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To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Linda Pysher Jurczak entitled "Leadership Ability Based on Communication Style: A Quantitative Study of the Effects of Sex and Gender on Perception of Leadership." I have examined the final electronic copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Communication and Information.

Michelle T. Violanti, Major Professor

We have read this dissertation and recommend its acceptance:

Benjamin J. Bates, Robert B. Cunningham, John W. Haas, Kenneth J. Levine

Accepted for the Council:

Carolyn R. Hodges

Vice Provost and Dean of the Graduate School

(Original signatures are on file with official student records.)

To the Graduate Council:

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Accepted for the Council:

Vice Chancellor and Dean of Graduate Studies

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2006b
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Leadership ability based on communication style:
A quantitative study of the effects of sex and gender on perception of leadership

A Dissertation
Presented for the
Doctor of Philosophy
Degree

The University of Tennessee

linda pysher jurczak
May 2006

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Dedication

This incredible 9+ year journey was not mine alone. It would not have been possible without the dedication and understanding of my wonderful life partner, Steve, who gave me support and encouragement, tolerated my many mental and physical absences, and helped put things in perspective when I was overwhelmed.

To my parents, E. W. (Sonny) Pysher and Lorraine and Larry Dille, who encouraged and believed in me (I finally finished something!) and to my sisters, Deb Riley and Melissa Manness, who offered shoulders to cry on. To Leslie Finkbeiner, Joni Kerbaugh, and Brenda Lazarus, my sisters in spirit who have been my friends forever, this is for all of us, and to their parents who are my parents by extension, Ginny and Bo Bloss, Freda Campf, and Mary Fida. To my nieces and nephews (too many to list) all of whom are important and special, follow your dreams—it is never too late; when your dreams die, so do you.

And finally to my mentor, friend, and sister, Michelle, you have been my rock, my harbor, my sanctuary. You have inspired me to keep going and have helped me to believe in myself when I felt uncertain and insecure. I will never be able to give back all that you have given me. From the deepest depths of my heart and soul, thank you.

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My thanks to my committee members—Ben Bates, quantoid and role model; Bob Cunningham, a mentor in the truest sense of the word; John Haas, multi-dimensional and multi-talented; and Ken Levine, mentor and friend, who never turns me away when I show up at his office door—for their patience and support during this long and arduous process, as well as their insightful comments.

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Finally, special thanks to Chris O'Reilley, for hearing the pain and/or frustration in my voice and not just saying "Michelle's not here," who encouraged me to talk about whatever I was calling about and listened patiently.

ABSTRACT

Work to date on masculine and feminine communication styles in leadership roles is limited. Much of the leadership research reflects an interest in the differences between the styles of men and women, but relatively little has been done focusing on feminine and masculine communication styles. This study seeks to fill in some of the gaps. The quantitative design of this study is based on Goldberg's (1968) experimental paradigm and used an Internet-linked survey consisting of four different sex and gender combinations. The survey included Renzetti's (1987) Sex Role Attitudinal Inventory, a brief description of a leader, and a Likert-type scale with 20 items that rated leaders on five dimensions: task, relationship, organizational identity, qualifications, and dynamism. A factor analysis of these dimensions resulted in combining them into three factors: task/dynamism, relationship/organizational ID/qualifications, and an overall item with the two previous factors combined. Participants were selected using a convenience and a snowball approach. The convenience sample included a community college, resulting in 189 usable surveys, and the snowball sample was a general sample accessed via the Internet by the researcher sending an email to a personal address book and frequently-used listservs and asking those recipients to pass it on, resulting in 213 usable surveys. Expectation states theory and role congruity theory were the foundations for this study. Contrary to expectations, males and leaders using a masculine communication style were not rated more positively than females or those using a feminine communication style.

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Chapter 1

Introduction

Gender stereotypes and norms based on them are enduring, perhaps as old as civilization itself. One needs only to survey the major world religions to find support for this claim. In addition to including doctrine, the writings of each of the religions are arguably a history of civilization. In this history of civilization, males have always been the dominant group and predominantly the leaders. The fact is that Christianity, Judaism, Sikhism, Buddhism, Hinduism, and Islam, to name a few, were founded or headed by a man (Noss, 1974). In addition to the preponderance of male leaders, the Higher Power in each of them is also portrayed as a male (Noss, 1974). Cultural norms and values evolved from this background: norms and values based in large part on the dominant class—the male. This was true historically and it continues to be true today. Two popular recent television shows, *Touched by an Angel* and *Joan of Arcadia*, frequently referred to God as "him" and "he," evidence that, at least in the United States, society continues to perceive a male persona as the highest power. In this patriarchal system it seems obvious that leadership is based on the dominant class—the masculine male norm. Because the norm in a patriarchal system is masculine/male, it would then follow that males displaying masculine behavior would be preferred in leadership positions. It is also reasonable to assume that those desiring to become leaders might adopt masculine behaviors. Taking it a step further, they might also adopt a masculine communication style.

Much of the leadership literature focuses on leadership and/or management in organizations, and early research was conducted by white male researchers using white male participants (Chusmir 1984; Holmwood, 1995). Prior to the Feminist Movement, leaders were generally men with masculine traits and behaviors, and women were the supporting cast. Even during times of great need, times when women were asked to sacrifice, to leave their homes, to go to work, and to do men's jobs they were frequently subordinate to the few men who were left behind. Women worked the assembly lines while men ran the factories. *Rosie the Riveter* movie shorts and posters were used to persuade women to work in factories. And the propaganda worked; women took over men's jobs during their absence (Ryan, 1992). Many of these women, who were successful laborers and managers during the war, were told at war's end that their place was in the home. It seemed as if after the war, women were expected to quietly resume their places in the private sphere, nurturing and taking care of others; but not all women wanted to go back to being housewives and mothers (Bird, 1968; Friedan, 1963; Loden, 1985). This dissatisfaction with the status quo, in part, led to the Feminist Movement, which opened doors for women.

As a result of the Feminist Movement more women sought employment outside the home. Women complicated things by wanting to be more than secretaries and support staff; some even wanted to enter the male-dominated inner-sanctum of the Organization. Clear-cut sex and gender lines were blurred. Leaders, based on societal norms and expectations, were generally men and masculine and traditionally the managerial profession had been sex-typed as male (Powell & Butterfield, 1979). Leadership was an all boys club and women who wanted to join quickly learned that they needed to be one

of the boys. The few women who made it into leadership positions early on were women who typically displayed masculine sex-role traits (Schein, 1975), which can be seen in some of today's female leaders who are contemporaries of the Feminist Movement. Senators Hillary Rodham Clinton and Diane Feinstein and former National Organization President (NOW) Gloria Steinem and current NOW President Kin Gandy are a few examples. Perhaps masculine sex roles can be seen most easily in the latest incarnation of Hillary Rodham Clinton. While in the White House, after learning the First Lady's role, she hung back, was more passive, and dressed appropriately. Once out of the White House and on the campaign trail she was aggressive, assertive, and outspoken, more so than she had been in a long time. She openly attacked her opponent and always wore black pantsuits. Early on women learned that to succeed in this man's world, stereotypic male characteristics and behaviors were expected (Denmark, 1975). It really seems to make no difference if qualities desired in leaders were masculine/male or if male qualities were imposed on leadership. The result is the same—masculine individuals were accepted in leadership more readily than feminine individuals. High-achieving women often believed their success depended on them acting like men, which they did to compensate for the perceived weakness of their sex (Payne, 2001). Women either adapted to the accepted masculine norm to become leaders or those who rose to positions of leadership did so because they were naturally predisposed to behaving in a masculine rather than a feminine way. There is no evidence to discern which of these was what occurred; what we do know is that women in leadership positions mimicked the masculine behaviors of men in leadership positions.

Women acting and dressing like men to live in the world of business and politics were obvious and necessary. Women adapted to fit in, however, not all women in all professions believed that they had to adapt to live in a man's world. In fact, it was noted that in the judicial profession no sex-based differences existed; however, it was further noted that if differences did at one time exist, women had been socialized into the masculine norms of the profession (Davis, 1992-1993). This suggests that it is possible for women to change their performance, evidenced by the way women were being socialized into masculine behaviors in many businesses and professions. It would also seem reasonable to assume that ambitious women might adopt a masculine communication style, not just masculine behaviors, to succeed in this male-dominated world. Although a considerable body of work has been done on so-called powerful (masculine) and powerless (feminine) communication styles (e.g., Mulac, 1998; Mulac, Lundell, Bradac, 1986), work to date on masculine and feminine communication styles in leadership roles is limited. This study examines communications styles and their relationship to perceived leadership abilities within the theoretical frames of role expectations and role congruity.

Theoretical Foundation

Although leadership is an important concept in this research, leadership theories are not. It is actually the perception of leadership that is of interest here, not any one particular leadership theory. Leadership theories are discussed as they fit into the bigger picture, but the focus here is on how leadership interacts with biological sex and gendered communication style. More specifically, this research focuses on the effect that sex and communication style of the leader and sex and sex-role attitude of the follower

have on perceptions of leadership. Two theories that do inform this research are: 1) Expectation States Theory (Berger & Fisek, 1974) and 2) Role Congruity Theory (Eagly & Karau, 2002). These focus on sex and gender stereotyping, which is at the heart of this study.

Wagner and Berger (1997) suggest that gender is deeply entwined with social hierarchy and leadership and that rules for the gender system are at the core of status beliefs contained in gender stereotypes. Eagly, Makhijani, and Klonsky (1992) conducted a meta-analysis of 61 Goldberg-paradigm experiments. Goldberg's (1968) paradigm experiments are so named in honor of the man who first used identical articles written ostensibly by a woman or a man to test bias against women. This design allows researchers to manipulate the independent variable and assign the sexes randomly. Eagly, Makhijani, and Klonsky (1992) found that women in leadership positions were devalued more strongly, relative to their male counterparts, when leadership was carried out in a stereotypically masculine style. Women are devalued by being recognized as competent but not having the same leadership potential as men because prejudice is more likely to occur when female leaders violate their gender role by using an agentic, masculine style. Likewise, dominating or autocratic leadership behavior is less well-received from female than male leaders (Copeland, Driskell, & Salas, 1995; Korabik, Baril & Watson, 1993). A meta-analysis of leadership studies from 1961-1987 found that styles were somewhat gender stereotypic in laboratory experiments with student participants and in assessment studies with samples of employees. Women tended to manifest more interpersonally oriented and democratic styles and men tended to manifest more autocratic and task-oriented styles (Eagly & Johnson, 1990).

Eagly and Karau (2002) also focus on the relationship between expectations and roles, but they depart from expectation states theory because roles need to be congruent; when roles are not, they are confusing. It further states that when a stereotyped group member and an incongruent social role become joined in the mind of the perceiver, the inconsistency lowers the evaluation of the group member as an actual or potential occupant of the role. I argue that both expectations and role congruity are important considerations for leaders when choosing a communication style. Communication is central to our way of life as we symbolically create and recreate our worlds (Blumer, 1969; Mead, 1934).

Sex-Role Stereotyping

According to social learning theorists, stereotyping is learned through exposure (Bandura, 1973, 1986). Once learned, stereotypes are stored in categories that aid in the rapid processing of information. They are in a state of readiness, available for use in judgments such as identification, categorization, and inference about category members (Bruner, 1957). When encountering a new person, the person's obvious category membership can capture one's immediate attention (Brewer, 1988; Fiske & Neuberg, 1990) and stereotypes can be applied based on that membership. These learned stereotypes automatically come to mind through well-learned associations to cues (Bargh, 1999). Sex categories create a simple, fast, habitually-used dichotomy, and people automatically sex categorize even when other definitions (i.e., grad student/professor) are available (Brewer & Lui, 1989). Stereotypes function as standards against which individual members of groups are judged (Biernat & Kobrynowicz, 1997; Biernat & Manis, 1994; Biernat, Manis, & Nelson, 1991). While sex is the grouping of people into female and male

categories, gender is a construction based on the meanings that societies and individuals ascribe to these female and male categories.

Gender-Role Stereotyping

A significant body of research has suggested that leaders are expected to be aggressive, authoritative, dominant, competitive, assertive, task-oriented, logical, organized, direct, dominant, independent, rational, analytical, autocratic, and directive (Aldoory, 1998; Arkkelin, 1985; Cann & Siegfried, 1987, 1990; Chapman, 1975; Chapman & Luthans, 1975; Denmark, 1977; Eagly et al., 1995; Korabik & Ayman, 1989; Ronk, 1993; Sargent & Stupak, 1989). These behaviors are traditionally associated with men and masculinity (Bem, 1975). This male/masculine leader model is problematic for women because evidence suggests that we continue to use gender-role stereotypes to make predictions about the behavior and evaluation of women leaders and managers (Brewer & Lui, 1989). If we are evaluating women based on gender-role stereotypes—female as follower, caregiver, fixer-of-problems—and leaders on gender-role stereotypes—masculine, aggressive—women have to overcome the "she is such a bitch" perception to succeed.

Gender categories are learned early, in fact, they are among the first categories we learn and, unlike sex stereotypes, gender stereotypes are based on power differences (Crawford, 1995). Close contact between the genders increases the complexity of stereotypes. Gender stereotypes differ from other stereotypes because they possess biological and sexual facets. Like other stereotypes, gender stereotypes arise in the socialization process, beginning the moment a baby is born.

Gender stereotyping continues throughout the socialization process. Researchers have observed boys and girls at play and find their behaviors to be different. Boys' games are about skill and ability—they compete and keep score—while girls' games are about including others (Goodwin, 1993). Girls are more interested in the interaction and the relationship; their games are an excuse for talking, feeling, and interacting (Gottman & Carrère, 1994). These findings echo Lever's (1978) findings that boys and girls play differently. She observed that girls played cooperatively and boys played competitively. Boys are given toys that encourage independence and thinking (i.e., building materials and blocks) while girls' toys encourage nurturing and dependence (Schaffer, 1981). Not only are boys and girls given different kinds of toys and taught different games, but they also are socialized into standards set by males, for males and taught that anything that deviates from this standard is abnormal. "Ultimately, socialization to a view of females as inferior encourages seeing them and treating them as 'things'" (Schur, 1983, p. 240). When women and men are treated differently, they begin to behave differently. Gender becomes a self-fulfilling prophecy: gender difference is created and conflated with sex, thereby confirming a sex difference (Crawford, 1995).

Narratives told by women and men highlight this difference. Clark (1995) looked at the stories children told about gender and found that even in young children there are differences. Children demonstrated a conception of the unequal distribution of power; boys and girls convey a perception of male in the dominant role. Girls' and boys' narratives revolve around themes of girls telling moral tales about personal relationships and boys telling action-packed adventure tales. Similarly, Johnstone (1993) found that women's stories tend to be people-oriented and about cooperation, while men's stories

are more about competition between individuals than they are about the individuals themselves. Men tell stories about physical and social contests, stories in which they are the defender, and women talk about the community, stories which demonstrate the importance of relationships (Johnstone, 1993). It is this socialization into a "community spirit" that can be problematic for women who want to enter into highly competitive fields. Throughout the socialization process, relationships have been fundamental and often to succeed in leadership this internalized cooperative spirit must be reined-in to give room to the competitive spirit.

Clearly, we are socialized into gender-roles early in life. Part of this socialization is a difference in power, or in the perception of power. Power is attributed to masculine individuals because they are the ones that compete, while feminine individuals cooperate. Perhaps it is because we accept differences in power based more on sex-roles than gender-roles that the power differential is not as obvious in heterosexual relationships. It is easier to see these power differentials in relationships of gays and lesbians. In homosexual relationships, the biological sex difference is eliminated and what is left is the gender difference; the more powerful of the partners communicates in a prototypical masculine style (Crawford, 1995). Gender stereotypes change with cultural changes and scientific advances (Fiske & Stevens, 1993), which would be good, were it not for perceptions. The perception is that those in power cannot be blamed for distant past socialization that encourages the use of weaker, more passive speech, which allows those in power to avoid changing their behaviors in the present. In other words, it serves to take the focus off of how gender conformity is enforced and inequality perpetuated (Crawford, 1995), which is obvious in communication.

Communication Styles

Much has been written about the differences in communication styles. Males use a more assertive style while females use a tentative one. The assertive style has been said to be masculine and the tentative style feminine. Males communicate with greater volume, lower pitch, and greater inflection, which give power and passion to their ideas (Eakins & Eakins, 1978; Payne, 2001). Females, on the other hand, do not speak as loudly, have higher pitched voices, and are hesitant, which communicates weakness rather than strength. They often sound powerless due to frequent use of hedges, qualifiers, and tag questions (Mulac, Lundell, & Bradac, 1986). Studies of tentative versus assertive speech styles found mixed results. Both women and men judged women who spoke more tentatively as less competent and knowledgeable than women who spoke more assertively; there were no effects for judgments of men. However, men were more influenced by women who spoke tentatively, and women found them to be less effective (Carli, 1990). Perhaps men preferred women in the appropriate gender-role of feminine female and women did not.

This presents yet another quandary for women. These findings suggest that women in powerful positions should adopt an assertive, strong, and passionate style—masculine. However, to gain positions of power in the first place in a male-dominated, hierarchical system might require a tentative style that would be more influential with men. Clearly women in leadership roles need to adapt depending on where in the hierarchy they are located. This begs the question—can communication style be changed?

According to Crawford (1995) assertiveness training for women resulted from the idea that women were socialized to be meek, polite, and passive. The assertiveness training that was offered to women included behaviors that were considered to be masculine according to the *Bem Sex Role Instrument [BSRI]* (Bem, 1974), behaviors such as defending one's own beliefs, being willing to take a stand, forcefulness, self-reliance, and independence. The prototype for assertiveness is virtually synonymous with masculinity (Crawford, 1995). It should not be surprising then that women have been led to believe if they wanted to succeed, they had to be like men. Women, in an effort to sound more powerful and to combat stereotypical impressions of them as the weaker sex, have adopted more masculine speech styles, including lowering their pitch (Hoar, 1992).

Rationale and Hypotheses

It has been more than three decades since women began pursuing careers in earnest and still the "glass ceiling" remains intact. According to the 2000 United States Census, women in the United States account for approximately 36% of all managers (U. S. Census, 2002). It would seem that women are making significant progress in the world of work compared to their predecessors. Women are now in positions of power, they are managers and supervisors and they are business owners. However, of those women and men in "management of companies and enterprises" men are making approximately 87% more annually than women (U. S. Census, 2000). In the top 1000 industrial firms and the 500 largest U.S. corporations, as ranked by *Fortune* magazine, women comprise only 3 to 5 percent of top management (U. S. Department of Labor, 1998). The presence of women is also lacking on corporate boards: 105 of 500 companies surveyed still had no women on their boards (Dobrsynski, 1996). These numbers suggest

that a problem continues to exist for women trying to break into upper management. One possibility is that there are not enough qualified women.

A lack of qualified women is no longer a valid argument. According to the United States Census, slightly more women than men in the 25 to 29 age group were high school graduates in 2000: 89 percent of women, compared with 87 percent of men this age. Thirty percent of women in this age group held a bachelor's degree or better, compared with 28 percent of men. Women have also been the majority of college students since 1979 (U.S. Census, 2000). These findings are not limited to the United States; similar numbers are found in Great Britain. Statistical data show a significant growth from 1991 to 1996 in the number of women and men between the ages of 20 and 34 earning degrees: approximately 23% for women and 22% for men (Central Statistics Office, 2003). It is obviously not a lack of academic qualifications keeping women out of boardrooms. So, what is?

This study examines the relationships among sex, gender, and leadership. Research indicates that leaders' behaviors are important (e.g., Fleishman, 1973; Judge, Colbert, & Ilies, 2004; Powell & Butterfield, 1984), but can the same be said about communication styles? Do we have the same expectations of a communicator's style based on biological sex? If so, what effect does communicator style have on judgments of leadership? Is style situational and evaluated differently based on the user? Do sex and gender make a difference in leadership? What role, if any, does communication style play in organizations? Does it matter if leaders use a feminine/expressive or masculine/instrumental communication style? As cultural norms and expectations change, do gender stereotypes lose their importance? Do women need to continue

communicating and behaving in a masculine style? How does this move toward a more feminine style affect organizational communication? Work to date on masculine and feminine communication styles in leadership roles is limited. Much of the leadership research reflects an interest in the differences between the behavioral styles of men and women, but relatively little has been done with feminine and masculine communication styles. This study seeks to fill some of the gaps.

Leaders' Communication Style

Researchers have found that certain traits are considered feminine, others are considered masculine, and still others are neutral (Bem, 1974; Kawakami, White, & Langer, 2000; Liu & Wilson, 2001). Historically, the masculine stereotype has been the more favorable for leaders, however, there is evidence that it is becoming less favorable and the feminine stereotype more favorable in leaders (Deaux & Kite, 1993). Distinctly feminine skills that women were encouraged to change in favor of masculine ones might be the ones needed by leaders with the changing face of business (Sharma, 1990). Rigg and Sparrow (1994) suggest that the stereotypical people-centered, relational approach of women may be what is needed by business. Will this make a difference for women and men in leadership positions? Will subordinates' perceptions of leaders change based on the swing toward a more considerate, relationship-centered leadership style? These issues lead to the following hypothesis:

H_1: Male leaders are rated more highly than female leaders if both use a feminine communication style.

Role Congruity

Stereotypes and incongruent social roles have garnered considerable attention in various fields. Basically, when a stereotyped group member and an incongruent social role become joined in the mind of the perceiver, evaluation of the group member is lowered as an actual or potential occupant of that role (Eagly & Karau, 2002). In addition, women in leadership positions were devalued more strongly, relative to their male counterparts, when leadership was carried out in a stereotypically masculine style. Prejudice is more likely to occur when female leaders violate their gender role by using an agentic, masculine style (Eagly, Makhijani, & Klonsky, 1992). Although there seems to be a shift toward a more feminine, democratic leadership style, the more traditional, dominant style continues to be used. When it is, it is less well-received from female than male leaders (Copeland, Driskell, & Salas, 1995; Korabik, Baril & Watson, 1993), which leads to the next two hypotheses:

H_2: Male leaders using a masculine communication style are perceived more positively than male leaders using a feminine communication style by participants holding more traditional sex-role views.

H_3: Female leaders using a feminine communication style are perceived more positively than female leaders using a masculine communication style by participants holding more traditional sex-role views.

Task-focus

Masculine leaders are more autocratic and use more directives than feminine leaders (Cann & Siegfried, 1990), which would be helpful in situations requiring a quick decision or quick turnaround. Masculine leadership is similar to the hierarchical structure

of the military, with high control, competition, strategizing, and analyzing (Sharma, 1990). Clearly, masculine leadership is considered to be autocratic and transactional, and masculine leaders are task-oriented. This leads to the next hypothesis:

> **H_4:** Masculine communication is rated more positively than feminine communication in situations that require a task-focus.

Relationship-focus

Feminine leadership is almost the opposite of masculine leadership. LaMude and Daniels (1984) found that female managers are perceived to be more democratic and open than male managers. Others suggest feminine leaders differ in "finding new and better ways of doing things, inspiring staff to achieve higher goals and being open about unpleasant facts" (Smith, 1997 p. 110), and in using a

> co-operative/collaborating operating approach, team spirit in organisational structure and intuitive/rational/creative approach in problem solving—in carrying out important managerial functions including the use of power, managing human relationships, problem-solving, conflict management, motivation of employees, goal-setting, decision-making, and teamwork. In addition, this management style possesses certain psychological characteristics e.g., desire for less control, concern for people, skill in managing human relationships and employee satisfaction instead of financial gains as evidence of managerial effectiveness (Sharma, 1990 p. 16).

According to the literature, feminine leaders are people- and relationship-oriented. Basically, feminine leaders are not driven by the bottom line, which leads to the following hypothesis:

H_5: Feminine communication is rated more positively than masculine communication in situations that require a relationship-focus.

A review of the literature raises other questions about relationships that have been researched in other disciplines, but little if any work has been done in the area of sex, gendered communication style, and leadership. Some areas that will be addressed by this study are communication competence, communication context, sex-role attitudes, and followers' expectations.

Communication competence has been of interest to communication scholars for a very long time. Chomsky (1965) focused on a message-centered approach while others were interested in an outcome-focused approach (e.g., Weimann, 1977). Still others were interested in who should be the judge of communication competence—sender or receiver (e.g., Pavitt & Haight 1985). In other disciplines, relationships have been noted between communication and competence (e.g., Huber & Boyle, 2005; Tubbs & Schultz, 2006) and competence and performance (e.g., Powell, Lovallo & Caringle, 2006). Effective communication competencies include demonstrating appropriate emotional intelligence, active listening, non-defensiveness, appropriate and skillful use of language, and body language, effective interviewing, effective negotiation, rumor control, techno-etiquette, and presentational skills (Tubbs & Schultz, 2006). Powell, Lovallo and Caringle (2006) note a link between an organizations performance and competence of its people. In fact, the link has led some to require managers and supervisors to participate in communication training. One such company, the international drug company *Roche,* implemented a mandatory communication plan for leaders and managers at all levels within the company as a means to its 2002 "*Winning for the Future*" rollout (Huber &

Boyle, 2005). The communication plan included a model of structured dialogue and a directive to ensure that everyone understands the groups strategy and direction. Roche also put together a communication team to help facilitate two-way dialogue

This study looks at competence in relationship to communication style, which begs the question—what is competence? Tubbs & Schultz (2006) present a lengthy taxonomy of necessary skills and behaviors that are exhibited by competent individuals. Stefano and Wasylyshyn (2005) break it down to three leadership essentials: integrity, courage, and empathy. This study simply defines competence as having the necessary or adequate ability or qualities to do a particular job.

RQ_1: To what extent are women and men, using the same communication style, viewed as equally competent in leadership positions?

It has been found that in settings with unpredictable and ambiguous tasks (e.g., police work) a more structured leadership style is important, while in settings with more routine and predictability (e.g., manufacturing) a less structured, more flexible style is acceptable. The more unpredictable the setting, the more structure is necessary. In studies of attorneys and communication style in courtrooms, the jury is still out. Powerful speakers (masculine) were always perceived as more credible, regardless of speaker sex, than powerless speakers (feminine) (Erickson, Lind, Johnson, & O'Barr, 1978). However, in another study powerful speech was perceived as more credible only when the speaker and the perceiver were of the same sex (Lind & O'Barr, 1979). These findings lead to the following research question:

RQ_2: To what extent does preferred communication style vary across situations regardless of leader's sex?

There is considerable evidence to support the notion that women using stereotypical masculine leadership behaviors are devalued and disliked (e.g., Eagly, Makhijani, & Klonsky, 1992; Harlan & Weiss, 1982). In fact, role congruity theory argues that when roles people fill and expectations others have for them do not match, the perception of that person as a possible occupant of the role is lowered (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Sex-role attitudes are the expectations we have of the roles that others should fill based on their sex. Goffman (1963) noted that people behaving in violation of societal expectations are perceived negatively. Although the preferences between masculine and feminine styles are changing, the "core beliefs in the instrumental and agentic qualities of men and the emotional and communal attributes of women persist (Deaux & Kite, 1993, p. 127).

These findings lead to the following research questions:

RQ_3: How well do sex-role attitudes and participants' sex predict assessments of task-orientation?

RQ_4: How well do sex-role attitudes and participants' sex predict assessments of relationship-orientation?

RQ_5: How does violating expectation states for one's sex affect perceived leadership ability?

RO_6: What effect, if any, does role congruity have on the preference for a particular leadership style?

RQ_7: What effect does sex of participant have on preferred leadership communication style?

As noted above (Deaux & Kite, 1993), preferences for masculine and feminine styles, in general, are changing, which leads one to wonder about preferences for communication styles changing as well. Also, there is evidence to support a move toward a more androgynous society, which would lead one to believe that age would affect evaluations of communicators. In political studies of differences in voting behaviors of men and women, McDermott (1998) found that younger women in general are more inclined to vote for women than for men, however, Dolan (1998) found that younger women who are religious are more likely to vote for men. It is expected that Generation Yers differ from Generation Xers who differ from Baby Boomers who differ from pre-Baby Boomers. Feminist standpoint theory (Hartsock, 1983b) and critical race theory would suggest that there are differences based on membership in oppressed groups; that different perspectives arise from different positions in society. We would expect to see some of these differences reflected in perceptions of leadership based on communication style, which led to the following questions:

RQ_8: What effect does age of participant have on preferred leadership communication style?

RQ_9: What relationship, if any, is there between socioeconomic background of participant and preferred leadership communication style?

RQ_{10}: What relationship, if any, is there between race of participant and preferred leadership communication style?

RQ_{11}: What relationship, if any, is there between education level of participant and preferred leadership communication style?

This chapter looked at the historical foundations leadership. It offered a brief summary of their entrance into the world of organizations and a brief review of the literature. The theoretical foundations of Expectation States Theory and Role congruity Theory were defined and connected to this particular study. Sex-role and gender-role socialization were addressed, as were communication styles and leadership styles. Finally, hypotheses and research questions were offered. The following chapter examines the literature in greater depth.

CHAPTER 2

Literature Review

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationships among sex, communication style, and leadership. Considerable interest has been shown over the years in the differences between women's and men's leadership and communication styles. In fact, much of the research in these areas has been based purely in biological differences. This chapter synthesizes the literature. Of particular interest in this review are two theories that inform this study: expectation states theory and role congruity theory. This chapter is divided into the following sections: Theoretical Foundations, Leadership, and Communication.

Theoretical Foundations

Expectations States Theory (EST) (Berger & Fisek, 1974) and Role Congruity Theory (Eagly & Karau, 2002) share the idea that stereotyping drives our evaluations and behaviors. Eagly (1987) first started addressing these relationships with social role theory (Figure 2.1). Social role theory is discussed in more detail as it pertains to role congruity in that section.

Expectation States Theory

According to Berger & Fisek (1974), expectation states theory is about status characteristics and about roles that members of a group come to hold for themselves and others. Roles do not suddenly materialize out of nowhere; like other things, they are socially constructed, and they are socially constructed based on categories (Ridgeway & Smith-Lovin, 1999). Status characteristics are characteristics that can be differentially evaluated as having high or low honor, esteem, and/or desirability. In other

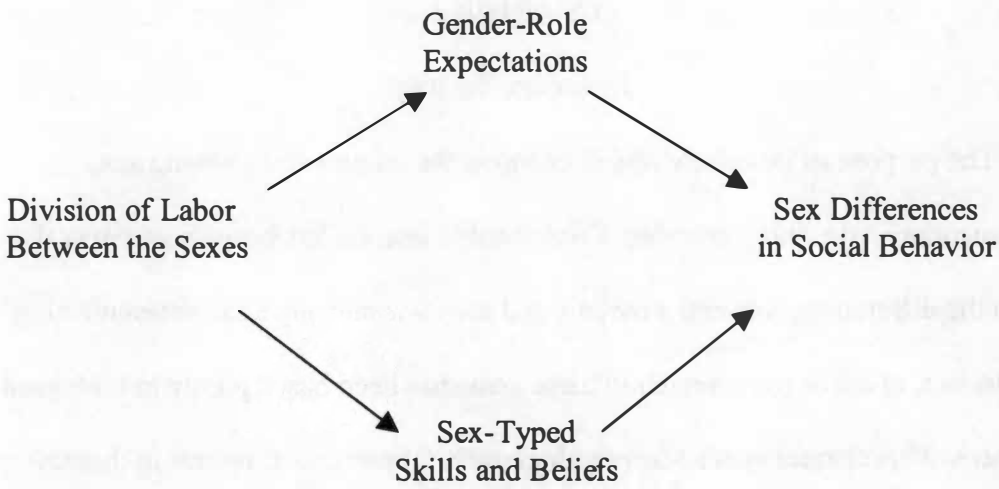

Figure 2.1

Social-role theory of sex differences in social behaviors (Eagly, 1987)

words, people with high status characteristics, such as men in leadership, are expected to be more honorable. They also are held in higher esteem and are more desirable in leadership positions. People with high status characteristics are also differentiated from other characteristics by having distinct performance expectations associated with the high and low states (Berger & Fisek, 1974). Not only do status characteristics lead others to have evaluations and expectations about people, but they also determine the distribution of action opportunities. Action opportunities are stabilized beliefs about how an individual possessing a given state of the characteristic will perform. Someone with a high perceived status characteristic will be expected to perform better than someone with a low perceived status characteristic.

In addition to differences in high and low status characteristics, there are also differences in kinds of expectations. Specific expectations are situational; general expectations are not (Berger & Fisek, 1974, p. 174). For example, two people, each with

a Ph. D. may be evaluated differently based on the social categories to which they belong and those doing the evaluating. The categories may be the different sexes, different races, or different heights. Any of these may lead to evaluations of high or low status. Both of these two people may be perceived as having higher status than someone with a Master's degree. If there was a job opening that required a Master's degree, and two applicants applied—one with a Master's and one with a PhD, it is likely that the person with the doctorate would be more likely than the one with the Master's degree to be granted an interview for the position. The degree leads to a specific expectation. Doctor of Philosophy is a characteristic—an aspect of or property of an individual that might be used to describe him or her. In addition to specific status characteristics, there are also diffuse status characteristics. A status characteristic is diffuse if it involves more than one set of specific expectation states and, in addition, at least one set of general expectation states.

Of particular interest in this theory are possession, expected possession, similarity, and relevance of the relations. One can actually possess the status characteristic leading to the expectation. For example, one could actually have an MBA, which would lead to expected possession of business sense. Or one could be similar in behavior to someone who has an MBA leading others to conclude that he or she can perform an expected task or function. There can be an expectation of possession based on similar tasks or similar individuals. There may have been no previous interaction with an individual, but based on previous experience with similar individuals others may associate him or her with organizing and defining cues in a particular situation (Berger, Webster, Ridgeway, & Rosenholz, 1986). People are deemed high-ability or low-ability

based on past experiences with others. However, status characteristics can be relevant even if there is no previous association with the characteristic relevant to a particular task. Having an MBA is enough to lead others to expect someone to be able to read a spreadsheet, for example. More importantly, transfers of expectations to others with the same attributes are only blocked when cultural beliefs suggest that the goal of the subsequent encounter is explicitly unrelated (Ridgeway, 1991).

If the goals are unrelated but there is no clear evidence that they are unrelated, the expectation will be transferred, meaning that those with high status characteristics will more often than not be expected to have the ability to perform the task at hand. This is one possible explanation for a lack of women in leadership positions—sex is a status characteristic and women have lower status leading to lower expectations. Similarly, expectations may also be linked: if an individual possesses a particular element, he or she is expected to have access to another element (Fisek, Berger, & Norman, 1995). There are also some situations in which status characteristics are insignificant. Basically, given status elements that are directly related to a task the actor's use of them forms performance expectations for self and others.

Additional work revealed that status elements used for organizing the distribution of power and prestige in a group are situational (Fisek, Berger, & Norman, 1995). Different circumstances would highlight different status characteristics. To get information about relevant characteristics, subjects combine misinformation, even if it is inconsistent, thus creating a hierarchy of power and prestige that places inconsistent individuals between those who are consistently high and those who are consistently low; information that equates the status of subjects is combined with other information in the

same manner, so that under certain circumstances subjects are equal in status. This reduces the effect on the power and prestige order of status characteristics that discriminate between them (Berger & Fisek, 1974, p. 203).

The notion of cues further expands the theory; cues are tangible, physical evidence of status. Like stereotypes, cues allow other people to make inferences about us or to judge us. Different cues that we display give us different advantages according to perceivers. This is of particular interest in leadership because female-typed occupations generally have had less prestige, less power and less pay than male-typed occupations (Dexter, 1985). Fisek, Berger, & Norman (2005) identify four different kinds of cues. First, cues can be indicative, ones that identify or label a person as possessing some status or condition. Indicative cues are explicit: a diploma hanging on a wall, a trophy, or a statement such as "I am a doctor." Second, expressive cues provide interest and supply implicit status information during interaction. These include paralanguage behaviors such as an accent, word choices, gestures, eye contact, and confidence in tone. The third type of cue, task cues, inform others of what people are doing and can do on the immediate interaction task. Finally, categorical cues clue us into these people such as ethnic identity, educational attainment, or specific professional expertise. There is overlap between some cue categories; task and categorical cues can be either indicative or expressive and indicative and expressive can be either task or categorical (See Figure 2.2).

The expectation advantage suggests that expectations differ for our selves and others. Basically, the power and prestige position of an actor with respect to another is the direct continuous function of his or her expectation advantage over the other. Finally, the power and prestige position is the primary determinant of status related behaviors.

	Categorical	Indicative
Task	"I just happen to know how to do this." "I am confident of my abilities here." "I have had a great deal of experience with this kind of problem." "I have the ability in general to solve problems."	Diploma, licence and certificates Obvious symbols of wealth. Poverty. Educational attainment, status position "I have a Harvard Ph.D." "I am a Chicano."
Expressive	Eye contact and duration Speech speed Speech loudness Speech fluency or hesitancy Rapid. Sure movements (in sports) Graceful posture (in sports) Choice of head of table Maintaining minority position	Ethnic or regional dialect Grammar word usage, phonology Speech styles which are race, gender, or ethnic specific Skin color or facial features which are race, gender, or ethnic specific

Figure 2.2 Categorization of status cues

Reproduced from Berger, Webster, Ridgeway & Rosenholz (1986)

This is important because it may perpetuate a vicious cycle. Differences in socialization lead to behavioral differences that are viewed as more prestigious and powerful. More importantly, the norms on which we base our evaluations are our own. "Status applications are classifications of behaviors into differential evaluated types or states. Status applications are distinct conceptions of what high and low status behaviors are like, and are socially constructed" (Fisek, Berger & Norman, 1991, p. 118). An example of this would be the idea that men are logical and women are emotional.

Berger and his colleagues followed this theoretical formulation of Expectations States Theory while others reformulated and/or extended it. Hembroff (1982) asserts that actors combine (or balance under some conditions) characteristics as a function of their

collective tasks. Differences in weighting characteristics solve the problem of status inconsistency in interaction; the characteristic most appropriate to the task is more heavily weighted. For example, a woman in a heavily task-oriented situation might use a more direct, masculine communication style, which would be weighted more heavily than her sex, due to the nature of the situation. Similarly, a man might use a relationship-oriented approach when counseling an employee. In each case the style would be weighted more heavily than the sex of the leader. Hembroff (1982) points out that "weighting one status of an individual more than another is not original. Sociologists often assume, for instance, that one's occupational status takes on greater relevance in defining oneself than does one's religious affiliation" (p. 201).

Expectation states theory argues that a hierarchy develops based on interactions. Those with high status characteristics are more likely to offer goal-related suggestions within their local hierarchy because they are expected to do so. It is self-fulfilling that those with high status characteristics behave in ways in which they are expected to behave (Ridgeway, 1991). Once the expectation for high performance is formed, it is likely that others will positively evaluate and accept those suggestions. This is a problem for women in leadership positions because they have low status compared with men; women are not expected to perform as well (Fisek, Berger, & Moore, Jr., 2002). This could also be problematic for women in leadership due to the incongruous roles of female and leader.

Role Congruity Theory

Role congruity theory suggests that one's role or roles must be consistent with expectations of people within a particular social category (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Social

roles are socially shared expectations that apply to persons who occupy certain social positions or are members of particular social categories (Biddle, 1979; Sarbin & Allen, 1968). One such social category is gender: the meanings that societies and individuals ascribe to female and male categories (Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, & van Engen, 2003). Gender roles are consensual beliefs about the attributes of women and men. However, "These beliefs are more than beliefs about the attributes of women and men: many of these expectations are normative in the sense that they describe qualities or behavioral tendencies believed to be desirable for each sex" (Eagly, 1987, p. 13). In other words, the beliefs are prescriptive.

According to social role theory, normative attributes for women and men are communal and agentic, respectively (Bakan, 1966; Eagly, 1987). A concern for the welfare of others or communal characteristics is ascribed more strongly to women. These characteristics include being affectionate, helpful, kind, sympathetic, interpersonally sensitive, nurturant, and gentle. Aggressiveness, ambitiousness, dominance, forcefulness, independence, self-sufficiency, self-confidence, and proneness to act as a leader are examples of agentic characteristics. These assertive and controlling characteristics are more often associated with men. Learning these roles and expectations begins early in life. Young children learn differences in power and influence. Jones (1983) reports that between the ages of three and five, boys become increasingly likely to use direct influence attempts such as "give me that." Girls learn that they are less effective influencers than boys and retreat to indirect, polite styles. Girls who do not retreat to the accepted styles by age seven and continue to demonstrate dominance tend to be disliked and rejected (Jones, 1983). This could, in part, explain Terman's (1904) early findings

that males at every level in elementary school (grades two, four, six, and eight) exhibited significantly more leadership behaviors.

Expectations others have of males and females also help to perpetuate the differences into which we are socialized. People are expected to behave consistently with societal gender roles (Eagly, 1987) and these expectations can foster behavior in men and women consistent with the roles. Women in leadership roles use more communal behaviors, are more people-oriented and less autocratic (e.g., Cann & Siegfried, 1990; Chaganti, 1986). Men in leadership roles use more directive, structuring behaviors, and are more aggressive (e.g., Arkelin & Simmons, 1985; Cann & Siegfried, 1990). In interactions, people communicate their gender stereotypic expectations about how others should behave, which induces people to behave in ways consistent with those expectations (Wood & Karsten, 1986). This could lead to self-regulatory and expectancy confirmation processes that can induce gender differences in behavior (Olson, Roese & Zanna, 1996). When I was growing up, girls were not expected to be smart. Girls were expected to grow up, get married, and raise a family. They did not need to worry about math or science. In grade school and junior high school I was in advanced math and science classes. When I got to high school that changed; I started acting stupid and silly and being a girl.

A problem arises when a stereotyped group member and an incongruent social role become joined in the mind of the perceiver. The inconsistency of the stereotyped expectation for the group member and violation of the appropriate role lowers the evaluation of the group member as an actual or potential occupant of the role. Women who are effective leaders tend to violate gender standards by manifesting male-

stereotypical, agentic attributes. The failure to manifest female-stereotypical attributes may lead to an unfavorable evaluation based on their gender-role violation, at least by those who endorse traditional gender roles (Eagly & Karau, 2002). For those who endorse traditional gender roles, it is more important that a woman act in a feminine manner than as a leader. Role congruity of gender is more important than that of leadership.

People still harbor negative attitudes toward women in leadership or authority roles (Butler & Geis, 1990; Rudman & Kilianski, 1999). In a study of nonverbal indicators of affect toward males and females exerting leadership behavior, qualitative data suggest that female leaders received more negative and fewer positive nonverbal responses to displays of leadership than males (Butler & Geis, 1990). However, these same participants noted no differences in ratings of males and females on a paper and pencil measure rating their competencies. Similarly, Rudman and Kilianski (1999) concluded that both males and females had negative attitudes toward female authority figures and neutral attitudes toward male authority figures. A powerful woman seems to be a contradiction in terms (Dubno, 1985). This incompatibility between the female gender role and a leadership role may result in negative attitudes toward female managers. If she behaves like a woman, she is rejected as an unacceptable manager. If she acts in a leader role, she is condemned as unfeminine (Koonce, 1997). Like Koonce (1997) manager and leader are used interchangeably.

According to social role theory (Eagly, 1983; 1987; Eagly & Steffen, 1984) women and men are distributed differently into social roles, with men occupying

higher-status roles and women occupying lower-status roles. Status and power go hand in hand, and the reality is that in almost every domain outside the family, women still lag behind men (Rhode, 1990). Women suffer from diminished position power as well as from perceived powerlessness on the part of others. Schlueter, Barge and Blankenship (1990) found that male managers believed they had more power over subordinates than did female managers. This was determined using scales to measure the amount of power they believed they had in three areas: 1) assigning work, 2) disciplining, and 3) controlling the quality and pace work. This could be explained by differences in socialization: women are led to believe they have to be nice and men are taught to be more direct (Jones, 1983). It could also be explained by the fact that dominating or autocratic leadership behavior is less well-received from female than male leaders (Copeland, Driskell, & Salas, 1995; Korabik, Baril & Watson, 1993). Or it could have something to do with women in leadership positions being devalued more strongly, relative to their male counterparts, when leadership is carried out in a stereotypically masculine style; prejudice is more likely to occur when female leaders violate their gender role by using an agentic, masculine style (Eagly et. al., 1992). Harlan and Weiss (1982) found that male managers preferred male supervisors and that it was an "insult to their intelligence" to be supervised by a woman. Sex-role stereotypes of power and status could reduce a woman's credibility and impede her effectiveness.

Stereotyping

Stereotypes function as standards against which individual members of groups are judged (Biernat & Kobrynowicz, 1997; Biernat & Manis, 1994; Biernat, Manis, & Nelson, 1991) and, as previously noted, they serve as a quick guide to people.

Stereotypes are used every day by many people in relation to other people. Some examples include: doctors valuing life, lawyers being bottom-feeders, and ministers being kind, caring, and compassionate. Most have heard the expression "going postal," which negatively describes those who work for the postal service by implying that they are psychopaths. This is the problem with stereotypes—they generalize everyone within a group to have certain characteristics, which is not true. Not all postal workers are a threat; not all doctors who value life above all else; not all lawyers are in it for the money; and not all ministers are worthy of the trust placed in them. They seem innocuous. There are a plethora of jokes about blondes. Who does not at least think about them being stupid? There are also jokes about women talking incessantly, men not listening, and certain racial groups being lazy. We are surrounded by stereotypes and many laugh them off. However, stereotypes are dangerous. They are dangerous because they categorize people, and once categorized the identity is difficult to lose. Labeling theorists argue that people act in accordance with assigned labels (e.g., Lemert, 1967; Tannenbaum, 1938). Chen and Bargh (1997) suggest that the target person's behavior is a direct result of the stereotypes applied to him or her. Behaving in a stereotypically consistent manner confirms the stereotypic beliefs. It is obvious that stereotyping can have negative consequences. It can also lead to negative behaviors.

Gender and race stereotypes perpetuate unequal role distributions (Biernat & Kobrynowicz, 1997; Hoffman & Hurst, 1990) and these stereotypes based on outward, physical characteristics are difficult to overcome due to the nature of the characteristics that activate the stereotype in the first place (Blair, Judd, Sadler, & Jenkins, 2002). A study of Afrocentric facial features lends credence to the effect of physical characteristics

on inferences about a person (Blair, Chapleau, & Judd, 2004). Controlling for the aggressiveness of their behavior, targets with more Afrocentric facial features were judged as significantly more likely to behave aggressively than those with less Afrocentric features, suggesting that the more one looks as if she or he belongs to a particular group, the more likely she or he is to be stereotyped. Looking instead at sex characteristics, Hoffman and Hurst (1990) found that objective sex differences are not necessary for the formation of gender stereotypes; an unequal role distribution was sufficient evidence of appropriate social roles. These studies used fictitious races in which sex was not obvious based on physical characteristics and still the races were divided along gender lines. Those who held stereotypic feminine jobs or used stereotypic feminine behaviors were judged to be female and those who with masculine behaviors or jobs were thought to be male. This suggests that gender stereotypes are based on the idea that characteristics are intrinsic, category-wide and predispositions.

Stereotypes also serve the dominant group in several ways. First, they can be applied by the dominant group as a defense mechanism (Fein & Spencer, 1997). Threatened people are especially likely to apply negative stereotypes to others to boost their own self-worth (Fein & Spencer, 1997). In the presence of a negatively stereotyped individual, one may choose to self-enhance by establishing superiority to this person because the negative stereotype provides a handy means of doing so (Fein & Spencer, 1997). They also function as justification for the unequal distribution of resources (Vescio, Gervais, Snyder, & Hoover, 2005). Men are more likely to categorize others according to gender. In keeping with stereotypes of men and women, they allocate more valued resources to men and more praise to women. Recently, it has been suggested that

some of the physical features that serve as categorization cues may also directly lead to stereotypic inferences (Blair, Judd, Sadler, & Jenkins, 2002; Livingston & Brewer, 2002; Maddox & Gray, 2002; Sczesny & Kuhnen, 2004; Uhlmann, Dasgupta, Elgueta, Greenwald, & Swanson, 2002), which could in part explain the allocation of resources to men and praise to women.

Leadership Variables

Leadership styles are "relatively stable patterns of behavior displayed by leaders" (Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, & van Engen, 2003, p. 569). Leadership style is a broad, general umbrella that encompasses many different areas. Of interest here are those that examine differences between men and women, feminine and masculine leadership, subordinate satisfaction, perception of leaders and emerging leadership. It is difficult to separate the above areas of interest neatly and cleanly and some overlap is both evident and necessary.

Leadership and Sex

The Day and Stogdill (1972) study seems to be the logical starting place for a review of this literature. In it they used the *Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire, Form XII [LBDQ]* (Stogdill, Goode & Day, 1962) in combination with a 9-point "reputational" type scale to measure effectiveness of leaders. The *LBDQ* consists of 12 subscales on which subordinates rate their superiors and assesses levels of task-oriented and social-emotional leadership. Pairs of men and women were matched according to civil service level, education, kind of work (non-technical functions such as supply procurement and personnel), years of service, time in position and time in grade. They found no significant differences in the leadership styles employed by matched pairs of

males and females. Supervisors performing similar functions in parallel positions were found to behave similarly and to be equally effective. The only exception to this finding of similarity was that the longer men stayed in a grade, the more negatively their behavior was viewed; specifically, they were viewed as low in reconciliation of conflicting demands, accuracy of prediction, influence with superiors, and effectiveness. The reverse was true for women. Perhaps this was due to the expectation for men to move up and women not to move up or because men who did not get promoted did in fact behave more negatively.

Similarly, Chapman (1975) found that there were no significant differences in male and female leadership styles in either military or civilian organizations, measured with Fiedler's (1964) *Least-Preferred Co-Worker* (*LPC)*. The *LPC* is a semantic differential scale composed of 16 bipolar adjectives that measure the leader's perception of the least preferred co-worker. Fiedler's *LPC* Contingency model describes the relationship between *LPC* score and leadership style. According to the model, a high *LPC* leader is relationship-oriented and a low *LPC* leader is task-oriented (Yukl, 1998). A stratified random sample was used to ensure that participants had similar job responsibilities and formal authority. Although Chapman (1975) found no significant difference in leadership styles of males and females, he did find that a female's leadership style becomes more task-oriented with an increasing number of male subordinates. This could be explained by differences in needs of male and female subordinates or expectations of male and female subordinates based on socialization. Chapman and Luthans (1975) also determined in a review of leadership literature that no differences exist in female and male leadership styles, however, while styles are not

different, behaviors are (Chapman,1975; Chapman & Luthans, 1975). Women tend to exhibit more relationship-oriented behaviors, but there is no evidence of a need for fostering interpersonal relationships (Chapman, 1975).

There is also evidence to support this non-difference in non-verbal behaviors and sex. Denmark (1977) found that males or females behaving in certain ways were perceived in high-status or leadership positions. These findings supported the position that differences were not attributed to sex, as did a study of communicative behaviors of male and female managers (Birdsall, 1980). Bank managers, perceiving themselves to be masculine according to the *BSRI* regardless of sex, performed consistently using one basic communication style—direct (Birdsall, 1980). This was not the first study in which women managers described themselves in masculine terms (Schein, 1975), however, it was the first study found in this literature to use the *BSRI* to differentiate between masculine and feminine.

Male and female managers also rate themselves similarly on performance and style. In a study of first-level managers and supervisors, males and females in similar positions are more similar than different (Deaux, 1979). However, males did view themselves as performing better than females and also rated themselves as being more intelligent and having more ability. Men also saw themselves as being the reason for success; their success was due to their ability. Women took less credit for their success and perceived it as due to external factors. This difference in locus of control also contributes to the styles used by men and women (Eagly & Karau, 1991). Men focus more on controlling their environment and achieving outcomes. Women engage more in

socially oriented aspects of interaction and are concerned with others' feelings and group harmony.

Perception of leaders also plays a tremendous role in the success or failure of women in leadership positions. In a survey of female and male management styles in a large British/Australian insurance company, it was found that women were not taken as seriously by some males (Vinnicombe & Singh, 2002). This was in spite of the fact that formal guidelines had been put in place; however, the implementation of those guidelines was left up to line managers. These guidelines, which seemed to include special initiatives for women managers led some to resent the women more. The perception by subordinates of women in leadership was also negative when women were intellectually assertive (Butler & Geis, 1990). It appears that simply offering a substantive contribution is enough to elicit others' displeasure. There is definitely a sex bias in attributing personality traits: women who are appear warm and sensitive are more favorably evaluated, while men are more favorably evaluated when they appear intelligent and skilled.

A biological difference that factors into leadership is physical size because it too impacts perception. Physical appearance puts most, but not all, women at a disadvantage. In general, men are larger than women and therefore receive high power ratings based on their size (Payne, 2001). Molloy (1977) suggested that women wearing a "Success Suit" would be taken more seriously and be more successful; even then there is no guarantee that women can compete with men (Payne, 2001). Keeping in mind that we make assumptions about people by the categories we place them in, it is logical to assume that

subordinates also make inferences about leaders based on outward, physical characteristics.

Overall, it seems that females and males in leadership positions are more similar than different. There are a few exception noted previously, but nothing that suggests women should not be in positions of leadership. One interesting difference is that women do not do well in stereotypically masculine organizations and men do not do well in stereotypically feminine organizations (Eagly, Karau, & Makhijani, 1995), which segues nicely into the question of leadership and gender.

Leadership and Gender

Although sex and gender are used interchangeably in much of the literature, as well as in common everyday practice, they are not the same thing. Sex is biological; gender is not. Gender is socially constructed; it is the meanings that societies and individuals ascribe to female and male categories (Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, & van Engen, 2003). Sex-role stereotyped behaviors, such as females being passive, dependent, accommodative, and intuitive and males being aggressive, authoritarian, and dominant (Chapman, 1975; Schein, 1975) were central to the early leadership research. While the idea that either sex could display characteristics of either gender was new and not widely accepted, the relatively few women who made it into management positions were women who typically displayed masculine sex-role traits (Schein, 1975). Denmark (1975, p. 101) noted that "stereotypic male characteristics are perceived as a basis for success in management." It was clear in the early years of women in management that managers were masculine, leaving two possibilities, either women adapted to become managers or

those who became leaders were women naturally predisposed to behave in a masculine rather than feminine way, possibly due to being socialized differently.

Feminine leadership is an elusive concept; much like Justice Stewart's assertion that "he would know it when he saw it," feminine leadership can be recognized by the traits used to describe it. In virtually all the research, feminine leaders are people- and relationship-oriented. Basically, feminine leaders are not driven by the bottom line. Studies have demonstrated that females display more transformational leadership behavior (e.g., individual consideration) than males, which according to transformational leadership theory promotes higher performance in followers (Bass, Avolio & Atwater, 1996). A meta-analysis of studies from 1961-1987 found that styles were somewhat gender-stereotypic in laboratory experiments with student participants and in assessment studies with samples of employees. Women tended to manifest more interpersonally-oriented and democratic styles and men tended to manifest more autocratic and task-oriented styles (Eagly & Johnson, 1990).

However, feminine is not necessarily female and masculine is not necessarily male. It was not until well into the 1980s that the concept of a feminine leadership style was addressed. Researchers have since found that certain traits are considered feminine, others are considered masculine, and still others are neutral (Bem, 1974). A review of the literature produces a laundry list of traits researchers have identified as linked with feminine leadership. This list includes the following: being emotional, passive, submissive, intuitive, nurturing, indecisive, sensitive to the needs of others, sympathetic, compassionate, loyal, people-oriented, less autocratic, familial, supportive, respectful of subordinates, understanding, relationship-focused, expressive, attentive to nonverbal

behavior, accommodating, mediating, interested in developing others, considerate, communal, excitable, gentle, sentimental, sensitive, dependent, caring, cooperative, inclusive, informative and transformational (Aldoory, 1998; Arkkelin & Simmons, 1985; Buzzanell, Ellingson, Silvio, Pasch, Dale, Mauro, Smith, Weir, & Martin, 1997; Cann & Siegfried, 1990; Chaganti, 1986; Korabik & Ayman, 1989; Ronk, 1993; Rosener, 1990; Sargent & Stupak, 1989; Whitt, 1994). As with feminine leadership, there are traits and characteristics associated with masculine leadership, which include the following: aggressive, active, authoritarian, dominant, competitive, assertive, makes decisions easily, directive, structuring role, task-oriented, strong instrumental skills, logical, organized, direct, dominating, independent, a direct achievement style, reverence for rational, analytical problem solving, valuing of verbal behavior, competitive strategic approach, structuring behaviors-directive, decisiveness, boldness, control, transactional , autocratic and directive (Aldoory, 1998; Arkkelin & Simmons, 1985; Cann & Siegfried, 1987, 1990; Chapman, 1975; Chapman & Luthans, 1975; Denmark, 1977; Eagly, Karau, & Makhijani, 1995; Korabik & Ayman, 1989; Ronk, 1993; Sargent & Stupak, 1989).

As noted above, researchers list traits or characteristics of feminine leadership, but most do not define it. There are some exceptions including: "finding new and better ways of doing things, inspiring staff to achieve higher goals and being open about unpleasant facts" (Smith, 1997 p. 110), and

> Co-operative/collaborating operating approach, team spirit in organisational structure and intuitive/rational/creative approach in problem solving—in carrying out important managerial functions including the use of power, managing human relationships, problem-solving, conflict management, motivation of employees,

goal-setting, decision-making, and teamwork. In addition, this management style possesses certain psychological characteristics eg. desire for less control, concern for people, skill in managing human relationships and employee satisfaction instead of financial gains as evidence of managerial effectiveness. (Sharma, 1990, p. 16)

Masculine leadership is similarly lacking in definitions, however, again Sharma has provided the most comprehensive definition:

> The concept of competition being at the heart of masculinism in corporations resembles and is shaped by the values, goals, and even the hierarchical structure of the military. Its key characteristics are high control, competitive, strategic, unemotional, and analytic approach; rational problem solving; emphasis on winning; and managerial effectiveness in terms of financial gains instead of employee satisfaction" (1990, p. 17).

Based on the characteristics found by researchers and the above definitions it is reasonable to assume that feminine leadership is democratic and feminine leaders are relationship-oriented, while masculine leadership is autocratic and masculine leaders are task-oriented.

Masculine or Feminine

Studies using the *BSRI* as a measure in determining the relationship between sex-role identity and management found that there were no significant differences between men and women in leadership positions; however, both sexes had a masculine sex-role identity (Powell & Butterfield, 1979; Powell, Butterfield, & Mainiero, 1981). Although a sex role is defined as "the psychological traits and the social responsibilities that

individuals have and feel are appropriate for them because they are male or female" (Pleck, 1977, p. 182), those in leadership positions, regardless of sex, identified with a masculine sex-role. Two other studies found the opposite to be true: masculine individuals and feminine individuals differ significantly (Korabik, 1982; Weider-Hatfield, 1987). One study used the *LBDQ* (Stogdill, Goode & Day, 1962)) in combination with the *BSRI* and found that sex-role orientation, not sex, was a predictor of leadership style with an initiating structure of leadership significantly related to masculinity and a consideration style significantly related to femininity (Korabik, 1982). The other study combined *Wheeless and Dierke-Stewart's* (1981) 20-item revision of the *BSRI* and Neer and Hudson's (1981) 63-item *Communication Role Inventory (CRI).* In combination the two measure roles people perform in small group and social settings, their preferences for certain roles, and their perception with their overall performance and their psychological gender. The study found that masculine individuals reported using significantly more controlling behaviors with a preference for "supervision over" and feminine individuals reported using significantly more nurturing behaviors with a higher "work with" preference (Weider-Hatfield, 1987).

> Gender as a social category matters. There is extensive evidence to suggest that gender is a crucial component of people's social world; many people really do find it essential to be able to pigeonhole others into the normative, binary set of female-male, and they find linguistic or social behaviors that threaten the apparent stability of this "essential" distinction extremely disturbing. Thus, they censure women (overtly or indirectly) for behavior that is a typically associated with Males [sic], they beat up transvestites, they pathologize or murder homosexuals.

(Holmes & Meyerhoff, 2003, p.9)

Perhaps a definitive feminine style did not emerge in the early research because women had been socialized to believe management was masculine and that to succeed they needed to emulate men. Schein (1975) suggested that women may have adapted and accepted stereotypically masculine characteristics to succeed in management, as did Birdsall (1980). More recently it has been found that feminine leaders no longer accept that they must adapt (Coppolino & Seath, 1987; Grant, 1988) and clearly identify ways in which they differ from their masculine counterparts. Grant argues that the "human resource" skills women bring to organizations are necessary to help "stop the tide of alienation, apathy, cynicism, and low morale in organizations" (1988, p. 62).

Gendered Behaviors

Feminine individuals are more relationship-oriented and their decision-making processes reflect this. In a survey of 131 feminine leaders, most felt that they were guided by the situation, but overwhelmingly preferred to work in a participative and consensus mode (Coppolino & Seath, 1987). This was true in social groups (Buzzanell et al., 1997) as well as in work groups (Sharma, 1990; Whitt, 1994). Feminine individuals are generally more democratic than the traditional autocratic masculine leader (Chaganti, 1986; Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Eagly, Karau, & Makhijani, 1995; Ronk, 1993; Sharma, 1990; Sloan & Krone, 2000); they are therefore more inclined to ask for input and seek additional information whenever possible, but are willing and able to make decisions on their own when necessary.

This preference for openness and involving others does not mean that they cannot be autocratic; they can be and are autocratic when necessary (Chaganti, 1986). Feminine

leaders are inclined to be task-oriented when the situation warrants it—to meet an approaching deadline or to get something done quickly. However, women in positions of power do not view it the same way. Fine et. al. (1991) also noted that the male definition of power—something one person has over another, is much more violent than the female definition—that power is internal and intellectual. Statham (1987) found that males in supervisory roles focused more on themselves and emphasized the power they had while women focused on the task to be done and the people working for them, interacting with others a great deal. Males felt that the ideal way to manage was to keep their distance from subordinates (Statham, 1987). Men and women also appeared to use different criteria in making judgments about people (Fine et. al., 1991). The items that student participants found important in judging managerial communication were similar, however results suggested that women and men organized and gave meaning to their experiences differently. Both sexes apparently believed that the interpersonal dimension was most important in judging managers.

Most feminine leaders included sharing information as necessary to their success (Aldoory, 1998; Buzzanell et al., 1997; Ronk, 1993; Sloan & Krone, 2000; Whitt, 1994). Rosener (1990, p.121) describes the "bridge club" as an example of sharing information. The club is an informal gathering of people who have information the leader needs, but over whom she has no direct control. Attendance is voluntary and still people attend because 'they know their contributions are valued, and they appreciate the chance to exchange information across functional boundaries in an informal setting that's fun.'"

Similarly, feminine leaders are also more inclined to empower others and allow them to make their own decisions (Smith, 1997; Whitt, 1994) as evidenced by the following:

> The philosophy here is that what each of us has to say is important and everyone in the community is involved in decision-making. So you get the sense that what you do matters. We consider ourselves to be a community, not an institution. We do not observe strict hierarchical lines; we put together the best minds for the problem at hand. We make decisions the way you would for a family. We care about people and use that as a frame of reference. And we have no organizational chart (Whitt, 1994).

These feminine leaders are concerned with making good decisions when it affects the community. Others recognize that just because they are the leaders, does not necessarily mean that they know everything (Buzzanell et. al., 1997). A term borrowed from Rosener (1990) is appropriate to describe how feminine individuals lead. Much like dramaturgical leadership, explained by Buzzanell et al. (1997), interactive leadership knows when to step back and let go of some of the power. This is how feminine leaders get the best out of subordinates. Overwhelmingly, feminine leaders share the feeling that employees are people and as such they deserve respect and consideration (Arkkelin & Simmons, 1985; Chaganti, 1986; Korabik & Ayman, 1989; Rosener, 1990; Sharma, 1990). As might be expected from feminine, relationship-oriented leaders their own experiences with supervisors play an important role in how they perceive and use power.

Two sets of gendered values are related to power: Open-Closed and Support-Intimidation (Sloan & Krone, 2000). Being open is a characteristic of feminine leadership

operating from traditional feminine values as opposed to the traditional masculine closed style. Feminine leaders recognize that others, including subordinates, can contribute in meaningful ways. A willingness to admit that someone else may have more expertise in a certain area or be more capable with a particular task is critical to feminine leadership. Feminine leaders can and do step back and relinquish power as necessary (Buzzanell et al., 1997). Typical of feminine leaders' perspective on power are these comments made by feminine managers, "No one's better than anyone else. [We] just have different jobs" and as a rejection of masculine power, "I never want to be . . . like them" (Sloan & Krone, 2000, pps. 117 & 120).

Being supportive is also typical of feminine leaders. Many have experienced management through fear and intimidation and do not agree that it is the way to get results. Several of the feminine leaders described their relationships as "family" and one very supportive leader refers to her staff as her "twenty-three children" (Chaganti, 1986, p. 28). Other ways in which feminine leaders support subordinates are to "celebrate and honor them," to encourage them, to be flexible and understanding, and to respect them (Sloan & Krone, 2000, p. 118). In a study of women managers who confirmed their style as feminine, one manager pointed out that her employees stayed with her "not because of the money but because they like the personalized approach" (Chaganti, 1986, p. 29). This would seem to be consistent with a finding of subordinates' preference for a feminine style of consideration because it creates a more supportive work climate (Cann & Siegfried, 1987).

Perception of Leaders

Several studies have undertaken the task of determining the perception of leadership based on sex. Findings of the studies are contradictory, with some finding no differences based on sex (Brown, 1979; Donnell & Hall, 1980; Eagly, Karau, & Makhijani, 1995) and others finding definite differences: "Female leaders were perceived by subordinates as effective when displaying masculine characteristics, while they were not seen as effective when they displayed feminine characteristics" (Hackman, Hills, Paterson, & Furniss, 1992, p. 673). Inderlied and Powell (1979) noted that it may not be necessary for women to adopt stereotypically masculine behaviors to be perceived as successful leaders; however, they might need to rely on them to get their foot in the door since the stereotype of masculine/male as manager still pervades.

Studies have also found that a leader's effectiveness is dependent on the evaluator. In a study of student perceptions of gender in managerial communication the critical difference was found to be the sex of the subordinate (Fine, Johnson, & Foss, 1991). The women rated female managers of male subordinates as more powerful and intelligent than male managers of female subordinates. Women in this study, despite protests to the contrary, have internalized sex-role stereotypes leading to the evaluation of women being more intelligent and powerful when they lead men. Women also evaluated anyone who managed men as more assertive than men who managed women. Men in the study rated male managers as more masculine than female managers, with the difference occurring between the female-to-female and male-to-female versions of the case.

Similarly, in a study of CEOs, feminine raters (male and female) believed that males and females in leadership positions did not differ with qualities traditionally

ascribed to leadership (Dennis, Kunkel & Dennis, 2004). The only difference noted was that feminine individuals rated women as more concerned about others. However, it seems that while subordinates preferred a feminine style in their leaders, the opposite was true of the leaders' superiors (Cann & Siegfried, 1987). Data support the idea that upper management perceives stereotypically masculine behaviors to be more effective (Knott & Natalle, 1997). This may, in part, also explain why male mangers and their supervisors report that they have a better relationship than female managers and their supervisors report (Deaux, 1979). Female managers relate better on a relationship-oriented level, which is not the way upper management typically behaves. It could also be due to the gender of the evaluator. It would be safe to assume that masculine men are the ones sitting at the tops of most organizations. Masculine men would most likely prefer other masculine people—male or female.

While effectiveness is viewed differently depending on perspective, it is also important to note that other factors such as situation and organizational context influence perceived effectiveness (Eagly, Karau, & Makhijani, 1995). Holmes and Stubbe (2003) examined the management style of two women in contrastingly "gendered" workplaces—a government department and a soap factory—and found that while both women used relational strategies in their interactions (as well as more assertive and directive strategies where appropriate), there were noticeable differences in their preferred interaction styles. In the soap factory, the more "feminine" of the two, there was "a marked orientation towards collaborative styles and processes of interaction, together with a high level of attention to the interpersonal dimension" and a preference by the manager for "less direct, more linguistically polite strategies to achieve her goals in a

consensual way" (Holmes & Stubbe, 2003, 587–88). In other words, the manager in the soap factory used a more feminine style of leadership; she interacted with others, collaborated to achieve her goals, and was polite.

Emergent Leadership

Studies reporting on the emergence of leaders disagree about the effect of biological sex on leader emergence. It was found to be unrelated to leader emergence in some studies (Goktepe & Schneier, 1989; Kent & Moss, 1994; Kolb, 1997; Moss & Kent, 1996), but related in others (Porter, Geis, & Walstedt, 1983; Riggio, Riggio, Salinas, & Cole, 2003). One possibility for men emerging as leaders more often is that groups tend to be task-oriented and men are perceived as task-oriented (Eagly & Karau, 1991; Gurman & Long, 1992b). Research on gender differences in leader emergence suggests that men are more likely to emerge as leaders than women, particularly in short-term groups and situations where the tasks may be perceived as masculine (Eagly & Karau, 1981). This could be due to men being perceived as more task-oriented or to men having higher perceived status in leadership.

Although gender role is more of a predictor of leader emergence (Goktepe & Schneier, 1989; Kent & Moss, 1994; Moss & Kent, 1996), gender-role expectations for men and women continue to be different. Men typically are expected to be more assertive and competent, and women are expected to be friendlier and more concerned with others (Eagly & Karau, 1991). Based on these expectations, men would tend to be more task-oriented and women to be more relationship-oriented. It then follows that men would naturally emerge as group leaders because initially groups are concerned with tasks rather than relationships. It is also conceivable that society continues to view men more often as

masculine and stereotypically masculine characteristics are beneficial to leader emergence (Lewis & Fagenson, 1998).

This possibility was given credence by a study designed to determine if sex-role stereotyping and "head-of-the-table" effect were more important factors in identification of the group leader. Eight slides of different combinations of group members shown to a sample of 448 students confirmed the expectation that men would be viewed as the leader based on their sex alone. The head-of-the-table effect consistently dictated leader choice in same-sex groups and mixed-sex groups with a man at the head of the table. However, the head-of-the-table effect disappeared in mixed-sex groups with a woman at the head of the table (Porter, Geis, & Walstedt, 1983). Even when females outnumbered males significantly (three to one), it was immediately apparent that there was a gender bias in whom the groups chose as leaders (Riggio, Riggio, Salinas, & Cole, 2003). The gender bias was evident in that the traditional view of the "leadership role" leading to males chosen disproportionately more often as group leaders; 19 males and 20 females were chosen as leaders.

Exceptions to males emerging as leaders more frequently were noted. If the task is feminine in orientation the probability that a woman will emerge as a leader is greater (Eagly & Karau, 1991; Wentworth & Anderson, 1984). For example, two people decide to get married and the families are meeting to discuss the details. When the talk is about money, it is likely that the leader of this group would be male, perhaps one of the fathers. However, when the discussion turns to wedding cakes, locations, and invitations, it is much more likely that the leader at this point would be female. Likewise, if a woman is perceived to have expertise with a task—planning a wedding—other group members may

perceive her as a leader (Bunyi & Andrews, 1985; Eagly & Karau, 1991; Wentworth & Anderson, 1984). Also, if a group is long-term rather than short-term or if it requires complex social interaction, the possibility of a woman emerging as a leader increases (Eagly & Karau, 1991). This could be due to the notion that women are more relationship-oriented and consensus builders (e.g., Buzzanell, 1995).

Although masculine and androgynous females are likely to emerge as leaders, feminine females are not. In fact, with the exception of all-female groups, femininity was found to be negatively related to all measures of leader emergence (Moss & Kent, 1996). Perhaps in all-female groups, the absence of men eliminates the possibility of masculinity being a dominating factor (Gurman & Long, 1992) allowing women to embrace and accept their differences (i.e., femininity). Another possibility is that women in same-sex groups are free of the expectation to defer to men and can then view their femininity as a positive attribute (Gurman & Long, 1992).

Leadership and Satisfaction

There is evidence to suggest that subordinate satisfaction and leadership style are related. In a study of head nurses, the relationship between leadership style of the head nurse and nurses' reactions to their work was examined (Boumans & Landeweerd, 1993). The analyses suggest that social leadership contributes to satisfaction and experienced meaningfulness in the reduction of health complaints, while instrumental leadership leads to more health complaints. Head nurses who scored higher on social leadership on average scored higher on subordinate satisfaction. If the head of a unit had a low score on the instrumental dimension, it did not impact the degree of satisfaction of the nurses whether she/he combined this with high or low social leadership. The tendency exists for

the combination of high social/high instrumental leadership to result in the least health complaints. In short, nurses in this study were most satisfied with a supervisor who paid attention to both the social and the instrumental aspects of leadership

In a study of public service, similar findings were noted. There was a strong significant correlation between subordinate ratings of supervisors and the *JDI Satisfaction with Supervisor* subscale. (Riggio, Riggio, Salinas, & Cole, 2003). In examining the role that social and emotional communication skills play in rating leadership performance of work-group supervisors, they found statistically significant, yet "modest support" for the general assertion that supervisor communication/social skills play a role in determining successful supervisor performance and subordinate satisfaction with that supervision. However, this was only true of upper-level supervisors (chiefs), not for line supervisors (captains). It seems that the further up the ladder one moves in fire departments, the more important it is to use a more feminine style.

Although it has been noted that at the top of stereotypically masculine fire departments a feminine style is more consistent with subordinate satisfaction, it has also been noted that in lower levels a less social approach contributes more to subordinate satisfaction. This suggests, as noted by others, that a feminine style may not work well in typically masculine organizations (Deaux, 1979; Eagly, Karau, & Makhijani, 1995). Lower levels in this organization and perhaps other masculine organizations may prefer a more congruent direct, masculine approach to leadership. Other limitations mentioned by feminine leaders are their unwillingness to instruct subordinates as to what to do or how to do it and having problems giving negative feedback (Korabik & Ayman, 1989), which could be due to a concern for others' feelings. Feminine leadership is also time-

consuming. It requires patience and understanding. Encouraging someone else or involving others in a process is much more difficult than deciding to do something and doing it (Sloan & Krone, 2000).

Communication Variables

Communication is "a systemic process in which individuals interact with and through symbols to create and interpret meaning" (Wood, 2004, p. 9). This section is concerned with that process. Specifically, communication competence and communication styles are reviewed.

Communication Competence

Communication competence has been variously defined as being situational, culturally-bound, rules-driven, and outcome-focused (e.g., Cooley & Roach, 1984; Hymes, 1974; Larson, Backlund, Redmond, & Barbour, 1978; Sptizberg & Cupach, 1984). Multiple schools of thought on what makes a person communicatively competent have emerged as communication competence has evolved from a linguistic approach to a skills or behaviors approach. Early on Chomsky (1965) separated communication competence from performance; he noted that it was the speaker's/hearer's knowledge of his or her language that made one communicatively competent. For example, people in different parts of the United States use words and/or pronunciation differently. In the Northeast it is common to hear ax in place of ask (let me ask you something.). Similarly, in the Southeast it is common to use ideal rather than idea (I have an ideal for the next meeting). To outsiders, this misuse of language could lead to the conclusion that the speaker is incompetent. This was actually message-focused and more about linguistic competence.

Hymes (1974) approached communication competence differently. He viewed it as learning the rules of speaking—when and when not to speak—enmeshed with attitudes and motivations concerning language. Communication competence was not only about having the ability to speak, but also the knowledge of when to speak. This leads to the idea of situational appropriateness, which is fundamental (Larson, Backlund, Redmond, & Barbour, 1978). Allen and Brown (1976) pointed out in their discussion of teaching the skills to children that it was more than just situational; there were actually four factors involved in communication competence: 1) it was dependent on an available repertoire of experiences, 2) choices were made from this repertoire, 3) it was demonstrated by appropriate use, and 4) it was objectively evaluated. Taking this line of reasoning another step further, Cooley and Roach (1984) suggested that communication competence was culturally bound and included a general knowledge of appropriate situational use and ability to do so, specific individual physiological and psychological abilities, and social/cultural knowledge. For example, each class is a different experience for students. Some professors expect students to raise their hands; others invite students to call out answers. Students who have had a class with a particular professor in the past have situational knowledge of appropriate classroom behavior based on the social/cultural knowledge he or she has of previous experiences.

Another school of thought about communication competence suggests that it is outcome-focused. With this in mind, Wiemann (1977) created the *Communicative Competence Scale* (*CCS*). This measure has five dimensions of interpersonal competence (general competence, empathy, affiliation/support, behavioral flexibility, and social relaxation) and is based on the notion that communication competence is being able to

accomplish one's own goals and maintain the face of another (Wiemann & Backlund, 1980). It is the ability to adapt to the environment over time and to achieve goals (Spitzberg & Cupach, 1984). Achievement of desired outcomes is central and knowing and performing a socially-prescribed behavior is the key. A considerable body of research has grown from this school of thought.

Effective communication on the part of a communicator requires training and mastering specific knowledge, but for the perceiver to deem the communicator as competent may largely be shaped by the traits or behaviors a person uses during communication interaction. Conger and Farrell (1981) found that subjects' talk time and gaze are negatively related to ratings of social skills, while smiles and gestures are positively related. People who monopolized conversations were rated poorly on social skills, as were those who did not make eye-contact. In fact, a sustained gaze was one of the task cues that others attributed to competent people in groups (Ridgeway, 1987). Similarly, the more stereotypically masculine behavior of dogmatism is negatively related to communication competence (Cupach & Spitzberg, 1983).

There is also evidence that empathy and communication competence are related (Spitzberg, 1983), if not the same thing. In fact, Redmond (1985) suggested that communication competence and empathy are composed of the same set of skills or behaviors. People who are capable of putting themselves in another's place would likely be judged more competent because they would be better able to relate. Similarly, listening is also an important component of a communicatively competent person. In a study asking participants to describe a communicatively competent person, listening-related attributes were included in written descriptions (Haas & Arnold, 1995). This is

interesting because it seems to be relationship-focused, hence feminine. Even more interesting is that there was an interaction effect observed between sex and position—female managers and male subordinates described communicatively competent managers with listening attributes more than did male managers or female subordinates (Haas & Arnold, 1995). Two explanations are offered: 1) the difference could be due to the value seen in being able to influence the manager or 2) females occupying positions with little opportunity for advancement making other attributes more important. It makes sense that one would want to influence one's superior; having the manager's ear may allow one to be in a position to take advantage of opportunities for advancement and/or desirable assignments. It also makes sense that someone in a powerless position, with little or no chance for advancement, might be interested in just getting the job done. It will not matter if the boss listens, as long as the boss tells subordinates what they need to know to do the job.

Clearly, communication competence is something a leader must work at; it does not just happen. A leader may consider himself or herself competent, but it is more important that subordinates perceive him or her as competent. It is the leader's job to be sure followers perceive him or her as competent and therefore worthy of following. A competent leader must not only know and know how, she or he must do and know why she or he did (Parks, 1994). If one does not know these things, how can she or he expect anyone to follow?

Communication Styles

Much has been written about the differences in communication styles (see e.g., Baird & Bradley, 1979; Bradac & Mulac, 1984; Bradley, 1981; Lakoff, 1975). Men use a

more assertive style while women use a tentative one. The assertive style has been said to be masculine and the tentative style feminine. Men communicate with greater volume, lower pitch, and greater inflection, which give power and passion to their ideas (Eakins & Eakins, 1978; Payne, 2001). Women, on the other hand, do not speak as loudly, have higher pitched voices, and are hesitant, which communicates weakness rather than strength. They often sound powerless due to frequent use of hedges, qualifiers, and tag questions (Mulac, Lundell, & Bradac, 1986).

Mulac, Bradac and Gibbons (2001) found that the use of language contributes to two distinct subcultures. They suggest that masculine and feminine subcultures result from different uses of the same language. Although boys and girls learn the same language, they learn to use that language differently. The masculine style is more direct, succinct, and instrumental as opposed to the indirect, elaborate, and affective feminine style. Direct features include judgmental adjectives (e.g., "good" and "dumb") and directives (e.g., "write that down"). Direct features tell others that one is task-oriented. They are a no-nonsense way to get right to the point. They would be appropriate in situations that require directness and immediate action such as a medical emergency, a fire, or meeting a deadline. Indirect features include uncertainty verbs (e.g., "it seems to be…"), oppositions (e.g., "it's peaceful, yet full of movement"), negations (e.g., "it's not a…"), and questions (e.g., "what's that?"). They give others the impression that one is unsure or non-committal. These would be appropriately used when a relationship with another person or people is more important than a task. A teacher might use an indirect feature to help students to understand; a director might use an indirect feature to communicate his or her interpretation of the writer's message.

In addition to indirect forms, females use other language features differently including the following. **Hesitations** are words or phrases used before a sentence to give the speaker time to gather her thoughts. Examples of hedges are: well, um, uh, ah, and you know (Well, um, I don't know). **Hedges** allow the speaker to avoid commitments and reduce the force of an assertion, as if the speaker is cushioning the force of her words. Some often used hedges are kind of, I think, sort of, and a little (I sort of think it is a good idea). **Intensifiers** do precisely what the name implies—they intensify what follows them. Common intensifiers are so, very, definitely, surely, very definitely, and such a (He is so cute!). **Polite forms** are appropriate in many situations. However, when used improperly they convey weakness or subservience. Conversely, their absence suggests strength and authority. They include please, thank you, and sir (Thank you for the advice, sir. If you can think of anything else that may be of use, please mention it. I appreciate any help you can give me, sir).

Tag Questions, to use Lakoff's (1975) definition are midway between an outright statement and a yes-no question; it is less assertive than the former, but more confident than the latter. They give the impression that the speaker is unsure of himself or looking to others for confirmation. Commonly used tag questions are do we, wasn't it, is it, was it, or any other two-word questions placed at the end of a sentence. **Disclaimers** are qualifying phrases that neutralize a statement and make it less assertive, as well as negating a speaker's credibility by expressing uncertainty. They are "introductory expressions that excuse, explain, or request understanding or forbearance" (Eakins & Eakins, 1978, p. 45). Examples include, but are not limited to, "I hope this is what you are looking for," "I'm no expert, but," and "I could be way off base here."

Studies of tentative versus assertive speech styles found mixed results. In some studies there were no difference noted between women and men who used a powerless speech style (see e.g., Bradac & Mulac, 1984; Erickson, Lind, Johnson, & O'Barr, 1978). Others found that there were indeed differences in the perception of women and men based on speech style, with men being rated more positively (Bradley, 1981). Both women and men judged women who spoke more tentatively as less competent and knowledgeable than women who spoke more assertively; there were no effects for judgments of male speakers. However, men were more influenced by women who spoke tentatively, but women found them to be less effective (Carli, 1990).

Another interpretation of women's tentative communication style is that it is inclusive and affiliative rather than powerless. Tentative communication may be a way of establishing a non-threatening environment (Payne, 2001). Men and women both use tag questions (e.g., It's a beautiful day, isn't it?) depending on the circumstances. In a situation where a new manager is taking over, tag questions might be useful in giving the impression that the manager is not autocratic. For example, "We need to market to a different audience, don't we?" would be less threatening than "We are going to market to a different audience." Also, tag questions and hedges (i.e., kind of, I think, sort of, a little) can be used strategically to give the speaker power, again depending on the context (Crawford, 1995). In this meeting, someone who has been part of the team for a long time could offer an opinion on the subject "Marketing to a different audience is kind of a good idea, but we're probably jumping the gun. I think, instead, we should continue what we are doing while testing other options." By saying "kind of a good idea" this person is acknowledging the possibility that it is a good idea, therefore not discounting it

completely, while at the same time offering alternatives. More women than men adopt a feminine style, but, more importantly, the men who do adopt a feminine style are more likely to emphasize consensus and systems concerns than they are to adopt a controlling masculine type (Whicker & Jewell, 1998). This shift is significant because men are already preferred due to their presumed power (Riggio, Riggio, Salinas, & Cole, 2003); couple that with a relationship-oriented feminine style and women have a tough time competing. Feminine communication is egalitarian; it is less about maintaining a power structure and more about building relationships. Although much of the literature uses the terms male and female or man and woman, it is not such a big leap of faith here to use feminine and masculine. Crawford argues that if women needed to be taught assertiveness, men needed to be taught to counter socialized aggressiveness and insensitivity (1995, p. 51). Although the preferences between masculine and feminine styles are changing, the "core beliefs in the instrumental and agentic qualities of men and the emotional and communal attributes of women persist (Deaux & Kite, 1993, p. 127).

In studies using psychology students, leaders emerged on the basis of who talked more; extroverts were perceived as leaders more often (Riggio, et. al., 2003). In these studies, leaders who were better, more skilled communicators were rated as more effective leaders by both the leaders' group members and third-party observers (Riggio et. al., 2003). This was more pronounced in the discussion-based desert-survival task than it was in the hands-on pencil holder assembly task because the survival task required discussion; more communication was necessary in the survival task.

It seems strange that males talking more, regardless of quality of talk would be perceived as more competent than females. Talk is important to feminine leadership; it is

the foundation for the gendered nature of relational practice in the workplace (Holmes & Marra, 2004). Holmes and Marra note that small talk and social talk at work serve the function of establishing and nurturing workplace relationships and they point out that the label "small talk" itself explicitly signals the perceived status of this type of talk as trivial and irrelevant to serious workplace business. Perhaps this confidence, or lack thereof, manifests itself in the way females lead. Female managers tend to use more disguised requests and find subtle rather than direct ways to tell subordinates what to do (Schlueter, Barge & Blankenship, 1990).

Similar to small talk, compliments and praise are associated with women's talk. Evidence supports the notion that in many contexts women do provide more positive comments than men (e.g., Herbert, 1990; Holmes, 1988; Johnson & Roen, 1992). Women also use more verbal reinforcers, and this has frequently been shown to have a significant effect upon the favorableness of the attitudes expressed (Hargie & Dickson, 1991). Nonverbal reinforcers, such as nodding and smiling, also have an effect; they have been documented as positive components of affiliation and empathy dimensions of communication competence (Mehrabian, 1972; Weimann & Knapp, 1975; Weimann, 1977). These differences speak to the relational-focus of feminine communication.

In addition to verbal differences between feminine and masculine communication, nonverbal differences exist. Some of these differences have more to do with socialization of the sexes than actual physical differences. Women have been socialized to display friendliness and approachability, to be more relationship oriented (Payne, 2001). Caucasian women have a tendency to smile more, which makes the smile ambiguous (Hall, 1984). Women smile frequently and their smiles do not necessarily mean anything.

They smile when they are happy, when they approve, when they are nervous, or when they want to cover their feelings. Some even smile when they are angry. Women also smile significantly more in social situations than do men. Therein lies the difficulty; a woman's smile is almost impossible to interpret. Not so with men. When men do smile it is attributed to positive feelings because they smile less often (Payne, 2001). Smiling will not necessarily improve a woman's friendliness rating because women smile for many reasons, positive and negative. However, because men smile less, when they do smile it could have a positive effect; they may be perceived as genuinely open and friendly. This is meaningful in leadership because a smile in and of itself would not be enough evidence of a woman being open, but it would be for a man in a leadership position. Being open is important because it signifies approachability.

This chapter has looked at the literature relevant to this study. A summary of expectation states theory and role congruity theory were provided, as well as background information on social role theory and stereotyping. There was a discussion of leadership styles, specifically focusing on leadership and sex, leadership and gender, leadership emergence, satisfaction and style, and perceptions of leadership. Finally, relevant communication literature was examined, including communication competence, similarities and differences based on biological sex, and gendered differences. There is a disconnect between the number of women in the workforce and the number of women in leadership positions. This study attempts to examine communicative aspects in hopes of explaining this disconnect. It could be something as simple as is noted by Hollinger and Fleming (1992), it may be the social self—how leaders are perceived by others—rather

than scores on objective instruments that is more important in attaining leadership roles. Expectation states theory and role congruity theory suggest this may indeed be the case.

Chapter 3

Methods

The purpose of this study was to examine the role of leaders' gendered communication style and the effect of that style on subordinates' perception of leadership based on a leader's sex. Relationships among leader sex, communication style, and participants' sex-role attitude were examined. Expectation States Theory and Role Congruity Theory guided the work because this is about sex- and gender-roles in leadership. The research took a quantitative approach using a survey and an experimental paradigm. This chapter includes an explanation of the pilot study as well as the research design, instruments, and procedures and analysis.

Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted at a large Southeastern University to test four written, leadership scenarios (See Appendix A). Two scenarios described a leader who communicated in a feminine style, one female and one male, and two described masculine communicators, one female and one male. Because the study focused on gendered communication style, it was imperative that the scenarios reflect the differences in feminine and masculine communication, which was done by imbedding communication styles within the scenarios.

All four of the leaders were described as having attended a prestigious business school and having graduated with honors. They also had all worked in their fields for 10 years and all were superstars. The masculine communicator was quick and to the point. He or she used directives, spoke quickly, making it difficult to understand, and was very controlling/autocratic. This leader was not open or approachable and did not listen.

Everything was done "by the book," regardless of need or individuality. In general, the masculine communicator was inflexible. The feminine communicator was completely opposite. This person wanted to be understood and asked many times if he or she made sense. The feminine leader was democratic and obviously egalitarian; people and their needs were considered individually. This person used verbal reinforcers, taking care to mention that subordinates were doing a good job and offering help as needed. This person invited feedback, both positive and negative, and listened to it. He or she gave constructive criticism and suggested alternatives. In general, this leader recognized that he or she did not have all the answers and was flexible.

Two separate scales—six dimensions of the Communication Style Measure (Norton, 1978) and the Sex Role Inventory (*BSRI*) (Bem, 1975)—were used to test the pilot scenarios (See Appendix A). The six dimensions used were those most closely determined to fit feminine (friendly, attentive, and open;) and masculine (contentious/argumentative, precise, and dominant, respectively) communication styles as discussed in Chapter 2. Although the scales were eventually combined, alpha reliabilities were run as a comparison with previous studies using these scales and as a check. Alpha reliabilities for the six dimensions ranged from .49 (precise) to .97 (friendly). One item, precise communicator, was determined to be problematic and without it the reliability was .65; the item was therefore deleted. According to Gable's (1986) guidelines alpha reliabilities of .70 or greater are acceptable for an effective measure. Alpha reliabilities for the scales were: .83 (CSM-Masculine), .88 (CSM-Feminine), .79 (BEM-Masculine) and .98 (BEM-Feminine), indicating an acceptable level of internal consistency.

Undergraduate students in three communication classes participated in the study as an in-class activity. One-hundred thirty-two usable surveys were collected. Based on previous research, a minimum of 30 participants for each description was deemed sufficient (e.g., Isaac & Michael [1981, p.93] suggest at least 10 events in a pilot study). Approximately two-thirds of the students were female (83) and approximately one-third (48) were male. The participants' race/ethnicity differed from the population of the United States (United States Census, 2004) with a much lower number of minorities represented in the pilot study sample (See Table 3.1). The majority of participants were between the ages of 18 and 22 (approximately 90 percent) with a mean age of 20.

One sample t-tests were conducted for perceptions of each leader. The two feminine scales (CSM and Bem) were combined for a total feminine and a total masculine score. Means were analyzed for the four different leaders (MF, MM, FM, FF) to determine if the descriptions were in fact masculine or feminine. In all cases, the means suggested that

Table 3.1
Comparison of Race/Ethnicity of Pilot Study Participants and 2000 United States Population

		Pilot Study	2000 US Census
	Asian American	.8	3.6
	Black/African America	5.3	12.3
	European American/White	87.2	69.1
	Latina/Latino	.8	12.5
	Pacific Islander	.8	0.1
	Multi	3.0	2.4
	Total	97.7	
Missing	System	2.3	
Total		100.0	100.0

the descriptions of the leaders met the communication style intended (See Tables 3.2, 3.3, 3.4 and 3.5). Means above the cut-off of 88.0 (feminine) and 84.0 (masculine) indicated that the leaders communicated in the style being tested (either feminine or masculine). Means were used rather than medians due to the interest in the midpoint of the scale, not of the data. Medians were not indicative of feminine or masculine; they were indicative of the distribution of the data. Because four was the neutral point, it was determined that four times the total number of items would be the mean for feminine and masculine. The cut-off points were different due to deleting one item in the masculine scale.

Comparisons of the masculine female leader suggest that the overall feminine score (df = 30, t = 17.28, p = .000) is significantly different from the overall masculine score (df = 29, t = 51.24, p = .000). Significant differences were also found between the overall feminine score of the masculine male leader (df = 31, t = 12.54, p = .000) and the overall masculine score (df = 29, t = 38.50, p = .000). The overall feminine score of the feminine female leader (df = 29, t = 58.22, p = .000) was also significantly different from that of the overall masculine score (df = 29, t = 28.44, p = .000). Finally, the overall feminine score of the feminine male (df = 24, t = 36.67, p = .000) was also significantly different from the overall masculine score (df = 27, t = 38.55, p = .000). Results of the pilot study indicate that there are indeed differences between feminine and masculine communication and that the scenarios captured these differences.

Table 3.2

Masculine Female Leader t-test
Feminine and Masculine Scores

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Feminine	31	48.3226	15.57431	2.79723
Masculine	30	119.5000	12.77322	2.33206

Mean above 84.0 indicates masculine

Table 3.3

Masculine Male Leader t-test
Feminine and Masculine Scores

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Feminine	32	60.9063	27.47592	4.85710
Masculine	30	113.2667	16.11368	2.94194

Mean above 84.0 indicates masculine

Table 3.4

Feminine Female Leader t test
Feminine and Masculine Scores

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Feminine	30	127.0667	11.95374	2.18244
Masculine	30	82.1000	15.81215	2.88689

Mean above 88.0 indicates feminine

Table 3.5
Feminine Male Leader t-test
Feminine and Masculine Scores

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Feminine	25	123.0000	16.77299	3.35460
Masculine	28	87.2143	11.97020	2.26216

Mean above 88.0 indicates feminine

Research Study

Participants

Two samples were used for this study. The first was a general sample which included participants in various organizations and occupations. The only criterion for this sample was that they had been employed for at least five years, not necessarily with the same organization. The second sample consisted of participants all within the same organization. The samples were purposely kept separate. This study was interested in subordinate perceptions' of leaders-in-general and leaders-within-an-organization. No comparisons were intended between the samples for this study; the interest was purely in perceptions in two different kinds of samples. Survey participants were selected using two approaches: snowball sampling and convenience sampling. For the in-general survey, the researcher sent an email to prospective participants with a link to an Internet-based survey. Prospective participants were contacted using personal, frequently-used Listservs. The email included a brief statement about the research and a link to the survey. Recipients were asked to pass the email on to individuals whom they knew had worked for at least five years, regardless of position or length of time with any one organization. This sampling technique resulted in 213 usable surveys. The convenience sample was a small community college in the Southeastern United States which employs approximately

170 full-time faculty, 240 adjunct faculty, and 225 staff. Faculty and staff received a similar email sent via the faculty/staff listerv. The email introduced the researcher and the research and asked recipients for their help in completing the research. One-hundred, eighty-nine usable surveys resulted from this population.

Most demographics had an acceptable representation; however, race was collapsed into two groups—majority and minority due to the overwhelming response of European American/White participants and Education was collapsed into 5 rather than 10 groups (See tables 3.6, 3.7, 3.8, 3.9, and 3.10 for In-general demographics and tables 3.11, 3.12, 3.13, 3.14, and 3.15 for the community college demographics). The on-line survey consisted of a measure of participant sex-role attitudes, a brief scenario of a leader in one of four conditions (feminine female, feminine male, masculine female, or masculine male), a measure of perceived leadership in five areas—task, relationship, organizational identity, qualifications, and dynamism, and demographic questions. The distribution of scenarios was very good for the general sample with 25% (N =5 4) of participants answering questions for a feminine female, 26% (N = 55) answering those for a feminine male, 24% (N = 51) answering questions for a masculine female, and 25% (N = 53) answering for a masculine male. The community college sample was not quite so evenly distributed—27.5% (N = 52) feminine female, 27.5% (N = 52) feminine male, 21.7% (N = 41) masculine female, and 23.3% (N = 44) masculine male.

Instrument

A survey was used to gather preferences for leader communication style, situational style preferences, perceived leadership competence, participants' sex role attitude, and demographic information. Based on Goldberg's (1968) experimental

Table 3.6
Participants' Sex-General Survey

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Female	147	69.0	69.0
	Male	66	31.0	31.0
	Total	213	100.0	100.0

Table 3.7
Participants' Socioeconomic Background-General Survey

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Blue Collar	45	21.1	21.3
	White Collar	166	77.9	78.7
	Total	211	99.1	100.0
Missing	No Answer	2	.9	
Total		213	100.0	

Table 3.8
Participants' Age-General Survey

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	18-26	11	5.2	5.2
	27-41	55	25.8	26.1
	42-60	114	53.5	54.0
	Above 60	31	14.6	14.7
	Total	211	99.1	100.0
Missing	No Answer	2	.9	
Total		213	100.0	

Table 3.9
Participants' Education Level-General Survey

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	High School	54	25.4	25.4
	Bachelor's Degree	67	31.5	31.5
	Master's Degree	51	23.9	23.9
	Doctorate or Professional	38	17.8	17.8
	No Answer	3	1.4	1.4
	Total	213	100.0	100.0

Table 3.10
Participants' Race-General Survey

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Majority	187	87.8	87.8
	Minority	26	12.2	12.2
	Total	213	100.0	100.0

Table 3.11
Participants' Sex-Community College

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Female	137	72.5	72.5
	Male	52	27.5	27.5
	Total	189	100.0	100.0

Table 3.12
Participants' Socioeconomic Background-Community College

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Blue Collar	37	19.6	19.6
	White Collar	152	80.4	80.4
	Total	189	100.0	100.0

Table 3.13
Participants' Age-Community College

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	18-26	5	2.6	2.7
	27-41	42	22.2	22.5
	42-60	125	66.1	66.8
	Above 60	15	7.9	8.0
	Total	187	98.9	100.0
Missing	No Answer	2	1.1	
Total		189	100.0	

Table 3.14
Participants' Education Level-Community College

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	High school	39	20.6	20.6
	Bachelor's Degree	40	21.2	21.2
	Master's Degree	77	40.7	40.7
	Doctorate or Professional	32	16.9	16.9
	No Answer	1	.5	.5
	Total	189	100.0	100.0

Table 3.15
Participants' Race-Community College

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Valid	Majority	162	85.7	85.7
	Minority	27	14.3	14.3
	Total	189	100.0	100.0

paradigm, a survey consisting of four different sex and communication style combinations was used. A total of four surveys were used to test the interaction of each of the four possible sex and gendered communication style combinations. Considerable thought was put into the names of the leaders used in this experiment. Kasof (1993) noted that in some Goldberg-paradigm experiments naming bias occurred when male stimulus persons were given more positive names than female stimulus persons. Care was taken to use generic names that would give the impression of European American/White leaders to avoid confounding the sex/gender variable with race. Borrowing from Fine, Johnson, & Foss (1991) the following abbreviations are used: masculine female (MF), feminine female (FF), masculine male (MM), and feminine male (FM). Two surveys used a feminine communication style and two used a masculine communication style (See Appendix B). The feminine and masculine descriptions were exactly alike except that one was Julie and one was John and one was Mary and the other David. Each of the four versions described a hypothetical leader, female or male, communicating in either a feminine or a masculine style. The leader's background and education were briefly described. No mention was made of the level of leadership (i.e., supervisor, manager, chief executive officer). Items were used to measure his or her perceived leadership with a Likert-type scale. A variety of sources were used for the survey items. Multiple questions were asked, in different forms, to measure variables of interest and combined into a scale (Cronbach, 1951; DeVellis, 1991).

First, nine items from Renzetti's (1987) adapted *Sex Role Attitudinal Inventory* (*SRAI*) were included to measure sex-role attitudes of participants. Renzetti reported inter-item correlation for each index (Pearson's r, significance level was at least .05)

(1987, p. 267). The reliabilities for this study were .837 (general sample) and .82 (community college sample). Next, six items were adapted from the Communication Satisfaction Questionnaire (*CSQ*) (Downs & Hazen, 1977). The items were chosen based on their representativeness of the task-focused and relationship-focused dimensions of leadership. The task-related items included: 1) "I would expect this leader to offer guidance in solving job-related," 2) "I would expect this leader's meetings to be well organized," and 3) "I would expect this leader's written communication and directives to be clear and concise." Reliabilities for this scale were .66 (general sample) and .75 (community college). Relationship-related items included 1) "I would expect this leader to know and understand the problems faced by subordinates," 2) "I would expect this person to listen and pay attention to me" and 3) "_____'s communication would make me identify with the Organization and feel part of it." Reliabilities reported for the eight dimensions of the *CSQ* range from .72 to .96 (Downs & Hazen, 1977; Taylor, 1997). In general, the CSQ has been widely used in the United States, as well as in other countries. However, the instrument is normally used in its entirety, not in pieces. Reliabilities for this scale were .90 (general sample) and .91 (community college).

Four items were also adapted from the Organizational Identification Questionnaire (*OIQ*) (Cheney, 1983). The items used were 1) "I would probably continue working for this leader even if I didn't need the money," 2) "I would be very proud to be an employee of this leader," 3) "I would describe myself to others in the organization as 'I work for Julie Jones,'" and 4) Mary's communication makes me identify with the organization and feel part of it. This instrument also consistently has high reliability; Cheney (1983) reported a Chronbach alpha of .94, Bullis and Tompkins (1989) reported an alpha of .95,

and Sass and Canary (1991) reported an alpha reliability of .94. Again, the reliabilities reported are for the entire instrument, not for three items. In this study the reliabilities were acceptable at .83 for both samples.

The final questions were adapted from the Source Credibility Scale (*SCS*) (Berlo, Lemert & Mertz, 1970). Two dimensions were used in their entirety: qualifications and dynamism. The *SCS* is a semantic differential instrument and was used in items designed for a Likert-type scale for this study. The items used were: 1) trained, 2) experienced, 3) qualified, 4) skilled, 5) informed, 6) aggressive, 7) empathic, 8) bold, 9) active, and 10) energetic. Kaminski and Miller (1984) reported alpha reliabilities for the *SCS* of .72 for the Qualification factor and .85 for the Dynamism factor. Dynamism had an unacceptable reliability in both samples and one item, "I would describe this person as aggressive," was deleted bringing the reliabilities to .69 for the general sample and .60 for the community college sample. The qualification scale had good reliabilities at .87 for the general sample and .91 for the community college sample.

The surveys were accessed via an Internet link and each time the link was used a different survey was opened to insure equal distribution of the four different versions and random sampling (See Appendix C). However, when a survey timed-out it was not counted and the next survey opened was the next in rotation, which accounted for the unequal distribution of scenarios.

Definitions

Sex of the leader is an important independent variable; it is purely biological in nature. Male and female are based on obvious outward physical characteristics and leaders were defined as male or female. Unlike sex, gender is not automatic, but is

socially constructed; it is the meanings that societies and individuals ascribe to female and male categories (Eagly, Johannsen-Schmidt & van Engen, 2003). One is not born masculine or feminine; one becomes masculine or feminine through socialization. Other independent demographic variables of interest in this research include those of the participants: sex, age, socioeconomic background, race, and education level.

Based on Carli's (1990) work, it is important to include age to determine if there is a difference between women and men and age groups within each sex. This is of particular interest because it is a measure of whether perceptions of sex and gender are changing over time. Socioeconomic background was determined by self-identifying with either a Blue-collar (hands-on) or a White-collar (hands-off) background. Participants self-identified their race from the following: African American/Black, Asian American/Pacific Islander, European American/White, Latino/a, Middle Eastern American, Mixed, Native American, or Other. Education level included the following options: Some High School, High School Graduate, Some College, Associate's Degree, Bachelor's Degree, Some Graduate work, Master's Degree, Professional Degree or Doctorate.

Data Analysis

Alpha reliabilities for the questionnaire subscales ranged from .69 (dynamism and task with one item deleted) to .89 (relationship) for the general sample and they ranged from .60 (dynamism with one item deleted) to .90 (relationship), which were deemed acceptable (See Table 3.16 for alpha reliabilities for all study scales). Also, for both samples, the items loaded on two factors in a factor analysis. The task and dynamism items loaded onto one factor, which was labeled *TD*; relationship, organizational identity,

Table 3.16
Alpha Reliabilities for All Study Scales

	General Sample	Community College
Task	.69	.75
Relationship	.89	.91
Organizational ID	.83	.83
Qualifications	.87	.86
Dynamism	.69	.60
Sex-Role Attitudes	.84	.82

and qualifications loaded onto a second factor labeled *ROIQ*. A factor analysis of the *CSQ* items, the *OIQ* items, and the *SCS* items loaded onto two factors, with the exception of one task item and one dynamism item, which were deleted. The two new variables were combined to create a third variable—*TDROIQ*, which was the overall leadership score. The alpha reliability for sex-role attitudes was also acceptable at .82.

Correlation tables for both samples are included for future researchers interested in conducting a meta-analysis (See Tables 3.17 and 3.18). Some variables are very highly correlated due to the nature of the variables: Leadership TD, Leadership ROIQ, and Leadership TDROIQ are comprised of combinations of other variables.

In summary, Hypotheses 1, 4, and 5 and Research Questions 1 and 2 are intended to compare masculine and feminine communication styles. Hypotheses 2 and 3 and Research Questions 3 and 4 are intended to assess the predictable task- and relationship-orientation of leaders by people who hold more or less traditional sex role attitudes. Research Question 5 is intended to assess expectations for sex and leadership ability. Research Question 6 is intended to examine the effect of role congruity and leadership style. Research Questions 7 and 8 are intended to compare aspects of leadership based on

Table 3.17
Correlations-General Sample

		Task	Relationship	Org ID	Qualifications	Dynamism	TD	ROIQ	TDROIQ
task	Pearson Correlation	1							
	Sig. (2-tailed)								
	N	213							
relationship	Pearson Correlation	.505(**)	1						
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000							
	N	213	213						
Organizational ID	Pearson Correlation	.532(**)	.880(**)	1					
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000						
	N	213	213	213					
qualifications	Pearson Correlation	.555(**)	.783(**)	.841(**)	1				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000					
	N	213	213	213	213				
dynamism	Pearson Correlation	.560(**)	.500(**)	.586(**)	.658(**)	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000				
	N	213	213	213	213	213			
LeadershipTD	Pearson Correlation	.807(**)	.563(**)	.634(**)	.695(**)	.941(**)	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000			
	N	213	213	213	213	213	213		
le2dershipROIQ2	Pearson Correlation	.565(**)	.932(**)	.957(**)	.939(**)	.624(**)	.675(**)	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		
	N	213	213	213	213	213	213	213	
leadership	Pearson Correlation	.679(**)	.854(**)	.904(**)	.920(**)	.829(**)	.868(**)	.950(**)	1
TDROIQ2	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	N	213	213	213	213	213	213	213	213

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 3.18
Correlations-Community College

		Task	Relationship	Qualifications	Dynamism	TD	ROIQ	TDROIQ
task	Pearson Correlation	1						
	Sig. (2-tailed)							
	N	189						
relationship	Pearson Correlation	.510(**)	1					
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000						
	N	189	189					
organizational ID	Pearson Correlation	.508(**)	.881(**)	1				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000					
	N	189	189	189				
Qualifications	Pearson Correlation	.626(**)	.763(**)	.870(**)				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000				
	N	189	189	189				
dynamism	Pearson Correlation	.613(**)	.526(**)	.595(**)	1			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000				
	N	189	189	189	189			
leadershipTD	Pearson Correlation	.846(**)	.575(**)	.621(**)	.940(**)	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000			
	N	189	189	189	189	189		
leadershipROIQ	Pearson Correlation	.581(**)	.915(**)	.965(**)	.628(**)	.675(**)	1	
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		
	N	189	189	189	189	189	189	
leadership TDROIQ	Pearson Correlation	.694(**)	.885(**)	.936(**)	.757(**)	.811(**)	.979(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	
	N	189	189	189	189	189	189	189

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

sex of participants. Research Question 9 compares communication style based on participants' age. Research Question 10 compares communication style based on participants' socioeconomic background. Research Question 11 compares communication style based on participants' race. Research Question 12 compares communication style based on participants' education level. The next chapter discusses the results of the data collection and the analysis.

Chapter 4

Results of Analysis

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationships among sex, gender, and leadership. Two sampling techniques and two samples were used—resulting in 213 usable surveys for the first (general) sample and 187 usable surveys for the second (community college) sample. Several leadership variables were tested including *TD*, *ROIQ*, and *TDROIQ*. *TD* was how task-focused and dynamic the leader was perceived to be. *ROIQ* was the perception of the leader's relationship-focus, degree to which the leader made others identify with the organization, and how qualified others believed her or him to be. *TDROIQ* was all items combined for an overall leadership dimension. Hypotheses examining relationships among these variables and research questions about preferences are discussed in the remainder of this chapter.

Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1 focused on the perception of male leaders and female leaders if both used a feminine communication style. A t-test comparing male leaders using a feminine communication style (N = 55) with female leaders using a feminine communication style (N = 54) did not support this hypothesis for the General sample for any of the dimensions—*TD* (df = 103, $t = 5.12$, $p = .000$), *ROIQ* (df = 103, $t = 18.09$, $p = .000$), and *TDROIQ* (df = 103, $t = 12.54$, $p = .000$). In fact, the opposite was true—female leaders using a feminine communication style were perceived more positively on all dimensions ($M_{TD} = 32.33$, SD = 5.14; $M_{TDROIQ} = 116.56$, SD = 17.31; $M_{ROIQ} = 63.67$, SD = 9.85), than male leaders using a feminine communication ($M_{TD} = 26.10$, SD = 7.23; $M_{ROIQ} = 30.47$, SD = 8.90; $M_{TDROIQ} = 114.05$, SD = 15.62). Results of the community college

sample were similar and did not support this hypothesis on any of the dimensions—*TD* (df = 91, t = 5.28, p = .000), *ROIQ* (df = 91, t = 18.66, p = .000), or *TDROIQ* (df = 91, t = 14.84, p = .000). Again, female leaders communicating in a feminine style (N = 52) were rated more positively (M_{TD} = 32.17, SD = 5.37; M_{TDROIQ} = 69.38, SD = 9.09; M_{ROIQ} = 101.56, SD = 13.60) than male leaders using a feminine communication style (N = 52) (M_{TD} = 25.37, SD = 7.06; M_{ROIQ} = 34.85, SD = 8.55; M_{TDROIQ} = 60.22, SD = 13.00).

Hypothesis 2 focused on masculine and feminine communication styles used by male leaders. Specifically it was hypothesized that male leaders using a masculine communication style would be rated more positively than male leaders using a feminine communication style by participants holding more traditional sex-role views. This hypothesis was not supported by t-tests comparing the two groups for the general sample. A one-sided test was used and, in fact, the statistical significance was not in the hypothesized direction: masculine males were not rated significantly more positively on *TD* (df = 33, t = 3.25, p = .003), *ROIQ* (df = 33, t = 10.29, p = .000), or *TDROIQ* (df = 33, t = 8.34, p = .000) than feminine males. More traditional and less traditional sex role attitudes were determined by splitting the data into thirds and comparing the lowest third with the highest third. This was deemed necessary because the majority of participants in both samples, approximately 87%, were non-traditional. Participants with more traditional sex-role attitudes rated males using a masculine communication style less positively overall than they did males using a feminine communication style (Table 4.1). Significant differences were found between males using a masculine communication style and those using a feminine communication style on all three dimensions in the community college sample as well: *TD* (df = 29, t = 4.23, p = .000), *ROIQ* (df = 29 t =

Table 4.1
Participants with More Traditional Sex Role Attitudes Rating of Male Leaders
General Sample

	Scenario	N	Mean	*STD.* Deviation	*STD.* Error Mean
Leadership*TD*	Feminine	*22	29.6364	5.14129	1.09613
	Masculine	*13	23.6154	5.54585	1.53814
Leadership*ROIQ*	Feminine	22	61.5000	8.73281	1.86184
	Masculine	13	30.3077	8.54775	2.37072
Leadership*TDROIQ*	Feminine	22	110.5909	15.35503	3.27370
	Masculine	13	68.3846	12.70524	3.52380

*Due to participants timing out, scenarios were not equally distributed

16.55, $p = .000$), and *TDROIQ* (df = 29, $t = 12.46$, $p = .000$). However, like the general sample participants with more traditional sex role attitudes rated males using a feminine communication style more positively than males using a masculine communication style overall (Table 4.2).

Hypothesis 3 focused on female leaders' use of feminine and masculine communication styles. It was hypothesized that female leaders using a feminine style would be perceived more positively than female leaders using a masculine communication style by participants holding more traditional sex-role views. The results of a split file t-test, with the file split by more and less traditional sex-role views, indicate support for this hypothesis in the general sample: females using a feminine communication style are rated more positively on *TD* (df = 35, $t = 2.16$, $p = .038$), *ROIQ* (df = 35, $t = 10.11$, $p = .000$), and *TDROIQ* (df = 35, $t = 6.69$, $p = .000$). Participants with more traditional sex-role attitudes rated females using a feminine communication style more positively on all three dimensions of leadership than females using a masculine communication style (Table 4.3). Results for the community college of

Table 4.2
Participants with More Traditional Sex Role Attitudes Rating of Male Leaders
Community College Sample

	Scenario	N	Mean	STD. Deviation	STD. Error Mean
Leadership*TD*	Feminine	*17	32.8235	6.59768	1.60017
	Masculine	*14	22.2857	7.03211	1.87941
Leadership*ROIQ*	Feminine	17	70.0000	8.20823	1.99079
	Masculine	14	28.0714	5.19562	1.38859
Leadership*TDROIQ*	Feminine	17	102.8235	13.16356	3.19263
	Masculine	14	50.3571	9.50795	2.54111

*Due to participants timing out, scenarios were not equally distributed

Table 4.3
Participants with More Traditional Sex Role Attitudes Rating of Female Leaders
General Sample

	Scenario	N	Mean	STD. Deviation	STD. Error Mean
Leadership*TD*	Feminine	18	30.2778	5.09678	1.20132
	Masculine	19	26.1053	6.53108	1.49833
Leadership*ROIQ*2	Feminine	18	59.5556	9.84122	2.31960
	Masculine	19	30.3684	7.63188	1.75087
Leadership*TDROIQ*2	Feminine	18	109.1667	15.73400	3.70854
	Masculine	19	73.7895	16.39641	3.76159

Table 4.4
Participants with More Traditional Sex Role Attitudes Rating of Male Leaders
Community College Sample

	Scenario	N	Mean	STD. Deviation	STD. Error Mean
Leadership*TD*	Feminine	12	31.0833	3.67939	1.06215
	Masculine	12	23.0833	7.93678	2.29115
Leadership*ROIQ*	Feminine	12	65.3333	5.92887	1.71152
	Masculine	12	32.4167	5.43488	1.56891
Leadership*TDROIQ*	Feminine	12	96.4167	6.77507	1.95579
	Masculine	12	55.5000	11.16407	3.22279

a split file t-test indicate support for this hypothesis as well; females using a feminine communication style are rated more positively on *TD* (df = 22, t = 3.17, p = .004), *ROIQ* (df = 22, t = 14.18, p = .000), and *TDROIQ* (df = 22, t = 10.85, p = .000). Participants in this sample with more traditional sex-role attitudes rated females using a feminine communication style more positively on the three leadership dimensions than they did females using a masculine communication style (Table 4.4).

Hypothesis 4 focused on the use of communication in a situation that requires a task-focus. Specifically it tested whether masculine communication is rated more positively than feminine communication in situations that require a task-focus. A one-sided test did not support this hypothesis in the general sample (df = 211, t = -6.32, p = .000). Results were opposite of what was expected. Leaders communicating in a masculine communication style are rated significantly less positively than leaders communicating in a feminine style in a situation requiring a task-focus ($M_{masculine}$ = 9.07, SD = 3.11; $M_{feminine}$ = 11.36, SD = 2.11). Results for the community college sample do not support this hypothesis either (df = 187, t = -5.68, p = .000). Participants at the community college rated leaders communicating in a masculine communication style

significantly less positively than leaders communicating in a feminine style in a task-focus situation as well ($M_{masculine}$ = 9.05, SD = 3.43; $M_{feminine}$ = 11.41, SD = 2.27).

Hypothesis 5 focused on the use of communication in a situation that requires a relationship-focus. It was posited that feminine communication would be rated more positively than masculine communication in situations that require a focus on relationships. An independent t-test with relationship as the test variable and communication style as the grouping variable was used to test this hypothesis. Results support this hypothesis for the general sample (df = 211, t = -23.77, p = .000). In situations requiring a focus on relationships, a feminine communication style was rated more positively than a masculine communication style ($M_{feminine}$ =17.39, SD = 2.43; $M_{masculine}$ = 7.04, SD = 3.80). Results of an independent samples t-test, as described above, for the community college sample also support this hypothesis (df = 187, t = -24.73, p = .000). Community college participants also rated feminine communication more positively than masculine communication in situations requiring a focus on relationships ($M_{feminine}$ = 17.51, SD = 2.29; $M_{masculine}$ = 6.45, SD = 3.80).

Research Questions

Research Question 1 asked to what extent women and men, who both use a masculine communication style or both use a feminine communication style, were viewed as equally competent in leadership positions. An independent samples t-test with *TD*, *ROIQ*, and *TDROIQ* and communication style as the grouping variable answers this question for the general sample (df = 102, t = -2.18, p = .031). Females using a masculine communication style were perceived more positively than males using a masculine communication style ($M_{females}$ = 73.39, SD = 17.97; M_{males} = 66.00, SD = 16.49).

However, there was no difference in ratings of feminine females and feminine males (df = 211, t = -.792, p = .430). Results of t-tests for the community college are similar (df = 102, t = 2.54, p = .013). Females using a masculine communication style are perceived more positively than males using a masculine communication style ($M_{females}$ = 60.22, SD = 13.00; M_{males} = 53.41, SD = 11.69). Again, like the general sample, there was no difference in ratings of feminine females and feminine males (df = 102, t = .246, p = .806).

Research Question 2 focused on the extent to which preferred communication style varied across situations regardless of leader sex. An independent samples t-test using scenario as the grouping variable (FF and FM compared with MF and MM) and task, relationship, *TD*, *ROIQ*, and *TDROIQ* as dependent variables addressed this question. There were statistically significant differences between feminine and masculine communication in all situations for the general sample. In all situations, including task (df = 211, t = -6.32, p = .000), relationship (df = 211, t = -23.77, p = .000), *TD* (df = 211, t = -8.57, p = .000), *ROIQ* (df = 211, t = -26.95, p = .000), and *TDROIQ* (df = 211, t = -19.60, p = .000), feminine communication was rated more positively than masculine communication (See Table 4.5). Results of the analysis indicate statistically significant differences between feminine and masculine communication in all situations for the community college sample also. In all situations, including task (df = 187, t = -5.68, p = .000), relationship (df = 187, t = -25.73, p = .000), *TD* (df = 187, t = -8.35, p = .000), *ROIQ* (df = 187, t = -29.01, p = .000), and *TDROIQ* (df = 187, t = -23.15, p = .000), feminine communication was rated more positively than masculine communication (See Table 4.6).

Table 4.5
Situational Ratings of Leaders Regardless of Sex of Leader-General Sample

	Scenario	N	Mean	*STD.* Deviation	*STD.* Error Mean
Task	Masculine	104	9.0673	3.10735	.30470
	Feminine	109	11.3578	2.10609	.20173
Relationship	Masculine	104	7.0385	3.80067	.37269
	Feminine	109	17.3853	2.43397	.23313
Leadership*TD*	Masculine	104	24.5288	6.90709	.67730
	Feminine	109	31.6789	5.17988	.49614
Leadership*ROIQ*	Masculine	104	29.6346	8.92695	.87536
	Feminine	109	63.2936	9.28091	.88895
Leadership*TDROIQ*	Masculine	104	69.6250	17.54671	1.72060
	Feminine	109	115.2936	16.45156	1.57577

Table 4.6
Situational Ratings of Leaders Regardless of Sex of Leader-Community College Sample

		N	Mean	*STD.* Deviation	*STD.* Error Mean
Task	Masculine	85	9.0471	3.42924	.37195
	Feminine	104	11.4135	2.26673	.22227
Relationship	Masculine	85	6.4471	3.79695	.41184
	Feminine	104	17.5096	2.28968	.22452
Leadership*TD*	Masculine	85	24.6588	6.61267	.71725
	Feminine	104	32.0769	5.60460	.54958
Leadership*ROIQ*	Masculine	85	32.0353	8.49572	.92149
	Feminine	104	69.1538	8.95379	.87799
Leadership*TDROIQ*	Masculine	85	56.6941	12.73075	1.38084
	Feminine	104	101.2308	13.49738	1.32353

Research Question 3 focused on how well sex-role attitudes and participant sex predicted assessment of task-orientation. A regression analysis of the general sample data determined that participants' sex and sex-role attitudes were not significant predictors of task-orientation for the general sample (F [2, 212] = 2.83, p = .061). Results of a regression analysis on the community college sample were similarly insignificant (F [2, 212] = 6.40, p = .529).

Research Question 4 focused on how well sex-role attitudes and participants' sex predicted assessments of relationship-orientation. A regression analysis on the general sample data determined that participants' sex and sex-role attitudes were not significant predictors of relationship-orientation (F [2, 185] = 1.25, p = .290). A regression analysis on the community college data also found that participants' sex and sex-role attitudes were not significant predictors of relationship-orientation of a regression analysis on the community college sample were similarly insignificant (F [2, 185] = 2.33, p = .102).

Research Question 5 focused on the effect of violation of expectation states on perceived leadership ability. A t-test with independent samples with *TD*, *ROIQ*, and *TDROIQ* as test variables and violation and non-violation as the grouping variable was used to answer this question. If the sex of the leader and the communication style were inconsistent they violated the expectation states (FM, MF). If the sex and the communication style of the leader were consistent they did not violate expectation states (MM, FF). Results of the t-test for the general sample suggest that violating expectation states does not affect perceived leadership ability on any of the dimensions: *TD* (df = 211, t = -9.74, p = .331), *ROIQ* (df = 211, t = -.342, p = .733), or *TDROIQ* (df = 211, t = -.762, p = .447). Results of an independent samples t-test for the community college data

indicate no significant differences between expectation consistency or violation on *TD* (df = 187, t = -6.16, p = .539), *ROIQ* (df = 187, t = -9.54, p = .341), or *TDROIQ* (df = 187, t = -9.26, p = .356). Leaders using a communication style inconsistent with their sex were not rated differently than leaders using a communication style consistent with their sex at the community college.

Research Question 6 focused on the effect of role congruity on the rating of leadership style. A t-test with *TD*, *ROIQ*, and *TDROIQ* was used to answer this question, with the data grouped by Congruity; in leadership the roles of man and leader are congruent, woman and leader are not. A significant difference was found between female and male leaders on *TD* (df = 211, t = 2.30, p = .022). Female leaders were rated more positively than male leaders ($M_{Females}$ = 29.30, SD = 6.96; M_{Males} = 27.10, SD = 7.00). No significant differences were found on the *ROIQ* dimension (df = 211, t = .513, p = .609) or on the overall leadership score *TDROIQ* (df = 211, t = 1.31, p = .190). Female and male leaders were perceived similarly on *ROIQ* ($M_{females}$ = 47.54, SD = 19.12, M_{male}= 46.19, SD = 19.26) and on overall leadership ($M_{females}$ = 95.59, SD = 27.89, M_{male}= 90.47, SD = 28.95). Results of a t-test on the community college data indicate significant differences between females and males on all three dimensions: *TD* (df = 187, t = 8.35, p = .000), *ROIQ* (df = 187, t = 29.01, p = .000), and *TDROIQ* (df = 187, t = 23.15, p = .000). Incongruent roles of leader and woman have no statistically significant effect on rating of females in leadership. On all dimensions, females in leadership were rated more positively than males in leadership in this sample: *TD* ($M_{females}$ = 32.08, SD = 5.60; M_{males}= 24.66, SD = 6.61), *ROIQ* ($M_{females}$ = 69.15, SD = 8.95; M_{males}= 32.04, SD = 8.50), and *TDROIQ* ($M_{females}$ = 101.23, SD = 13.50; M_{males}= 56.69, SD = 12.73).

Research Question 7 focused on the effect of participants' sex on rating of leadership communication style. An independent samples t-test was used to answer this question. No significant differences were found on any of the three dimensions tested—*TD* (df = 211, t = 1.40, p = .163), *ROIQ* (df = 211, t = 685, p = .494), *TDROIQ* (df = 211, t = .982, p = .327)—for the general sample. Sex of the participant did not have a statistically significant effect on ratings of communication style on *TD* ($M_{females}$ = 28.64, SD = 7.29, M_{male}= 27.18, SD = 6.43). Nor did it have a statistically significant effect on ratings of communication style on *ROIQ* ($M_{females}$ = 47.46, SD = 19.46, M_{males}= 45.52, SD = 18.55) or on the overall leadership dimension *TDROIQ* ($M_{females}$ = 94.28, SD = 29.38, M_{males}= 90.14, SD, 26.35).

Similarly, no statistically significant differences were found on any of the three dimensions tested with the community college data—*TD* (df = 187, t = -.286, p = .776), *ROIQ* (df = 187, t = -.588, p = .557), *TDROIQ* (df = 187, t = -.545, p = .586). Participants' sex did not have a statistically significant effect on ratings of communication style on *TD* ($M_{females}$ = 28.65, SD = 7.11, M_{males}= 28.98, SD = 7.15). Nor did it have an effect on ratings of communication style on *ROIQ* ($M_{females}$ = 51.92, SD = 20.88, M_{males}= 53.88, SD = 19.47) or on the overall leadership dimension *TDROIQ* ($M_{females}$ = 80.57, SD = 26.24, M_{males}= 82.87, SD, 24.78).

Research Question 8 asked what effect age of participant had on preferred leadership communication style. An ANOVA was used to answer this question with *TD*, *ROIQ*, and *TDROIQ* as the dependent variables and age as the factor. Ages were grouped into pre-Baby Boomers (older than 60), Baby Boomers (42-60), Generation Xers (27-41), and Generation Yers (18-26). No statistically significant differences were found between

the age groups on *TD* [F (3, 207) = .687, p = .561], on *ROIQ* [F (3, 207) = .566, p = .638)], or on *TDROIQ* [F (3, 207) = .672, p = .570)]. In the general sample, age was not a factor in preferred leadership communication style. An ANOVA on the community college data also resulted in no significant differences between the age groups on *TD* [F (3, 183) = 1.05, p = .374], on *ROIQ* [F (3, 183) = 2.58, p = .055)], or on *TDROIQ* [F (3, 183) = 2.39, p = .071)]. Age was not a factor in preferred leadership communication style in this sample either.

Research Question 9 focused on whether people of different socio-economic backgrounds perceived leadership communication style similarly. An independent samples t-test with data grouped by socioeconomic background was used to answer this question. *TD*, *ROIQ*, and *TDROIQ* were used as the independent variables. Participants with both blue collar and white collar backgrounds perceived leaders similarly on *TD* (df = 209, t = -.185, p = .854), *ROIQ* (df = 209, t = -.166, p = .868), and *TDROIQ* (df = 209, t = -.213, p = .832) in the general sample. The same test applied to the community college sample had similar results. No significant differences were found on *TD* (df = 187, t = .634, p = .527), *ROIQ* (df = 187, t = .330, p = .742), and *TDROIQ* (df = 187, t = .436, p = .663). Socio-economic backgrounds of participants did not affect perception of leadership in this sample.

Research Question 10 looked at a whether participant race of participant impacted preferred leadership communication style. As previously mentioned, the overwhelming number of European American participants led to the data being collapsed into two categories—majority and minority. An independent samples t-test was used with *TD*, *ROIQ*, and *TDROIQ* as the dependent variables and race as the grouping variable. The

results of the analysis suggest no difference in preferred communication style based on race on *TD* (df = 52, t = .892, p = .376), *ROIQ* (df = 52, t = .517, p = .607), or on *TDROIQ* (df = 52, t = .861, p = .393). Race is not a factor in preferred communication style of leaders in the general sample. An independent samples t-test on the community college data indicates no significant differences in preferred communication style based on race on any of the three dimensions either: *TD* (df = 187, t = .058, p = .954), *ROIQ* (df = 187, t = -2.19, p = .827), or on *TDROIQ* (df = 187, t = -.157, p = .875). In this sample, race was not a statistically significant factor in preferred communication style of leaders either.

Research Question 11 focused on whether participant education level influenced preferred leadership communication style. Education level was grouped into high school graduate/some college, a Bachelor's degree, a Master's degree, and a Doctorate or Professional (e.g., JD, MD). An ANOVA with *TD*, *ROIQ*, and *TDROIQ* as the dependent variables and education level as the factor was used to answer this question. No statistically significant difference was found between those who have a high school diploma, a Bachelor's degree, a Master's degree, or a Doctorate/Professional degree on any of the dimensions of leadership in the general sample (F_{TD} [4, 206] = .364, p = .834; F_{ROIQ} [4, 206] = .322, p = 3.22; F_{TDROIQ} [4, 206] = 3.58, p = 8.38). Results of an ANOVA on the community college data also indicated no statistically significant differences in leadership ratings based on education level (F_{TD} [4, 184] = .295, p = .881; F_{ROIQ} [4, 184] = .239, p = .916; F_{TDROIQ} [4, 184] = .269, p = .898). Whether someone had a high school education, a Bachelor's degree, a Master's degree, or a Doctorate or professional degree did not make a statistically significant difference in perceptions of leadership.

Summary

In summary, the purpose of this chapter was to present the quantitative results of the surveys. Significant differences were found in all five hypotheses; however, only two were confirmed. Female leaders using a feminine communication style were rated more positively than female leaders using a masculine communication style, and a feminine communication style was rated more positively in relationship-focused situations than a masculine communication style. The other three hypotheses were contrary to the expectation. Male leaders using a feminine communication style were expected to rate more highly than female leaders using a feminine communication style; they were not. Male leaders using a masculine communication style were expected to rate more highly than those using a feminine communication style; they were not. A masculine communication style was expected to rate more highly than a feminine communication style in task-focused situations; it did not. Female leaders and feminine communication were rated more positively overall in both samples. Sex-role attitudes and participant sex were not predictors of leadership assessments. Neither were expectation states violations or role congruity. Participant sex, age, socioeconomic background, race, and education did not have an effect on leadership ratings. Results, limitations of the study, suggestions for future research, and study contributions are discussed in Chapter 5.

Chapter 5

Discussion and Conclusions

The relationships among sex, gender, and leadership have not garnered much attention in communication studies, however deserving. A search of the *Communication and Mass Media Complete Database* with leadership as the search term resulted in 1224 hits in scholarly, peer-reviewed journals. Combining the term with sex resulted in 39 articles, and combining it with gender resulted in 26 articles. Many of the articles listed in sex and gender were duplicates. The most current article in the search for leadership and sex was published in 2004 (Aldoory & Toth, 2004) and for leadership and gender in 2005 (Kinnick & Parton, 2005). Few articles can be found that study sex and leadership or gender and leadership in our discipline; virtually none that study sex, gender, and leadership. One thing that is particularly problematic in the literature is the use of sex and gender as interchangeable terms. They are not interchangeable: sex is biological and gender is constructed. Obviously, there are gaps in the literature. This makes the study of sex, gender, and leadership particularly provocative due to the ways in which we communicatively construct our worlds (Blumer, 1969; Mead, 1934).

Research suggests that masculine communication has been found to be more powerful than feminine communication (e.g., Mulac, Lundell, & Bradac, 1986). Also, a significant body of research suggests that leaders have more masculine traits and behaviors than feminine ones (see e.g., Aldoory, 1998; Chapman, 1975; Denmark, 1977; Sargent & Stupak, 1989). This research has spanned the decades from the 1970s to today and has been conducted in various disciplines. Women, in an attempt to fit in, adapted to the expected masculine stereotype (Payne, 2001), violating sex-role expectations and

acceptable gender roles. Based on expectation states theory and role congruity theory, women are doomed to a life of subordination.

Expectation states theory is about status characteristics and about roles that members of a group come to hold for themselves and others (Berger & Fisek, 1974). Status characteristics are characteristics that can be differentially evaluated as having high or low honor, esteem, and/or desirability. The theory argues that a hierarchy (social or professional) develops based on interactions. The interactions are based on roles into which people are socialized. Deaux and Major (1987) explain this as a dynamic process in which each person's gender belief system influences his or her own behavior as well as that of the other interactant. Tying this back to expectation states, those with high status characteristics are expected to offer more goal-related suggestions, which they do. It has also been noted that people are expected to behave consistently with societal gender roles (Eagly, 1987). This is problematic for women in leadership because woman and leader are conflicting roles. To be a woman, one must act like a woman. She needs to be nurturing, relational, and other-centered. To be a leader, one must act in a stereotypically masculine manner: direct, autocratic, and task-focused.

The purpose of this study was to examine the role of gendered communication style and the effect of that style based on a leader's sex. Relationships among leader sex, communication style, and participants' sex-role attitude were examined within a framework of expectation states theory and role congruity theory. Two samples were used—one general sample sent via email to people employed for a minimum of five years and one sent via a faculty/staff listserv within a community college. Two-hundred, thirteen participants completed the survey for the general sample; one-hundred, eighty-

seven participants completed the community college survey. The data were evaluated using t-tests, ANOVAs, and regression. This chapter discusses the findings of these analyses, the study's contributions, as well as limitations and areas for future research.

Discussion of Hypotheses

Basically, role congruity theory suggests that roles and actions must be consistent (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Man and leader are synonymous; woman and leader are contradictory. Woman and leader are two different roles, and, although we seem to be making progress in acceptable roles for women, they continue to be incongruous (Butler & Geis, 1990; Rudman & Kilianski, 1999). However, leader and male are related.

Hypothesis 1

It was therefore hypothesized that male leaders would be preferred over female leaders if both used a feminine communication style. It has only been within the last 30 or 40 years that women have entered the workforce in earnest and aspired to positions of power. Although more women are attending college and receiving Bachelor degrees, they continue to be underrepresented in higher levels of organizations (US Census, 2000). The low numbers of women in powerful, leadership positions suggests that leadership continues to be the domain of males in many societies. This would be expected based on expectation states theory (Wagner & Berger, 1997) and the higher perceived status characteristics of men; if males are perceived as leaders more than females, it is reasonable to assume that males would be preferred over females in leadership regardless of communication style. In this study, that was not the case.

On all three dimensions of leadership, *TD*, *ROIQ*, and *TDROIQ*, female leaders were perceived more positively than male leaders when both used a feminine

communication style. Although this was not directly tested, it is possible men do not have higher status characteristics than women in this study. Female leaders were perceived more positively in both the general sample and the community college sample, which supports the notion that the masculine stereotype is becoming less favorable and the feminine stereotype more favorable in leaders (Deaux & Kite, 1993). It also supports findings that despite stereotypic expectations for effective leadership being dominated by masculine qualities, feminine qualities are relevant to effective leadership (Cann and Siegfried, 1990). Feminine females may have been rated more positively in these samples due to characteristics of participants and/or the type of organization/occupations. It is entirely possible that feminine females may be seen as less threatening in academe and white-collar organizations. It seems logical to assume that people who are highly educated/trained would prefer a feminine female who offers assistance when needed but respects others enough to give them freedom to do their own jobs.

Hypothesis 2

It was also hypothesized that, based on role congruity theory, male leaders using a masculine communication style would be rated more positively than male leaders using a feminine communication style by participants holding more traditional sex-role views. Masculine and male are congruous; feminine and male are not. According to Goffman (1963), those behaving in violation of societal expectations are perceived negatively. Since males are expected to be masculine, use of a feminine communication style should lead others to rate them less positively than males using a masculine style. Also, previous research suggests that masculinity is preferred over femininity in leaders (Arkelin & Simmons, 1985). Much of the leadership research speaks to the preference of masculine

leadership (see e.g., Denmark, 1975; Schein, 1975), which would lead one to believe that there would be a preference for a masculine communication style. One would particularly expect a preference for masculine male leaders.

This study contradicted these expectations; not only were males communicating in a masculine style not rated more positively, males communicating in a feminine style were rated significantly more positively in both samples. Looking again at the pilot study data offers a possible explanation for this. Bem (1974) introduced the concept of androgyny; people can have both masculine and feminine characteristics. The pilot study data suggest that rather than the feminine male leader being perceived as feminine, he was in fact perceived as borderline androgynous. Both the feminine and masculine means for this leader were above the cut-off point for masculine and feminine. The feminine score was significantly higher than the masculine score, but the possibility exists that he could have been seen as androgynous. An androgynous leader has the capability of being high or low on both task-oriented and relationship-oriented behavior (Powell & Butterfield, 1989), which may in part explain this anomaly.

It could also, in part, be explained by the move toward being less traditional in our sex-role attitudes, which can be inferred from this study. In this study, most of the participants (84.5%) clearly considered themselves to be less traditional in their sex-role attitudes. It is doubtful that sex-role attitudes and stereotypes have changed that drastically in the past three or four decades. It was not so long ago that sex-role stereotypes continued to be held by large and relatively varied samples of the population and that they were deeply ingrained in our society (Broverman, Vogel, Broverman,

Clarkson, & Rosenkrantz, 1972). These less traditional sex-role attitudes may have more to do with instrument limitations than a societal change.

Hypothesis 3

Similarly, it was posited that female leaders communicating in a feminine communication style would be rated more positively than those communicating in a masculine communication style by participants holding more traditional sex-role attitudes. In both samples, this was indeed the case. Females using a feminine communication style were rated more positively than those using a masculine communication style. This is consistent with the assumption that female leaders violating their gender role by using an agentic, masculine style are more likely to encounter prejudice (Eagly, Makhijani, & Klonsky, 1992). The problem could be with the masculine concept of leadership; women are not expected to behave like men. They are not expected to have masculine qualities or use masculine behaviors. When they use a masculine communication style—direct and to the point someone—they may be seen as rude. It could also be that females using a feminine style are not exerting obvious leadership behaviors and are therefore rated more positively (Butler & Geis, 1990). On the flip side, females using a feminine style are incongruous with the masculine ideal of leadership. Although there is evidence that female leaders are perceived as less effective when displaying feminine characteristics, previous research did not include the sex-role attitudes of participants (Hackman, Hills, Paterson, & Furniss, 1992). It seems, based on this research, that it is more important for females in leadership positions to fit the role of woman than it is that they fit the role of leader.

Hypotheses 4 and 5

It was expected that masculine communication would be rated more positively than feminine communication in situations requiring a focus on tasks, and feminine communication would be rated more positively in situations requiring a focus on relationships. Previous research found that sex-role orientation, not sex, was a predictor of leadership style with an initiating structure of leadership (task) significantly related to masculinity and a consideration style (relationship) significantly related to femininity (Korabik, 1982). Masculine communication is direct, succinct, and instrumental, while feminine communication is indirect, elaborate, and affective (Mulac, Bradac, & Gibbons, 2001). Because it is direct, it would seem that masculine communication would be less time-consuming and appropriate for task-focused situations, such as meeting a deadline. Conversely, feminine communication would be time-consuming and therefore inappropriate for trying to complete a task, but appropriate for situations requiring more of an interpersonal, relationship-building goal. This research did not support the supposition that masculine communication would be rated more positively in task-focused situations. In fact, the opposite was true—leaders communicating in a feminine style were rated more positively than those communicating in a masculine style in task situations in both samples. This could be explained by a description being given rather than an actual task being done, as in previous studies in which a masculine style was preferred in task situations (e. g., Bartol & Butterfield, 1976; Riggio et al, 2003). It could be that a polite, considerate style (more feminine than masculine) is preferred regardless of the situation (Eblen, 1987). This would seem to be a logical assumption based on the evidence that suggests social skills are important in leader behavior (e. g., Jablin, 1979;

O'Reilly & Pondy, 1979; Whetten & Cameron, 1984). Social skills, such as knowing when to talk and when to listen, using the appropriate language and tone for a situation, and knowing what to say are important considerations for leaders. This research confirmed previous findings that a feminine communication style would be rated more positively in relationship-focused situations (e.g., Boumans & Landeweerd, 1993). Relational practice is a strategy for performing gender, regardless of the sex of the leader, and contributes to the construction of feminine or other-oriented social identity (Holmes & Marra, 2004).

Hypothesis Summary

Given the above discussion, this study posited that preferred communication style would be situational and not dependent on sex of the leader in a given situation. It was assumed that because a masculine style was appropriate in task-focused situations, it would also be preferred, regardless of a leader's sex. It was also assumed that because a feminine communication style is more appropriate in relationship-focused situations, it would be rated more positively regardless of sex of the leader. It was thought that in situations in which it is important to build and maintain relationships, a feminine communication style would be preferred, regardless of leader sex. Based on this, it was expected that a masculine communication style would be rated more positively than a feminine communication style on task and Task/Dynamism. The feminine communication style was expected to be rated more positively on relationship and Relationship/Organizational Identity/Qualifications. It was expected that on the overall dimension, Task/Dynamism/ Relationship/Organizational Identity/Qualifications, a masculine communication style would be preferred. This study confirms that the

communication style rated more positively is not dependent on sex of the leader. However, the communication styles rated more positively by situation were not rated as expected. On all dimensions of leadership, feminine communication was rated more positively than masculine communication

Discussion of Research Questions

Also of interest in this study was the extent to which women and men using the same communication style were viewed similarly. It was expected that men in leadership positions would be rated more positively if both men and women used the same communication style, either masculine or feminine. This was expected due to the role of leader being associated more with males and masculine individuals. As with previous studies there were mixed results. This study supports findings that there are no differences based on sex (e.g., Brown, 1979; Donnell & Hall, 1980), but only with feminine communication. Women and men who both used a feminine communication style were rated similarly. However, women using a masculine communication style were rated more positively in this study than men using a masculine communication style. These findings contradict previous findings that men and women using a masculine style are perceived similarly and those using a feminine style are perceived differently (Rosenfeld & Fowler, 1976). This seems strange considering that women who use an autocratic, direct leadership style have been less well-received than men who use the same style (Copeland, Driskell, & Salas, 1995; Korabik, Baril & Watson, 1993) and that women using a masculine leadership style are devalued compared to their male counterparts (Eagly, Makhijani, & Klonsky, 1992).

It is possible that women using a masculine communication style are rated more positively due to the expected use of non-verbal reinforcers and paralanguage behaviors. Perhaps in our social hierarchy we have different expectations of women and men (Berger & Fisek, 1974), and because women have been socialized to use more positive non-verbal reinforcers and paralanguage to downplay directness (Payne, 2001) we expect them to do so. Although men and women say the same thing, they may say it in different ways. Men may be expected to be direct—"have the budget done by Friday" and women may be expected to say "have the budget done by Friday, okay?" Although there were no differences between the masculine male and masculine female in this study, these differing expectations may have led to a more positive rating for women using a masculine communication style. Another possibility is that women in supervisory positions are perceived to focus more on the task and others, while men in similar positions are perceived to focus on themselves (Statham, 1987). It is entirely possible that women are perceived as other-centered, even if they use a masculine communication style, while men are seen as self-centered, which lowers subordinates evaluations of them.

Stereotyping was central to this research and led to questions about the ability to predict assessments of task-orientation and relationship-orientation based on participants' sex and sex role attitudes. Expectations for men and women are different; men are expected to be autocratic and women are expected to be democratic (see e.g., Chapman, 1975; Schein, 1975). It was expected that people with more traditional sex-role attitudes would rate leaders differently depending on the situation. This was not the case; neither sex of participant nor sex-role attitudes was a statistically significant predictor of task-

orientation or relationship-orientation for either sample. Again, the sample populations must be considered. The majority of participants were female, and very few participants in either sample actually held traditional sex-role attitudes based on Renzetti's (1987) instrument. It is possible that women are more accepting of women in leadership roles or that women stereotype less because they are the oppressed class. As previously noted, the *SRAI* (Renzetti, 1987) is quite possibly outdated, making it appear that fewer people hold traditional sex role attitudes when in fact they do.

Other questions stemming from stereotyping were those about expectation states and role congruity. Expectation states and status characteristics would lead feminine males and masculine females to be evaluated differently than masculine males and feminine females. Generally, we expect men to be masculine and women to be feminine. Masculine men have higher status than feminine men; likewise, feminine women have higher status than masculine women. General expectations would lead us to expect those with higher perceived status (MM, FF) to perform better than those with lower perceived status (FM, MF) in general (Berger & Fisek, 1974). However, specific expectations, which are situational, would lead us to believe that masculine leaders would be rated better in task-focused situations and feminine leaders would be rated better in relationship-focused situations. Only feminine leaders were rated as expected; they were rated higher in relationship-focused situations. There is no support for the notion that those with higher status characteristics (MM, FF) were rated differently than those with lower status characteristics (FM, MF). It is possible that sex was not a status characteristic in this study due to written scenarios rather than actual, observable behavior. Perhaps written scenarios do not capture the nuances necessary for a

determination to be made about high or low status. Or in these scenarios it was a fictitious leader rather than a flesh and blood person, which could make a difference.

Similarly, role congruity was found to have no effect on ratings of leaders. Role congruity is the matching of one's role or roles with expectations of people within a particular social category (Eagly & Karau, 2002). In this study leader and male are congruous; leader and female are not congruous. It was expected that males would be rated more positively on all dimensions of leadership because their sex and roles were congruous. This was not the case; expected significant differences were not found in either sample. However, unexpected significant differences were found. In the general sample, women were rated more positively than men on the TD dimension; in the community college sample, women were rated more positively than men on all leadership dimensions. This may be linked to the majority of participants being women (71%). Women may be more inclined to accept women in other roles because they understand their capabilities. It may also have something to do with the number of participants in these samples who do not hold traditional sex-role attitudes and therefore do not view women and leadership as incongruous.

People with traditional sex-role attitudes would view women in leadership as possibly betraying their identity. In the past, women were thought to belong in the private sphere and men in the public sphere. Based on this, many women were not as well-educated and educations differed. As a young woman in junior high school and high school I was required to take typing, shorthand, and sewing. I also took cooking and life experience (caretaking). Expectations for me, based on my place in society, were low—support staff, housewife, Mother. I was not expected to attend college, much less

graduate. Many women my age went to college to get an MRS degree. These were the traditional sex-role attitudes. People who do not hold traditional sex-role attitudes would not have the same expectations of others based on sex.

Questions about demographic differences and leadership rating were also of interest in this study. There is evidence that there are differences in the way women and men perceive leaders and leadership (Fine, Johnson & Foss, 1991), and that there are no differences in the way men and women perceive leaders and leadership (Butler & Geis, 1990). Standpoint theory suggests that differing positions lead to different perspectives (see e.g., Hartsock, 1983a, 1983b), which may affect how people of different sexes, ages, socio-economic backgrounds, race, and education levels perceive leadership. In this study, there is no support for differences in perception of leadership based on any of the demographic variables. Masculine and feminine communication styles of leaders were rated similarly regardless of participant sex, age, socio-economic background, race, or education level. This could be due to the similarities of participants. The composition of the samples was similar, with most of the participants being White, female, 42-60, and highly educated with white-collar socio-economic backgrounds.

Limitations and Future Research

As with all research, this study has limitations, which will be explained in this section. Several limitations in particular, deserve further discussion: instrumentation, sampling, sample and definition of leadership. Instrumentation limitations include the Sex Role Attitudinal Inventory (Renzetti, 1987), descriptions of leaders, and adapting parts of previously-used scales. Sampling issues include convenience and snowballing.

Limitations of the sample include demographics of participants and diversity. The definition of leadership in this study was left purposely ambiguous.

Instrument

First, although Renzetti (1987) reported good inter-item reliability for the *Sex Role Attitudinal Inventory* (*SRAI*), it is a dated instrument. Unlike the *BSRI* (Bem, 1974), which has been consistent over time, the *SRAI* has not. Both instruments were developed at a time when cultures were in flux. The Civil Rights and Feminist Movements had made major inroads into equality based on race and sex. The *SRAI* was created to measure the way participants perceived feminism and sex-role attitudes. The basis for the instrument was feminism and the questions on the attitudinal scale were loaded by today's standards. For example, one item in particular speaks to the negative perception of women and work—"career women tend to be masculine and domineering." This is also one example of several on the instrument that are double-barreled. Future research needs to develop a new instrument to measure sex-role attitudes that is more reflective of the changes in our culture and other cultures. Because the world is becoming smaller and more cultures are being blended, it is important to include the differences in any new measure. The new measure should include the same concepts as the ones found in the Renzetti (1987) measure, such as a woman's place, but with different language. The first step is to explore current sex-role attitudes with qualitative methods, such as focus groups and interviews.

A second limitation of the instrument is in using sections of validated instruments rather than creating a new instrument. Although previous studies have had success with the instruments used they were used in their entirety, not in bits and pieces (Bullis &

Tompkins, 1989; Downs & Hazen, 1977; Kaminski & Miller, 1984; Sass & Canary, 1991; Taylor, 1997). The items adapted from the Source Credibility Scale (*SCS*) (Berlo, Lemert & Mertz, 1970) may have been particularly problematic because they were attributes written in question form. For example, qualified became "I would describe this leader as qualified." Not only were the lists translated into questions, the questions did not follow the form of those adapted from other scales. The other scales started with "I would expect this leader to…" Future researchers using this instrument should change the form of the questions to "I would expect this leader to. . ."Although each of the subscales had acceptable reliabilities, there is a need for additional items. The dynamism subscale had only two items after one item was deleted to make it more reliable. One instrument is needed that captures a variety of communicative dimensions of leadership. It would be very helpful, for example, to have one instrument that measures communication and character, communication and competence, and communication and qualifications.

The third issue with the instrument is the written description of leaders. Although communication styles were built into the descriptions of leaders, written descriptions cannot capture true communication. One of the missing ingredients was non-verbal communication behaviors. Future researchers who want to use written descriptions and hypothetical scenarios should include non-verbal behaviors to balance the communication style. It is possible that the masculine leadership scenario itself was problematic. Masculine leaders could have been perceived as rude; however, this was not tested. Additional pilot testing needs to be done to tease out masculinity versus rudeness. The masculine leadership scenarios may also have been more negative, and therefore prejudicial. Many leaders are nice people with a symbolic veneer of politeness in certain

situations who then make a decision (e.g., Jack Welch). It would be interesting to look at what happens with leadership in a variety of situations (e.g., crisis). Do people in crisis situations maintain the same leadership style? Do leaders who typically use a feminine communication style change to a more masculine style as a crisis would warrant?

It is necessary and important that future studies include qualitative methods to capture differing realities of leadership. Focus groups would allow participants to discuss leadership in their own words and identify concerns with leadership. They would also help to flesh out preferences for communication styles and effectiveness of different styles in different situations. Observing communication within organizations would allow researchers to see first-hand similarities and differences between non-verbal behaviors that may impact effectiveness rating. It would also allow researchers the opportunity to determine if there are actual observable differences or if the differences are in the perception of the subordinates.

Sampling

There were also some limitations with the sampling. Snowball sampling via the Internet was used because it was an expedient and inexpensive way in which to collect data. However, people who do not have access to the Internet would not have the opportunity to participate. Also, homophily suggests that people generally only have significant contact with others like themselves (Lazarsfeld & Merton, 1954). The survey link was sent via the Internet to people in the researcher's address book and to frequently-used listservs. Although attempts were made to control sampling bias, it is possible that those who received the survey were similar to the researcher and that those people sent it to people who by extension were also similar to the researcher. This would be expected to

limit the diversity of the sample. The convenience sample was sent to the faculty/staff listserv of a small community college. This was a good way to capture a sample within an organization. However, since this organization was located in the same geographic area and many of the participants are faculty, diversity is also questionable.

Future research needs to include organizations outside of academia. It would be interesting to look at different organizational cultures and preferences for communication style of leaders within those organizations. According to Deal and Kennedy (1982), every business, every organization, has a culture; "Corporate culture, the cohesion of values, myths, heroes, and symbols that has come to mean a great deal to the people who work there" (Deal & Kennedy, 1982, p. 4). Organizational cultures are powerfully enduring and have a pervasive influence on behavior; they affect the language, dress, and physical layout of the organization (Schein, 1985). Would the culture dictate the communication style used? In a study of two organizations, one masculine and one feminine, preferred communication style was different (Holmes & Stubbe, 2003). Would this be consistent across organizations? Would leaders in a stereotypical masculine organization (i.e., garage) use a masculine communication style? Would leaders in a stereotypical feminine organization (i.e., day care) use a feminine communication style? Another area ripe for investigation is ways in which male and female, masculine and feminine are both evaluated by diverse groups. Politics would seem to be an excellent platform for examining perceptions created by a diverse group. Are women and men in politics similarly evaluated based on communication style?

Sample

Neither sample in this study was very diverse. Approximately two-thirds of the participants in this study were women. Almost 80% came from white collar socio-economic backgrounds. About 60% were Baby Boomers, 24% were Generation Xers, less than 10% were pre-Baby Boomers, and less than 5% were Generation Yers. As should be expected from samples generated in colleges and universities, an unusually high number of participants had degrees. Only about 23% had a high school education, about 26% had Bachelor's degrees, about 37% had Master's degrees, and about 17% had Doctorate or Professional degrees. There was very little diversity of races, even with collapsing the races into minority (everything but European American/White) and majority (European American/White). Only about 13% self-reported as being from a minority or mixed race. Basically, the majority of the sample is middle-aged, upper-middle class, white, and female. Caution should be used in generalizing these findings. Future studies need to make a more concerted effort at including diversity. It would be interesting to see how preferences would change with a more diverse sample.

Definition of Leadership

Mintzberg (2006) noted that leaders have to be managers and managers have to be leaders. In this study, no distinction was made between leader and manager. Likewise no distinction was made between different kinds of leaders or in leaders in different kinds of organizations. Leadership was left purposely ambiguous to allow participants to define it themselves. No mention was made of the level of leadership within the organization; the only indication that these people were leaders was the label. Leadership is one of those murky concepts that everyone perceives differently. Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Podsakoff,

and Lee (2003) examined measurement models in three leading journals that publish leadership research (*The Leadership Quarterly, Journal of Applied Psychology, and Academy of Management Journal*). They found 47 studies that examined 138 leadership constructs. According to them, many of the studies examined the same constructs using different measures and, in many cases, the wrong kinds of measures. Future research needs to be more specific about different aspects of leadership. How is leadership constructed in different kinds of organizations? What effect does organizational culture have on leadership? What does a leader need to do to adapt to a situation, followers, or superiors? How might a political leader differ from an organizational leader? What role does motivation and inspiration play in leadership?

This study also raises additional questions for future research. What levels are really important and where is the work really getting done? Are changes being made at the more important levels? Is it possible that sex overwhelmed gender or that gender overwhelmed sex in this study? Did one theory call for one finding and another theory call for a different finding? Future research needs to examine this more closely to determine if theories confound each other.

Contributions of the Study

It is important when engaging in research to remember why it is being done in the first place. It is not solely for the pleasure of the researcher or on a whim. Research is conducted to contribute in some meaningful way to what we already know. This study was expected to contribute in meaningful ways to expectation states theory, role congruity theory, leadership literature, and the notion of sex and gender differences. The following contributions are offered.

Expectations states theory and role congruity theory suggest that we are evaluated based on categories to which we belong (Berger & Fisek, 1974; Eagly & Karau, 2002). Characteristics may be high status or low status depending on our particular category and we may be judged differently depending on which roles we fill. Studies have suggested that men have higher status than women (see e.g., Ridgeway, 1987), which would be expected to place men at an advantage. Neither general expectation states nor specific expectation states had an effect on the perception of women and men in leadership in this study. There was not the expected preference for a male leader based on the higher status placed on male; in fact, the opposite was true, with females being evaluated more positively. Nor was a male who used a masculine communication style preferred over one who used a feminine communication style (in this study androgynous). There is no evidence in this study that woman and leader are incongruous roles. Women in this study were evaluated very well and in many comparisons with men actually fared better. Feminine was also not incongruous with leadership. To the contrary, the feminine communication style was actually preferred over the masculine communication style, regardless of sex of the leader.

Some of the leadership literature focuses on the different leadership styles appropriate to different situations and necessary in different kinds of organizations. For example, Eblen (1987) found that a more feminine style (consideration) was appropriate in a hospital, which could be perceived as a feminine organization, while a more initiating structure was necessary in city government, a more masculine organization. There is no evidence to support these findings in this study. There is a preference for a feminine communication style in both task- and relationship-focused situations. This is

also contradictory to previous findings that the masculine style is preferred. Participants in this study clearly had a preference for a feminine communication style. Participants in this study rated leaders who were considerate and democratic more positively than those who were direct and demanding. This study also helps to refocus our attention on sex, gender, and communication in the literature. Differences between the sexes cannot be ignored or discounted. Sex and gender are very real characteristics, which we need to continue to explore.

Sex and gender are also very different things. Much of the previous work in leadership studies conflated the two, which causes confusion. In addition to being confusing, it makes findings questionable. This study seeks to differentiate between sex and gender; treating the two separately makes sense. Gender is a continuum; most people are not either feminine or masculine, they are somewhere in between. It is unrealistic to compare men and women in leadership solely on the basis of sex. Comparisons need to be made with both sex and gender being measured. We do not have enough information at this point to make any generalizations about sex, gender, and leadership. What we do know is that sex and gender matter.

There was also no evidence in this study that sex-role attitudes played a part in the evaluation of leaders. However, a caveat is necessary; based on the above discussion of the *SRAI* (Renzetti, 1987) being outdated, it is entirely possible that these differences were not captured. This research found few participants who rated themselves as holding traditional sex-role attitudes; this does not mean they no longer exist. Perhaps they are more subtle than they once were. Fine, Johnson, and Foss (1991) suggest that in spite of claims to the contrary, many of the young women in their study still cling to tradition.

This study has implications for the way we do leadership. Many are accustomed to the masculine stereotype and it continues to be used by leaders. Daily we see examples of this leadership at work: President Bush or Donald Rumsfeld being very authoritative and condescending about the war in Iraq. Leadership based on the masculine/male ideal has been less than stellar. CEOs and CFOs of major corporations have lost their jobs and gone to prison because they had power and everyone believed they had power. It can be inferred from this study that this is not the best way to go about leadership. Based on findings in this study, we might do better in private and public organizations to promote more feminine individuals, both female and male.

Although most of the findings in this study were contrary to what was expected, it is not a good idea to shout from the rooftops that women and men are finally equal. This study lends credence to the notion that the inequity in our culture is not due to communication style and it is not due to sex. Of course, this is not results-based, but a conclusion instead. It was previously mentioned it was not due to qualifications. What does that leave? It leaves structure and tradition. In our culture it is very subtle and not obvious. There is a scene in *To Kill a Mockingbird* (1963) where Scout wears a dress for the first day of school because it is the way it is—girls had to wear dresses to school; girls and women are no longer required to wear dresses at all, but it was not so long ago that they were. The restrictions are no longer visible, but they are nevertheless there.

In other cultures it is more obvious. Americans were shocked when we discovered that the Taliban required women to wear a burka and cover themselves from head to foot. Yet little mention is made of Saudi women covering themselves, many from head to foot, not attending school, and not going outside without a male member of the immediate

family (AlMunajjed, 1997). Immediate family being a husband, father, grandfather, or brother. Little, if any, thought is given to Saudi women wearing black, which holds the heat, from head to toe in temperatures that sometimes reache 145 degrees, while Saudi men wear white, which reflects the sun.

Conclusion

Sex and gender play a huge role in how we see the world and how we fit into the world. The purpose of this study was to examine the relationships among sex, gender, and leadership. It is inconceivable that in the 21st century there is still a tremendous gap in the numbers of women and men in leadership positions. This gap can no longer be blamed on a lack of qualified women. More women than men in the 25 to 29 age group were high school graduates in 2000: 89 percent of women, compared with 87 percent of men this age. Thirty percent of women in this age group held a bachelor's degree or better, compared with 28 percent of men. Women have also been the majority of college students since 1979 (U.S. Census, 2000). If not qualifications, what?

This study sought to examine the role of communication style in the perception of leadership. Specifically, the role of gendered communication style was examined with sex of leader. A quantitative design based on Goldberg's (1968) experimental paradigm was used with four versions of a leadership survey. The four versions represented the four possible sex and gender combinations of leaders: masculine male, masculine female, feminine male, and feminine female. The survey included Renzetti's (1987) Sex Role Attitudinal Inventory, briefly described a leader, and measured the perception of his or her leadership based on different dimensions of leadership. The dimensions used were task, relationship, Task/Dynamism, Relationship/Organizational Identity/Qualifications,

and an overall leadership dimension encompassing all the dimensions. The survey link was sent via the Internet. Two sampling techniques (snowball and convenience) and two samples were used—resulting in 213 usable surveys for the first (general) sample and 187 usable surveys for the second (community college) sample. Neither of the samples was particularly diverse, mostly white, middle-aged, upper-middle class women.

The results of this study suggest that there are few differences in the ways in which women and men in leadership are perceived based on their communication style. In most cases, women and men were rated similarly, with feminine communication being the preferred style across the board. These results were unexpected; previous research suggested that masculine communication was preferred in task-oriented situations and feminine communication was preferred in relationship-oriented situations. This study does not confirm this. Perhaps this says more about the followers than it does the leaders; we may be more willing to accept a feminine style of communication. In spite of the limitations of this study, it makes a contribution to the discipline. Much of the research in communication studies and leadership studies looks at either sex or gender. This brings the two together to get the bigger picture. Not all women are feminine and not all men are masculine, and they cannot be studied as if they are. Feminine/masculine is a continuum on which we all fall; some are more in line with their sex and others are not. What remains to be seen is how quickly effective leaders, both male and female, with a feminine communication style can break through the glass ceiling.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Pilot Study Survey

Communication Style

Instructions: By completing this survey, I attest that I am at least 18 years of age, understand my participation is voluntary and I am free to withdraw at any time. All of my responses will be anonymous and the surveys will be kept confidential by the researchers.

Please read the following description:

Feminine Female Version*

Julie Jones attended a prestigious business school and graduated with honors. She has worked in her field for 10 years and is a superstar. She is laid back and easygoing. She never tells you to do something; she always asks. For example, she asks you if you can "have the plan on my desk by noon?" She never hesitates to mention that you do a good job. She takes care to be understood when speaking to you and asks many times if what she is saying makes sense. She knows you have been doing your job for several years and occasionally reminds you if you need anything to ask. Meetings are a place where she seeks others' opinions and gives others the opportunity to shine. She invites others to give her feedback, both positive and negative, and is always willing to take time with those who need her. She gives constructive criticism and suggests that you try alternatives. She listens when others talk. In passing, she frequently mentions what a good job you are doing. She considers need for days off rather than seniority or "first come, first served." She treats everyone as an individual and is easy to talk to. She recognizes that she does not have all the answers and is flexible.

Feminine Male Version*

John Jones attended a prestigious business school and graduated with honors. He has worked in his field for 10 years and is a superstar. He is laid back and easygoing. He never tells you to do something; he always asks. For example, he asks you if you can "have the plan on my desk by noon?" He never hesitates to mention that you do a good job. He takes care to be understood when speaking to you and asks many times if what he is saying makes sense. He knows you have been doing your job for several years and occasionally reminds you if you need anything to ask. Meetings are a place where he seeks others' opinions and gives others the opportunity to shine. He invites others to give him feedback, both positive and negative, and is always willing to take time with those who need him. He gives constructive criticism and suggests that you try alternatives. He listens when others talk. In passing, he frequently mentions what a good job you are doing. He considers need for days off rather than seniority or "first come, first served." He treats everyone as an individual and is easy to talk to. He recognizes that he does not have all the answers and is flexible.

Masculine Female Version*

Mary Smith attended a prestigious business school and graduated with honors. She has worked in her field for 10 years and is a superstar. She always seems to be in a hurry and when she wants you to do something, she generally tells you to do it. For example, She tells you to "have the plan on my desk by noon." She never mentions that you do a good job. She is difficult to understand when she speaks. Even though you have been doing your job for several years, she tells you exactly what your job requirements are and, often, how to do it. In meetings she controls things with Robert's Rules of Order, regardless of how few or how many others are in the meeting. She does not take criticism well. She is not approachable. She does not give you criticism in a positive manner. She is not a good listener. She never tells you how you are doing. She typically gets right to the point. She decides who will get requested days off on a "first come, first served" basis rather than a need basis. She does not treat people as individuals. She is not easy to talk to. She does not listen to what people say to her. She is inflexible.

Masculine Male Version*

David Smith attended a prestigious business school and graduated with honors. He has worked in his field for 10 years and is a superstar. He always seems to be in a hurry and when he wants you to do something, he generally tells you to do it. For example, he tells you to "have the plan on my desk by noon." He never mentions that you do a good job. He is difficult to understand when he speaks. Even though you have been doing your job for several years, he tells you exactly what your job requirements are and, often, how to do it. In meetings he controls things with Robert's Rules of Order, regardless of how few or how many others are in the meeting. He does not take criticism well. He is not approachable. He does not give you criticism in a positive manner. He is not a good listener. He never tells you how you are doing. He typically gets right to the point. He decides who will get requested days off on a "first come, first served" basis rather than a need basis. He does not treat people as individuals. He is not easy to talk to. He does not listen to what people say to her. He is inflexible.

* Participants received one description of a leader with the questionnaire. The actual questionnaire did not include the labels at the top of the description.

Directions: On the following scale, indicate to what degree you would expect this leader to do or be the following.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

1. Readily express admiration for others. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2. To be friendly, habitually acknowledge verbally other's contributions. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3. When he/she disagrees with somebody he/she is very quick to challenge them. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4. He/she can always repeat back to a person *exactly* what was meant. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5. He/she is a very precise communicator. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6. Usually I *deliberately react* in such a way that people *know* I am listening to them. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
7. Usually I do not tell people much about myself until I get to know them well. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8. I am an *extremely* open communicator. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9. In arguments I insist upon very precise definitions. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
10. In most social situations, I generally speak very frequently. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
11. I like to be strictly accurate when I communicate. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
12. I readily reveal personal things about myself. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
13. I am dominant in social situations. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
14. I am very argumentative. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
15. Once I get wound up in a heated discussion, I have a hard time stopping myself. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
16. I really *like* to listen *very carefully* to people. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
17. Very often I insist that other people document or present some kind of proof for what they are arguing. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
18. I try to take charge of things when I am with people. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
19. It bothers me to drop an argument that is not resolved. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
20. In most social situations I tend to come on strong. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
21. I am always an *extremely* friendly communicator. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
22. Whenever I communicate I tend to be encouraging to people. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
23. As a rule I openly express my feelings and emotions. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
24. I am an *extremely attentive* communicator. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
25. I am a *very* good communicator. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
26. I always find it *very easy* to communicate on a one-to-one basis with strangers. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
27. In a small group of strangers, I am a *very good* communicator. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
28. I find it extremely easy to maintain a conversation with a member of the opposite sex *whom I have just met*. 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Directions: Using the following scale, circle the number that best represents how well each of the following adjectives describes you.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never True Of Me	Usually Not True of Me	Very Rarely True of Me	Sometimes True of Me	Often True of Me	Usually True of Me	Always True of Me

1. Helpful	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
2. Independent	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
3. Forceful	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
4. Sensitive to Others	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
5. Understanding	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
6. Act as Leader	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
7. Assertive	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8. Strong Personality	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
9. Compassionate	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
10. Yield to Others	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
11. Eager to Soothe Hurt Feelings	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
12. Dominant	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
13. Warm	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
14. Defend my Beliefs	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
15. Tender	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
16. Friendly	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
17. Analytical	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
18. Competitive	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
19. Gentle	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
20. Emotionally Reserved	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

What is your sex (circle one)? Female Male

I was born in 19__

What is your race/ethnicity (circle all that apply)?

Asian American Black/African America European American/White

Latina/Latino Native American Pacific Islander

Other: _____

Thank you for your participation

Appendix B

Leadership Survey-Readable Format

Communication Style

Informed Consent: By completing this survey, I attest that I am at least 18 years of age, understand my participation is voluntary and I am free to withdraw at any time. All of my responses will be anonymous and the surveys will be kept confidential by the researchers.

Instructions: Below is a series of statements about sex-roles. Please indicate your level of agreement with each statement using the following scale:

Undecided	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
0	1	2	3	4	5	6

1. For a woman, marriage should be more important than a career.	**0**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
2. Most men are better suited for politics than are most women.	**0**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
3. For a woman to be truly happy, she needs to have a man in her life.	**0**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
4. If a husband and wife each have an equally good career opportunity, but in different cities, the husband should take the job and the wife should follow.	**0**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
5. A wife should willingly take her husband's name at marriage.	**0**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
6. There are some jobs and professions that are more suitable for men than for women.	**0**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
7. Women should take care of running their homes and leave running the country up to men.	**0**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
8. For a woman in college, popularity is more important than grade point average.	**0**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**
9. Career women tend to be masculine and domineering.	**0**	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**

Directions: Read the following description about a leader.

Feminine Female*

Julie Jones attended a prestigious business school and graduated with honors. She has worked in her field for 10 years and is a superstar. She is laid back and easygoing. She never tells you to do something; she always asks. For example, she asks you if you can "have the plan on my desk by noon?" She never hesitates to mention that you do a good job. She takes care to be understood when speaking to you and asks many times if what she is saying makes sense. She knows you have been doing your job for several years and occasionally reminds you if you need anything to ask. Meetings are a place where she seeks others' opinions and gives others the opportunity to shine. She invites others to give her feedback, both positive and negative, and is always willing to take time with those who need her. She gives constructive criticism and suggests that you try alternatives. She listens when others talk. In passing, she frequently mentions what a good job you are doing. She considers need for days off rather than seniority or "first come, first served." She treats everyone as an individual and is easy to talk to. She recognizes that she does not have all the answers and is flexible.

Feminine Male*

John Jones attended a prestigious business school and graduated with honors. He has worked in his field for 10 years and is a superstar. He is laid back and easygoing. He never tells you to do something; he always asks. For example, he asks you if you can "have the plan on my desk by noon?" He never hesitates to mention that you do a good job. He takes care to be understood when speaking to you and asks many times if what he is saying makes sense. He knows you have been doing your job for several years and occasionally reminds you if you need anything to ask. Meetings are a place where he seeks others' opinions and gives others the opportunity to shine. He invites others to give him feedback, both positive and negative, and is always willing to take time with those who need him. He gives constructive criticism and suggests that you try alternatives. He listens when others talk. In passing, he frequently mentions what a good job you are doing. He considers need for days off rather than seniority or "first come, first served." He treats everyone as an individual and is easy to talk to. He recognizes that he does not have all the answers and is flexible.

Masculine Female*

Mary Smith attended a prestigious business school and graduated with honors. She has worked in her field for 10 years and is a superstar. She always seems to be in a hurry and when she wants you to do something, she generally tells you to do it. For example, She tells you to "have the plan on my desk by noon." She never mentions that you do a good job. She is difficult to understand when she speaks. Even though you have been doing your job for several years, she tells you exactly what your job requirements are and, often, how to do it. In meetings she controls things with Robert's Rules of Order, regardless of how few or how many others are in the meeting. She does not take criticism well. She is not approachable. She does not give you criticism in a positive manner. She is not a good listener. She never tells you how you are doing. She typically gets right to the point. She decides who will get requested days off on a "first come, first served" basis rather than a need basis. She does not treat people as individuals. She is not easy to talk to. She does not listen to what people say to her. She is inflexible.

Masculine Male*

David Smith attended a prestigious business school and graduated with honors. He has worked in his field for 10 years and is a superstar. He always seems to be in a hurry and when he wants you to do something, he generally tells you to do it. For example, he tells you to "have the plan on my desk by noon." He never mentions that you do a good job. He is difficult to understand when he speaks. Even though you have been doing your job for several years, he tells you exactly what your job requirements are and, often, how to do it. In meetings he controls things with Robert's Rules of Order, regardless of how few or how many others are in the meeting. He does not take criticism well. He is not approachable. He does not give you criticism in a positive manner. He is not a good listener. He never tells you how you are doing. He typically gets right to the point. He decides who will get requested days off on a "first come, first served" basis rather than a need basis. He does not treat people as individuals. He is not easy to talk to. He does not listen to what people say to her. He is inflexible.

* Participants received one description of a leader with the questionnaire. The actual questionnaire did not include the labels at the top of the description.

For each of the following statements, circle the number that best represents your opinion or feeling about **Leader's Name**.

Undecided	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
0	1	2	3	4	5	6

1. I would expect this leader to know and understand the problems faced by subordinates.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. I would expect this leader to offer guidance in solving job-related problems.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. I would probably continue working for this leader even if I didn't need the money.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. I do not believe that this person is well-trained.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. I would describe this person as aggressive.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. I would be very proud to be an employee of this leader.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. I would expect this person to listen and pay attention to me.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. I would describe this person as bold.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. I would expect this leader's meetings to be well organized.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. I would expect this leader to be inexperienced.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. I would describe myself to others in the organization as "I work for Julie Jones."	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. I would describe this leader as qualified.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. I would describe this leader as emphatic.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. Julie's communication would make me identify with the Organization and feel part of it.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. I would expect this leader's written communication and directives to be clear and concise.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. I would describe this leader as skilled.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. I would be very proud to be an employee of Julie Jones.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. I would describe this leader as uninformed.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. I would describe this leader as energetic.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. I would describe this leader as active.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

Please circle one.

Sex: Female Male

Socio-economic Background: Blue Collar White Collar

Education Level:

Some high school High School Graduate Some College

Associates Degree Bachelor's Degree Some Graduate Work

Master's Degree Professional Doctorate

Race: African American/Black Asian American/Pacific Islander

European American/White Latino/a

Middle Eastern American Mixed

Native American Other_____

Age: 18- 26

27-41

42-60

Above 60

VITA

linda pysher jurczak was born in Easton, Pennsylvania on July 5, 1959. She graduated from Easton Area High School in 1977. In 1997, after years spent in various low-level management positions in the leisure and hospitality industries, she decided to go to college. She received a B.A. in Communications in 2001 and a Master's of Science in Speech Communication in 2003, both from the University of Tennessee. Her research focus is on organizational and political communication from a feminist perspective.

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