab setting (118).

The number of women in management positions has reached 43 percent in 1995, a rise of 32 percent since 1983. By most measures, women should be finding more women in the upper reaches of today's workplace. The share of women senior vice presidents and executive vice presidents at Fortune 2000 companies grew from 17 percent in 1982 to 32 percent in 1992. And 81 percent of Fortune 500 companies now have at least one female director, a jump of 12 percent in just two years (Saltzman 1).

Despite their growing presence in the workplace, relatively few women in positions of authority are currently reaching down to help their younger counterparts. Only 15 percent of women have been mentored by another woman during their careers, an increase of less than two percent from a decade earlier. Yet women who don't have female mentors are less likely to end up on their company's fast track to the top; and if more female mentoring took place, the



number of women in the upper echelons of corporate America would almost certainly increase at a faster rate (Saltzman 2).

Entrenched institutional attitudes make it difficult for junior and senior women to form the kind of supportive relationships that help many men navigate their careers. "There's still this attitude, that if there's two women talking together in a room they must be plotting a revolution"(Saltzman 2). Although both groups expressed an equal interest in mentoring, the women cited more roadblocks, including a fear that failure of a protégé might reflect badly on them. The institutional barriers against female bonding are often formidable. Women who try to form mentoring groups within their organizations say that male colleagues and superiors are indifferent to their efforts. Apparently, men think that when women get together they are collecting data for a discrimination suit, when actually they get together as a way for women to address their frustrations on issues like balancing work and family (2).

Women executives feel torn when younger women come to them seeking support on hot-button issues like sexual discrimination and harassment. They can come across as coldhearted and indifferent to younger female workers who feel those senior women should be their supporters (2). Consultants who study female behavior in the workplace say women might back each other in such cases if they had established closer personal bonds early on. And it's not just institutional factors that are hindering these relationships. A generational schism exists between those who pioneered the female ascent in the workplace and those who assumed a career was theirs for the taking (3).

One study analyzed companies annual reports to find out what kinds of impression the organizations are sending to the public. Dr. Anderson realized that if the annual report plays a major role in communicating an impression of a firm, a vital question surrounds the messages conveyed in annual report photographs concerning the social image of women (Anderson 115).

The media have been severely criticized over the past two decades for portraying women as homemakers, fashion or sex objects, and as less valued human beings. Because of the mass influx of women into the workforce and the outcry of feminist organizations about the media's treatment of women, one might expect some change. Yet negative portrayals persist in print and television media. A study of gender advertisement contended that advertisements do not necessarily depict how genders truly behave. Rather, they illustrate the way we think they behave (Anderson 115). Comparing the photographic representation in the reports to labor force participation found that men were over-represented and women were underrepresented. It was also found that the overrepresentation of males had no impact on the perceptions of the corporation but increasing female representation positively affected the perceptions (Anderson 116).

A study of the passenger airline industry researched corporate annual reports. They found that females were more likely to be illustrated in non-work settings. Smiling emerged as a major difference between men and women with women shown smiling far more than men, despite the context of the photograph. Female employees and female officers were depicted smiling more than their male counterparts. Smiling has been held by some researchers as a symbolic

connotation of power with the submissive member smiling more and the dominant person less. Male corporate officers put forth a more serious demeanor than male employees. Yet, no differences were found comparing female officers to female employees (Anderson 124).

Overall, more differences were found on the basis of gender than on the context of the photograph. Media, as a major socializing institution, allegedly convey the message that males are dominant and more competent and women hold less important roles in society. While such representations may not be intentional, they reinforce non-conscious ideologies that, while implicitly accepted, remain outside one's awareness because alternatives cannot be imagined (125).

Despite progress in studying relationships at work, there remains a large gap in the organizational literature regarding the comparative attributes of men's and women's peer relationships (Andrews 74). During the past 20 years, most research on leadership emergence in small groups has concurred that men are more likely than women to emerge as leaders. Some evidence suggests that females may have contributed to the perpetuation of the sex role stereotype of female subordination. "Women were reluctant to assume leadership roles, even when paired with men who pretested low in dominance" (Andrews 74). Whether or not women engage in less task-oriented and more socio-emotional communication behaviors than men remains controversial, but those scholars who report such distinctions argue that social and cultural stereotypes associate the performance of task behaviors with the notion of being the group's leader.

Stereotypical perceptions of gender differences in speech may also plague women's attempts to ascend to leadership positions. It has been pointed out that although women are perceived, as speaking more properly than men, such speech is often unrelated to the possession of power. However, men are perceived to have control in a more basic sense over the speech situation and stereotypic features of women speech have long been viewed as powerless (75). Some scholars argue that males and females are capable of performing equally effectively in leadership positions. Others go so far as to cite instances in which females are viewed as having outperformed males in leadership roles. In actual organizational settings females exceeded males in being receptive to ideas, stressing interpersonal relations, showing concern, and being attentive to others, whereas male exceeded females in dominance, being quick to challenge others, and directing the course of the conversation. The researchers noted that the female behavioral style was far more consistent with contemporary human resources theories of how managers should behave than was the male style (76).

The question of whether women who occupy leadership positions do or should behave like their male counterparts or whether they should create their own brand of leadership has generated considerable controversy in both the popular and scientific literature. (76) The question is important because of its implications for explaining the persistent inequality in the distribution of leadership positions in our society. Despite the fact that women make up well over half of the workforce, few occupy leadership roles, especially in the context of formal and political organizations. Two explanations for the gender

differences in leadership have been advanced, one coming from the popular and the other from the social science literature. A considerable portion of the social science literature favors the null hypothesis of no differences between male and female leaders. Researchers in this area concluded that women are equal to men as leaders and lead similarly when certain factors such as education, job level and organizational tenure are held constant (Andrews 76).

The popular literature, on the other hand, points to important differences, with women leading more cooperatively, more collaboratively, and less hierarchically. Klenke, for example, referred to a masculine mode of leadership embraced by men which is characterized by competitiveness, hierarchical authority, and high control for the leader and analytical problem solving. Women, on the other hand, prefer a feminine model of leadership built around cooperation, collaboration, lower control for the leader and problem solving based on intuition as well as rationality. It has been suggested that by integrating female values derived from women's socialization experiences, female leaders have distinct advantages based on their greater willingness to encourage subordinate participation and power and information sharing (Klenke 326).

The overall conclusion reached in the study was that they failed to account for the discrepancies across the ranges and did not provide an explanation for the conflicting finding. Thus instead of shedding light on some of the bedeviling inconsistencies, this analyses may increase the disenchantment with leadership research by adding yet another element of confusion associated with this particular methodology. In real organizations gender differences may disappear

due to more extensive interactions among men and women leaders which presumably decrease the salience of gender (Klenke 350).

Women are somewhat more transformational and therefore likely to make more effective leaders. This is explained by the argument that women have to be that much better leaders than their male counterparts to attain the same positions of responsibility and levels of success as men. But the counter argument suggests that affirmative action has pushed women faster and higher than justified by their competencies. (294).

This study investigates the emphasis males and females place on leadership behaviors and styles across four countries. Significant changes have occurred over the last decade that bring into focus the importance of understanding differences between genders and cultures. These changes include: (1) increasing diversity of the labor force; (2) a shift in scope of the work environment from local to international markets; (3) increasing numbers of mergers and acquisitions among corporations from different countries; (4) organizational restructuring across national boundaries; (5) emergence of high technology and telecommunication systems facilitating international communication; and (6) an increasing number of females entering the work force worldwide (Gibson 255).

The results from the study present a mixed picture of gender differences. Males in all four countries emphasized goal setting more than females, but did not differentially emphasize other dimensions such as work facilitation and the directive styles that, at first glance, seem to "require" initiating structure qualities.

Females emphasized interaction facilitation more so than did males, but did not differentially emphasize the other dimensions, such as supportive behavior, personnel development and the non-directive styles, which seem to require consideration qualities (Gibson 265).

The above discussion suggests that in a very narrow and limited sense, males and females may emphasize unique leadership capacities. But quite often, these capacities are probably borrowed, imitated, and learned from one another as male and female leaders perform a wide variety of leadership functions. It should also be pointed out that, to date, neither initiating structure nor consideration qualities appear to be unequivocally associated with greater degrees of performance. A balance of the two is probably needed in every organization (265).

The increased number of women filling managerial positions in Israel has motivated studies comparing male and female leadership styles. This study has the expectations that between men and women, women exercise less power and are not as task-oriented. They found that among Israeli managers, the women are as task-oriented and powerful as men. Although women perceived themselves as having less power than men, peer groups composed of mostly men rated women no differently than they rated men on both task and power areas. The study also found that women are perceived as more supportive than men in small group situations. It can be concluded that participation in these small groups has increased the positive bias of women manager's self-perceptions (Nebenzahl 104).

To master the global challenges of the 1990s, our organizations and societies cannot do without the completeness and complementarity of the total human experience. Our organizations badly need whole, that is healthy and balanced, individuals to draw from the riches of both their male and female inheritance and experience (Klenke 266).

As more women enter the workforce in all four of the countries, recognition of possible gender differences can serve as a beneficial reminder of the contribution that all minds bring to the workplace. However, discussion and celebration of differences should not overshadow the evidence that men and women appear to place equal emphasis on a vast majority of the leadership behaviors and styles (Gibson 266).

Uncomfortable in a male world, female executives are more likely to leave. Many female executives leave because they feel that they are undervalued, or that they do not fit in. They often move to smaller firms in which the hierarchy seems more permeable, or start their own business (Economist 51).



## Hypothesis

**Hypothesis 1:** Women in the top levels of an organization's hierarchy tend to be more task-oriented than women in the lower levels of an organization's hierarchy.

**Hypothesis 2:** Men in the top levels of an organization's hierarchy tend to be more task-oriented than men in the lower levels of an organization's hierarchy.

**Hypothesis 3:** People in the top levels of an organization's hierarchy tend to be more task-oriented than people in the lower levels of an organization's hierarchy.

## Chapter III

### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

#### Subjects

One method was used to find the difference between men and women in the workforce, and high level and low level managers within a company. Participants in the study, all companies of a midwestern area, were recruited through a variety of methods, all-involving convenience, and random sampling. The sample was obtained through a mailing, which included a cover letter explaining who needed to take the survey and how to respond according to the directions. No incentives were offered to increase the response rate. Across organizations, response rates from those who had a chance to participate were 75%, with these employees representing 75% to 100% of their organizations.

Data were collected through a self-administered questionnaire. After the questionnaires were answered, they were collected by return mail. The questionnaires were tallied, tabulated, and classified according to orientation and scores. Different statistical procedures were used to answer the research questions asked and to test the hypothesis. The results were presented in Chapter Four.

For this study it was decided to use the random sampling technique. This technique is the best technique for sampling the population. Random sampling is a systematic method in which every unit in a population has an equal chance of

being selected into the sample. This implies that the sample was a good cross sectional of the population and that the sample actually applies to the population.

A census of small and middle size service companies from the midwestern region were surveyed. The total number of subjects who participated in the study was 50. All subjects were volunteers. Of those 50 subjects, 25 subjects provided usable responses for testing the hypotheses. Any missing responses on any of the questionnaires made those questionnaires and instruments invalid because of missing data, and were eliminated from this research study.

#### General Demographics

All respondents filled out a questionnaire (Appendix A) to obtain this information with the other questionnaires. Each employee surveyed reported to an immediate supervisor who was responsible for the employee's performance and provided direction and guidance to the agent. The population sample for this study was company employees. All company employees, both male and female, were asked to take part in the study. This study involved five service-oriented companies that had an average of twenty-five to one hundred employees. Every employee was to fill out a survey about his or her manager. The ages of the subjects range from twenty-one to fifty-four. The employees' experience ranged from just beginning and not very knowledgeable too extremely knowledgeable.

### Age Responses

The subject's ages varied. The range was 21 to 54 years. The Median age of the employees was 29.4 years.

### Gender Responses

There were a total of 25 (One hundred percent) valid cases for gender responses on the General Demographics Questionnaire. Seven (Twenty-six percent) of the employees surveyed were male. Eighteen (Seventy-two percent) of the employees surveyed were female.

### Education Responses

Approximately two-thirds of the employees surveyed had a college education. The median job tenure was 5.2 years; and the median level of responses were from employees at the higher level.

### Instrument

The instrument used in this study was the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ). The general demographic questionnaire and the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire were combined into one questionnaire.

The cover letter (Appendix B) for this study consisted of three statements. The first was a brief overview of the researcher and what he or she was trying to accomplish. The second statement stated the confidentiality and privacy of those subjects who took the survey. The last paragraph was a statement thanking the subjects for taking the time to fill out the questionnaire and returning it.

The demographic questionnaire was developed by the researcher to obtain information about the subject sample. The questionnaire included things that were basically descriptive in nature.

The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire was used to assess the subjects' managerial behavior. The reliability and validity of the LBDQ is discussed in the "Limitations of This Study" section of Chapter Five. This survey measures whether a person is service or product oriented. The results come from the employees' perspective of their boss or manager.

Initiating structure and consideration were measured with the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (Form XII), which is a frequently used instrument developed by Stogdill. The LBDQ solicits respondent perceptions about how their supervisor behaves toward them. Ten items constitute the initiating structure scale, and ten items constitute the consideration scale. Responses were recorded on a five-point scale ("Strongly Disagree" to Strongly Agree").

### Statistical Procedure

The procedure used to classify the individuals' managerial behavior was the median split technique. The Likert values of the product characteristics were added for the individual product scale. The same was done for the service characteristics for the people-oriented scale scores. Descriptive statistics of the raw scores of the product-oriented and people-oriented scales were calculated to obtain the median. The combined scores of all subjects in the research sample, product and people were used. The median, which was calculated for the product-oriented scale and the people-oriented scale were used to divide the high scores from the low scores for the scales. The product-oriented and people-oriented scores' placement, with regard to the median, decided if the score was high or low. Any scores on the product-oriented and people-oriented scales below the median were low scores. Any scores above the median were high scores. The behavior of a manager was determined by whether the product-oriented and people-oriented scores were high or low. Low product-oriented and people-oriented scores were classified as Undifferentiated. A low product-oriented score and a high people-oriented score were classified as people/consideration oriented. A high product-oriented score and a low people-oriented score were classified as product or initiating structure oriented. High product-oriented and people-oriented scores were classified as Undifferentiated.

There were several questions asked in this study which required statistical procedures. The hypothesis investigated in this study required statistical procedures to be used in testing as whether to accept the null hypothesis or to reject it and to accept the alternative hypothesis. Each question was looked at and

answered according to the statistical procedure considered appropriate for that question.

### Data Analysis

Data were obtained from subordinates. Multiple subordinates rated each supervisor on four behavioral dimensions: Initiation of structure, consideration, monitoring of high level employees, and low level employees. Ratings on these four dimensions were aggregated for each supervisor. Aggregation of ratings across subordinates, for each supervisor, served to provide a general picture of the supervisor's behavioral tendencies. Aggregating the data helped to temper extreme, potentially misleading data coming from only one subordinate's perspective. The interrater reliability across subordinates was measured for each of the behavioral dimensions using intraclass correlations. Initiations of structure and consideration behaviors were rated using the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) Form XII. The 10 items for structure ( $\alpha = .05$ ) and the 10 items for consideration ( $\alpha = .05$ ) were averaged to obtain an overall score on each dimension.

The data was entered into a spreadsheet program, that sorted the data to test the hypothesis. The first data was sorted by low level employees and high level employees. Once sorted, statistical operations were performed on the data. The mean, the median, the standard deviation, the variance, and the correlation were found. For each question the statistical operations were performed, as well as, for the whole entire survey.

The data was then sorted by male employees and female employees. Once sorted the same statistical operations were performed on the data. The mean, the median, the standard deviation, the variance, and the correlation were found. For each question the statistical operations were performed, as well as, for the whole entire survey.

The conceptual framework and hypotheses developed earlier suggest causal relationships among variables. Path analysis can be used to study the indirect and direct effects of a set of variables taken as causes on a set of variables taken as effects when the relationships are recursive. The estimation of the structural equations can be accomplished through least squares regression.

A multiple regression analysis was conducted for each dependent variable. Initially, the "full" model for each dependent variable was analyzed. A "trimmed" model for each dependent variable was then analyzed using only those predictors that were significantly related ( $p < .05$ ) to a given dependent variable in the full model, thus, trivial paths (those having path coefficients that are not statistically significant) were deleted from the trimmed models using a non-significance criterion. Trimmed models are used to find a more parsimonious model for the data.

To test the hypotheses, the multivariate  $Z$  procedure was used because it tested for independence, or for relationship, between the consideration and initiation of male and female type scores calculated by the LBDQ and high and low level managers with consideration and initiation. The multivariate  $Z$  procedure results accepted or rejected the null hypothesis to show there was or



was not independence or relatedness between the consideration and initiation of the subjects in this study.

A five- percent (5%) significance level was used to configure the degrees of freedom.

## Chapter IV

### RESULTS

There were forty-nine valid responses, from the returned questionnaires, used. Sixty-three subjects participated in this study. A valid case was when no data were missing on all questionnaires returned. Any questionnaires found with missing information/data were invalid.

The surveys were categorized by gender and then by management level. Of the 49 surveys examined, 34 were from female participants, 15 from male participants, 30 were from low level managers and 19 were from high level managers. The survey involved communication from managers to their employees.

Task-orientation is described as a leader's behavior in delineating the relationship between himself/herself and staff members and in endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, communication, and procedures. People-orientation is described as a leader's behavior indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in the relationship between the leader and his or her subordinates.

Of the 49 surveys the mean score for females was 4.542857, for males 4.357143, for high level managers 3.946869, and for low level managers 3.825. The average age of participants was 34.3 with a standard deviation of 5.49. Table

2 shows the largest standard deviations in the category of Consideration or People-orientation.

TABLE 2. Distribution of Communication Scores

Valid Cases: 49			Missing Cases: 14			
Variable	Mean	Std Dev	Minimum	Maximum	N	Label
AGE	36.61	7.55	26	50	49	Age of Participant
SEX	1.286	.46	1	2	49	Participant's Sex
YEARS	5.92	1.20	1	25	49	Years with Company
EDU	1.89	.31	1	2	49	Education Level
INIT	4.27	.20	1	4	49	Initiating Structure
CONS	4.01	2.13	1	4	49	Consideration

Table 3 shows the analysis of scores for the overall sample on each category of communication. The range, standard deviation, and variance are reported in the table listed below.

The first task regarding the research hypotheses involves determining if a difference exists in the number of high level and low level managers in their

TABLE 3: Responses for Initiating Structure and Consideration

Variable	Range	STD Dev	Kurtosis	Variance	Skewness
INIT	4	.20	-.91	4.64	1.01
CONS	4	2.13	-.14	2.32	-.10

Valid cases=49      Missing cases=14

communication styles. A simple tally would show nothing since 61% of the participants are high level managers. The standard deviation of high level managers in consideration is larger than of low level managers (Table 4).

The mean for low level managers in initiating structure is well above the average whereas the high level managers are barely above average. The opposite is true of consideration. The high level managers are well above average while the low-level managers are barely above average.

TABLE 4: Communication by Management Level

Variable	Low Mean	Low S.D.	High Mean	High S.D.	Grand Mean/S.D.
INIT	3.92	.39	3.54	.17	3.73/.15
CONS	3.54	.22	3.89	.32	3.71/.07

The second task regarding the research hypotheses involves determining if a difference exists in the number of female high level and low level managers in their communication styles. A simple tally would show nothing since 71% of the participants are female managers. The standard deviation of female low level managers in consideration and initiating structure is larger than of the female high level managers (Table 5).

TABLE 5: Communication by Gender (Female)

Variable	Female Low Level mean	Female Low level S.D.	Female High Level Mean	Female High Level S.D.	Grand Mean/S.D.
INIT	3.94	1.15	4.28	.79	4.17/.97
CONS	3.62	1.28	4.06	.93	3.78/1.11

The mean for both high and low level female participants in the survey of initiating structure are well above the average of 3, but the high level females mean was larger with 4.28. The same is true of consideration. The female high level participants' means are well above average 4.06 while the female low-level participant's means are barely above average 3.62.

The third task regarding the research hypothesis involves determining if a difference exists in the number of male high level and low level managers in their communication styles. The standard deviation of female managers in consideration is larger than of male managers (Table 6).

TABLE 6: Communication by Gender (Males)

Variable	Male Low Level mean	Male Low level S.D.	Male High Level Mean	Male High Level S.D.	Grand Mean/S.D.
INIT	3.83	.79	4.31	.69	4.07/.74
CONS	3.75	1.03	4.43	.69	4.09/.86

The mean for both high and low level male participants in the survey of initiating structure are well above the average of 3, but the high level males mean was larger with 4.31. The same average is true of consideration. The male high level participants' means are well above average with 4.43 while the female low-level participant's means are barely above average 3.75. The differences and distribution of the scores indicate the null hypothesis may be rejected, but further analysis is necessary to determine this.

In order to complete the examination of the effects of gender on production and people orientation, a Multivariate t was performed on each of the variables. This technique was used to test the null hypothesis by testing all of the group means and comparing them. The Multivariate t was used since the variables are being compared by two unrelated sample means. Table 6 shows the results of the Multivariate t for each of the hypotheses.

The results are examined by reviewing the calculated t and comparing them to the critical t. When comparing the two, if the calculated t is larger than the critical t the null hypothesis is rejected. If the critical t is larger than the calculated t then the null hypothesis is accepted.

Women in the top levels of management produced a significant difference when compared to women in lower level of management, ( $t_{\text{critical}} = 1.860$ ,  $t_{\text{calculated}} = 2.029$ ). Thus, the null hypothesis would be rejected since critical did not exceed the calculated.

Men in the top levels of management created a significant difference when compared to men in the lower levels of management, ( $t_{\text{critical}} = 1.943$ ,  $t_{\text{calculated}} = 2.03$ ). Therefore, the null hypothesis would be rejected since critical did not exceed the calculated value.

People in the top levels of management showed a difference that cannot be considered significant at the Pearson's alpha level of .05, ( $t_{\text{critical}} = 1.812$ ,  $t_{\text{calculated}} = .73$ ). The researcher then accepted the null hypothesis.

Table 7 presents a comparison summary of all the Multivariate t results for this study. Most of the results were concurrent. More results supported the research showing men and women in top levels of management demonstrate task-orientation in their management styles.

The results support the research hypothesis that differences in upper and lower levels of management do exist between each gender.

TABLE 7: Multivariate t Results Comparison for Task and People Orientation

Variable	Multivariate t
Women in top levels are no different	Ho reject
Men in top levels are no different	Ho reject
People in top level are no different	Ho accept

---

The results that did not support the research hypotheses involved people in the top levels of an organization are not different than lower levels of an organization.



## Chapter V

### DISCUSSION

This study examined differences in male and female, high level and low-level manager's communication within a company. Male and female scores as well as high and low level managers were compared to assess whether or not gender based differences exist.

The theory of gender differences in communication was supported in the following results.

The question pertaining to women in the top levels of management led to the null and alternative hypotheses to be tested. The null hypothesis was women in the top levels of an organization's hierarchy would be no different than women in the lower levels of an organization's hierarchy. The alternative hypothesis was women in the top levels of an organization's hierarchy tend to be more task-oriented than women in the lower levels of an organization's hierarchy.

To test the null hypothesis, a cross-tabulation table was calculated and a multivariate t procedure was used.

With 8 degrees of freedom and Pearson's Alpha of .05, the critical value was 1.860, which was smaller than the calculated Multivariate t of 2.029. The null hypothesis was rejected showing that women in top levels of an organization's hierarchy are different than women in the lower levels of an organization's hierarchy.

The question pertaining to men in the top levels of management led to the null and alternative hypotheses to be tested. The null hypothesis was men in the top levels of an organization's hierarchy will be no different than men in the lower levels of an organization's hierarchy. The alternative hypothesis was men in the top levels of an organization's hierarchy tend to be more task-oriented than men in the lower levels of an organization's hierarchy.

To test the null hypothesis, a cross-tabulation table was calculated and a multivariate t procedure was used.

With 6 degrees of freedom and Pearson's Alpha of .05, the critical value was 1.943, which was smaller than the calculated Multivariate t of 2.02974. The null hypothesis was rejected showing that men in top levels of an organization's hierarchy are different than men in the lower levels of an organization's hierarchy.

The question pertaining to people in the top levels of management led to the null and alternative hypotheses to be tested. The null hypothesis was people in the top levels of an organization's hierarchy would be no different than people in the lower levels of an organization's hierarchy. The alternative hypothesis was people in the top levels of an organization's hierarchy would be no different than people in the lower levels of an organization's hierarchy.

To test the null hypothesis, a cross-tabulation table was calculated and a multivariate t procedure was used.

With 10 degrees of freedom and Pearson's Alpha of .05, the critical value was 1.812, which was larger than the calculated Multivariate t of .72473. The

null hypothesis was supported showing that people in the top levels of an organization's hierarchy are no different than people in the lower levels of an organization's hierarchy.

Literature reviewed for this study supported the theory that women and low level managers dominate the people-orientation side of communication in the workplace. The results of this study indicate that within each gender, there was a difference, but across gender lines there was nothing to indicate a difference in male and female reported levels of people-orientation versus product-orientation.

The major conclusion of this researcher is that communication in the workplace between product-orientation and people-orientation is inconclusive. This is the result of rejecting the null hypothesis on female/male high level managers versus female/male low-level managers, but accepting the null hypothesis on high level manager versus low level managers. Separately, high level managers are more task oriented than low level managers are. This is the result of socialization effect from peers, teachers, and parents supporting gender segregation.

#### Limitations of this Study

The researcher found several limitations while performing this study. Two limitations exist in the design of the study. The LBDQ was sent to the company, relying on secretaries to get the survey passed out and sent back to the researchers. This was necessary due to the length of the survey and lacking an

adequate amount of business managers to complete the survey. Also, twice as many women as men volunteered to participate in this study. Statistical procedures were utilized compensating for this fact, so not to skew the results. Though, the results would be more powerful if the sample was larger and more representative of the gender/manager ratio in the population.

Certain definition posed difficulty to this study. Masculinity and femininity are not defined in the research reviewed in concrete terms. Also, the literature used for this study relied heavily on research by Stogdill because he is at the forefront of the research movement on product-orientation versus people-orientation.

#### Suggestions for Future Research

There are many things that could have been added to this study if the researcher was given an opportunity to replicate the study. In future research, studies may be done on gender differences in communication. Whether male upper level managers and female upper level managers are more or less task-oriented versus people-oriented, as well as, whether male lower level managers and female lower managers are more or less task-oriented versus people-oriented. This study may prove to be interesting and also timely due to today's gender sensitive world.

In the future, this study could be done with a larger and different sample population. The researcher might take surveys from large manufacturing companies instead of the small service companies used in this study. This might

give the researcher different data and conclusions. The researcher could also compare large companies versus small companies to see how much variance there is from management and how the employees rate their managers.

Appendix A  
COVER LETTER

605 Mexico Road  
Wentzville, MO 63385  
June 18, 1997

«Company\_Name»  
«Address\_Line\_1»  
«City» «State» «ZIP\_Code»

Dear «Company\_Name»:

Good Afternoon! My name is Michelle Heppermann. I am writing to you in hopes that you will forward this survey to all of the employees in your company. This survey will help me to complete my thesis for my master's program. I am a Business Teacher who is trying to finish her MBA by this fall. Your help would surely be appreciated.

This survey should take no longer than 15 minutes to complete. I can assure you that responses will be held both confidentially and anonymously. The analysis of the data will be done at the group level, I will be using this for research purposes only. There are no right or wrong answers, so please be honest. Please send the surveys back to me by August 15, 1997. I have enclosed a self-addressed stamped envelope for you to send the surveys back to me.

I would like to thank you for taking the time to read this letter and for participating in the survey.

Thank You,

Ms. Michelle Heppermann

Enclosure

## Appendix B

### SURVEY

**Circle the response that best describes who you are.**

1. What gender are you? M / F
2. How many years have you been with this company?  
0-5                      6-10                      11-15                      16-longer
3. Where do you consider your manager on the corporate ladder of your organization?  
Low Level                      Middle Level                      High Level
4. Have you reached a position where you would like to stay? Y / N

**Below are several statements. Please read each as it applies to you and your manager. Indicate your level of agreement by circling your answer.**

5. Does your manager make his/her attitudes clear to the group.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Disagree/agree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree

6. Your manager assigns group members to particular tasks.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Disagree/agree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree

7. Your manager schedules the work to be done.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Disagree/agree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree

8. They maintain definite standards of performance.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Disagree/agree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree

9. They encourage the use of uniform procedures.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Disagree/agree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree

10. They ask that group members follow standard rules and regulations.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Disagree/agree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree

11. They let group members know what is expected of them.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Disagree/agree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree

12. They decide what shall be done and how it shall be done.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Disagree/agree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree

13. They make sure that the group members understand their part in the group.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Disagree/agree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree

14. They try out their own ideas with the group.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Disagree/agree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree

15. They do little things to make it pleasant to be a member of the group.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Disagree/agree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree

16. They keep to themselves.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neither Disagree/agree	Somewhat Agree	Strongly Agree



17. They refuse to explain their actions.

1 Strongly Disagree	2 Somewhat Disagree	3 Neither Disagree/agree	4 Somewhat Agree	5 Strongly Agree
---------------------------	---------------------------	--------------------------------	------------------------	------------------------

18. They act without consulting the group.

1 Strongly Disagree	2 Somewhat Disagree	3 Neither Disagree/agree	4 Somewhat Agree	5 Strongly Agree
---------------------------	---------------------------	--------------------------------	------------------------	------------------------

19. They treat all group members as your equals.

1 Strongly Disagree	2 Somewhat Disagree	3 Neither Disagree/agree	4 Somewhat Agree	5 Strongly Agree
---------------------------	---------------------------	--------------------------------	------------------------	------------------------

20. Your manager is willing to make changes.

1 Strongly Disagree	2 Somewhat Disagree	3 Neither Disagree/agree	4 Somewhat Agree	5 Strongly Agree
---------------------------	---------------------------	--------------------------------	------------------------	------------------------

21. Your manager is friendly and approachable.

1 Strongly Disagree	2 Somewhat Disagree	3 Neither Disagree/agree	4 Somewhat Agree	5 Strongly Agree
---------------------------	---------------------------	--------------------------------	------------------------	------------------------

22. They put suggestions made by the group into operation.

1 Strongly Disagree	2 Somewhat Disagree	3 Neither Disagree/agree	4 Somewhat Agree	5 Strongly Agree
---------------------------	---------------------------	--------------------------------	------------------------	------------------------

23. They give advance notice of changes.

1 Strongly Disagree	2 Somewhat Disagree	3 Neither Disagree/agree	4 Somewhat Agree	5 Strongly Agree
---------------------------	---------------------------	--------------------------------	------------------------	------------------------

24. They look out for the personal welfare of group members.

1 Strongly Disagree	2 Somewhat Disagree	3 Neither Disagree/agree	4 Somewhat Agree	5 Strongly Agree
---------------------------	---------------------------	--------------------------------	------------------------	------------------------

Any Comments that you would like to make:

---

---

---

---

---

---

---

---

## Works Cited

- Allen, William R.; "Factor Analytic Study of Interracial Similarity for the Supervisory Behavior Description Questionnaire", Educational and Psychological Measurement, August 1995, Volume 55, Issue 4, p. 658-664.
- Anderson, Claire J.; "The Corporate Annual Report: A photo Analysis of Male and Female Portrayals", The Journal of Business Communication, Spring 1992, Volume 29, Issue 2, p. 113-127.
- Andrews, Patricia Hayes; "Sex and Gender Differences in Group Communication: Impact on the Facilitation Process", Small Group Research, February 1992, Volume 23, Issue 1, p. 74-95.
- Baher, Connie; "How to Avoid Communication Clashes", HRFocus, April 1994, p. 3.
- Balkwell, James W; Berger, Joseph; "Gender, Status, and behavior in task situation," Social Psychology Quarterly, Volume 59, Issue 3, September 1996, p. 273-283.
- Bass, Bernard M.; "Comment: Transformational Leadership", Journal of Management Inquiry, September 95, Volume 4, Issue 3, p. 293-298.
- Blanchard, Kenneth H.; Paul Heresy; "Celebrating 50 Years Great Ideas Revisited", Training and Development, January 1996, Volume 50, Issue 1, p. 42-48.
- Bryant, Scott E.; "Contingent Supervisory Behavior: A Practical Predictor of Performance"; Group and Organization Management; December 1996, Volume 21, Issue 4, p. 404-414.
- Childers, Terry L.; Dubinsky, Alan J; Skinner, Steven J.; "Leadership Substitutes as Moderators of Sales Supervisory Behavior," Journal of Business Research, Volume 21, Issue 4, December 1990, p. 363-382.

- Clovis, Annette; "The Changing Role of Women in Business: A Study of Sex Role Stereotyping", The Educational Resources Information Center (Eric), p.1-14.
- Coeyman, Margorie; "Who's Left?" Restaurant Business, Volume 96, Issue 1, January 1, 1997, p. 21-24.
- DeFrancisco, Victoria Leto Ph.D.; "Ethnography and gender: Learning to talk like girls and boys", Topic in Language Disorder, 1992, Volume 12, Issue 3, p. 40-53.
- Dobbins, Gregory H.; Platz, Stephanie J.; "Sex Differences in Leadership: How Real Are They?" Academy of Management Review, Volume 11, Issue 1, January 1986, p. 118-127.
- Dubinsky, Alan J.; Childers, Terry L.; Skinner, Steven J.; "Impact of Sales Supervisor Leadership Behavior on Insurance Agent Attitudes and Performance," Journal of Risk and Insurance, Volume 55, Issue 1, March 1988, p. 132-144.
- Emmers, Tara M.; "Sex and Gender Differences in Emotion: A Preliminary Examination", The Educational Resources Information Center (Eric), April 1994, p. 1-25.
- Filipczak, Bob; "Is It Getting Chilly in Here? Men and Women at Work," Training, Volume 31, Issue 2, February 1994, p. 25-30.
- Foddy, Margaret; Smithson, Michael; "Relative ability, Paths of Relevance, and influence in Task-Oriented Groups," Social Psychology Quarterly, Volume 59, Issue 2, June 1996, p. 140-153.
- Fritz, Jane Harden; "Men's and Women's Organizational Peer Relationships: A Comparison", The journal of Business Communication, January 1997, Volume 34, Issue 1, p. 27-43.
- Gati, Itamar; "Gender Differences in the Readiness to Accept Career Compromise", The Educational Resources Information Center (Eric), July 1992, p. 1-10.
- Gibson, Christina B.; "An Investigation of Gender Differences in Leadership Across Four Countries", Journal of International Business Studies, 1995, Volume 26, Issue 2, p. 255-280.
- Hampton, Ron; Dubinsky, Alan J.; Skinner, Steven J.; "A Model of Sales Supervisor Leadership Behavior and Retail Salespeople's Job-

Related Outcomes," Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, Volume 14, Issue 3, Fall 1986, p. 33-43.

Holder, Teresa; "Women in Nontraditional Occupations: Information-Seeking During Organizational Entry", The Journal of Business Communication, January 1996, Volume 33, Issue 1, p. 9-26.

Jamieson, Kathleen H.; Beyond the Double Bind: Women and Leadership, New York: Oxford University Press, 1995.

Kenke, Karin; "Meta-analytic Studies of Leadership: Added Insights or Added Paradoxes?", Current Psychology, Winter 1993/1994, Volume 12, Issue 4, p. 326-344.

Kenney, Robert A.; Beth M. Schwartz-Kenner; Jim Blascovich; "Implicit Leadership Theories: Defining Leaders Described as Worthy of Influence", Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, November 96, Volume 22, Issue 11, p. 1128-1144.

Kim, Min-Sum; Bresnahan, Mary; "Cognitive basis of Gender Communication: A cross-cultural Investigation of Perceived Constraints in Requesting," Communication Quarterly, Volume 44, Issue 1, Winter 1996, p. 53-69.

Kling, Cynthia; "Do women Make Better Bosses?" Harper's Bazaar, September 1996, 431-433, 477-478.

Moskal, Brian S.; "Women Make Better Managers", Industry Week, February 3, 1997; p. 17-19.

Nebenzahl, Israel D.; Eugene D. Jaffe; Harry Gotesdyner; "Perceptions of Israeli Male and Female Managerial Behavior in Small Group Interactions", International Studies of Management and Organization, Fall 1993, Volume 23, Issue 3, p. 97-112.

Parker, Patricia Kay, Ph.D.; "A Cross-Cultural Study of Leadership Styles: Finland and the United States", Journal of International Business Studies, 1996, Volume 27, Issue 2, p. 435-440.

Price, Retha A.; "An Investigation of Path-Goal Leadership Theory in Marketing Channels," Journal of Retailing, Volume 67, Issue 3, Fall 1991, p. 339-361.

Saltzman, Amy; "Woman versus Woman," US News and World Report, Volume 120, Issue 12, March 25, 1996, p. 50-53.

- Schriesheim, Chester; Steven Kerr; "Psychometric Properties of the Ohio State Leadership Scales", Personnel Psychology, Volume 30, 1977, p. 756-765.
- Schriesheim, Chester A.; Ralph M. Stogdill; "Differences in Factor Structure Across Three Versions of the Ohio State Leadership Scales", Personnel Psychology, Volume 28, 1975, p. 189-206.
- Schul, Patrick L.; "An Investigation of Path-Goal Leadership Theory and Its Impact on Intrachannel Conflict and Satisfaction," Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science, Volume 15, Issue 4, Winter 1987, p. 42-52.
- Seltzer, Joseph; Rita E. Numerof; "Supervisory Leadership and Subordinate Burnout", Academy of Management Journal, Volume 31, Issue 2, 1988, p. 439-446.
- Shields, David Lyle Light; Douglas E. Gardner; Brenda Jo Light Bredemeier; Alan Bostro; "The Relationship Between Leadership Behaviors", Journal of Psychology Interdisciplinary and Applied, March 1997, Volume 131, Issue 1, p. 196-211.
- Smith, Patricia L.; Stanley J. Smits; "The Feminization of Leadership?" Training and Development, February 1994, p. 43-46.
- Stephenson, Carol; "Toward a Female Model", Vital Speeches of the Day, October 16, 1996, p. 1-4.
- Stogdill, Ralph M.; "Validity of Leader Behavior Descriptions", Personnel Psychology, 1969, Volume 22, p. 153-158.
- Stogdill, Ralph M.; Alvin E. Coons; "Leader Behavior: Its Description and Measurement," The Bureau of Business Research College of Commerce and Administration, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio; 1957, p.1-200.
- Turney, Mary Ann; "Women's Learning and Leadership Styles: Impact on Crew Resource Management," Paper presented at the Fall conference of the University Aviation Association, 1994, p. 1-20.
- Verespej, Michael A.; "Empire Without Emperors", Industry Week, February 5, 1996; p. 13-16.
- Weiss, Chris; "Who Benefits? Gender Analysis and the Role of Nonprofits in Affecting Public Policy," Paper presented to the Appalachian Studies Conference, 1995, p. 1-13.

"Women in American Boardrooms Through a Glass, Darkly", The Economist,  
August 10, 1996, p. 50-51.

Yammarino, Francis J.; "Individual and Group Directed Leader Behavior  
Descriptions", Educational and Psychological Measurement,  
Winter 1990, Volume 50, Issue 4, P. 739-750.