ABSTRACT

This study explored the nature of leadership styles in women and men. Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire was administered as a means of objective assessment of the leadership style of various professionals. Previous studies have identified and outlined the potential for women and men to exhibit different stylistic tendencies in leadership roles. This study first aimed to identify whether women would exhibit more transformational and men more transactional leadership behaviors on the MLQ. Secondly, this study also aimed to identify the predicting effect of gender and age on leadership styles in an organizational setting. To test these hypotheses, statistical tests were performed, including t-tests and seven sequential multiple regression analyses, on the results of the leadership questionnaire. Contrary to previously established meta-analyses of gender and leadership, this study found that neither women nor men tended to exhibit more transformational or transactional behaviors. Worth noting is the fact that women did differ significantly from men on one of the five transformational subscales: individual consideration. Additionally, this study's results found no predictive capacity of age for leadership style. The need for further research into the leadership styles of professionals of various ages and at different levels in their field may in turn help streamline professional training standards and the expectations of different individuals in supervising capacities within a business setting.

Gender Differences in Occupational Leadership Styles

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by

Susan Williams Moore

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"Gender Differences in Occupational Leadership Styles"

by
Susan Williams Moore

APPROVED BY:

DIRECTOR OF
DISSERTATION/THESIS:_____
John Cope, Ph.D.

COMMITTEE MEMBER: _____
Karl Wuensch, Ph.D.

COMMITTEE MEMBER: _____
Mark Bowler, Ph.D.

CHAIR OF THE DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY:_____
Kathleen A. Row, Ph.D.

DEAN OF THE GRADUATE SCHOOL: _____
Paul J. Gemperline, PhD

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CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

Leadership has been characterized as "activity aimed at bringing about change in an organization or social system to improve people's lives" (Astin & Leland, 1991, p. 7). Such responsibility suggests that leaders are charged with an enormous burden to effect organizational and social change. Hence, competent, steady, and progressive leadership can be a critical factor that determines whether an organization survives and thrives or succumbs to the pressures and challenges of today's increasingly competitive marketplace. Identifying successful leadership qualities is a challenging and dynamic task and has been a topic of decades-long debate among industrial psychologists (Terman, 1904). The extensiveness of leadership studies in various organizational frameworks and structures is a testament to its elusiveness.

The overwhelming volume of information on leadership adds to the complexity of trying to determine a single definition of leadership (Murray, 1995). There are as many definitions of the word leadership as there are perspectives on the nature of leadership itself (McWhinney, 1997). Researchers define leadership differently depending upon the audience or unit of study. For example, leadership qualities specific to fields within academia may be quite different than those observed and valued in the business world. Such differences tend to occur within the context in which they are applied.

There are numerous alternative perspectives of leadership held by popular business leaders, scholars, and philosophers. Warren Bennis, a modern-day expert who has made significant contributions to leadership and management theories, declared that "leaders have a clear idea of what they want to do, personally and professionally, and the strength to persist in the face of setbacks, even failures" (Bennis, 1989, p. 7). Peter Drucker, another scholarly contributor to leadership studies, identified a clear differentiation between management and

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leadership behaviors and qualities (Scullion, 2005). To further contribute to the discussion, Judge

et al. (2006) opined that "leaders are, by definition, at the pinnacle of any society's largest

organizations and their actions have the potential to change the course of history" (p. 203). These

few depictions of leadership suggest a dynamic and fluid conceptualization of the idea of

leadership. Since there seems to be accepted agreement that there is no single theory or model of

leadership and that variations of desired qualities and behaviors are contingent upon multiple

factors (Yukl, 1981), it may be more appropriate to depict one recurring theme to lend more

insight into the study of leadership. The theme of influence, a salient concept that permeates the

various characterizations of leadership and plays a significant role in its execution, could be a

focal point that helps bring commonality to divergent perspectives (Aguinis, Nesler, Hosoda, &

Tedeschi, 1994).

Leadership Studies

Tracing the origins of the historically influential studies of leadership provides a clearer

picture of traditional and modern theories of leadership. The early 1920s and late 1930s

Hawthorne studies transformed the perception of management and leadership (Roethlisberger &

Dickson, 1939). Prior to these studies, leaders believed that monetary compensation was the

primary motivating factor for employees (Maslow, 1943). However, during the course of a series

of experiments at the Hawthorne Works factory in Illinois, research suggested that this simplistic

motivation theory could be challenged (Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1939). The most noted series

of experiments are known as the illumination studies (Olson, Verley, Santos, & Coresta, 2004).

Originally, researchers were interested in the relationship between light intensity and employee

productivity. Even though the change in lighting for the test group did affect productivity, the

researchers started to notice other factors involved (Roethlisberger & Dickson, 1939). The human interaction with employees in the control group was positively affecting productivity. The study revealed there are other motivating factors than financial reward. A relationship between human observation and production may exist (Merrett, 2006).

Following the illumination studies, the relay assembly experiments and the bank wiring room studies of the Hawthorne Studies shed light on other factors that may motivate employees (Parsons, 1974). In the relay assembly series, changing the variables of compensation, length of the workday, and rest breaks increased productivity (Mayo, 1931). Researchers revealed, as in the illumination studies, the human variable played a part in productivity (Gale, 2004). The participants in the experiment received special attention by being separated from the other workers, possibly motivating them to work more diligently. They also formed a team, thus leading researchers to hypothesize that group dynamics may have played a part in the equation. Unlike the relay assembly experiments, the bank wiring room studies did not increase productivity. Men were offered more incentives if they increased production. Ironically, the incentive restricted the men's production. The men believed that the incentive would alter their base rate, so they collectively controlled the output. The informal group norms established by the men revealed that peer pressure and conformity were more important than monetary incentive (Mayo, 1931). These two studies were the impetus to broaden the exploration of personal relationships and the impact on the workforce (Jenkins, 1940).

Following the Hawthorne Studies, Lewin, Lippitt, and White (1939) further investigated the relationship between group dynamics and different styles of leadership. Boys were exposed to three distinct types of leadership: authoritarian, democratic, and laissez-faire. Depending on one of the three types of leadership employed, the patterns of behavior exhibited by the boys

vacillated. Unlike in the Hawthorne Studies, productivity was assessed indirectly. The effect on hostile, aggressive, and apathetic behavior as it relates to leadership style was explored. Furthermore, Lewin et al. may be viewed as the pioneers in studying leadership scientifically. Ironically, they chose to focus on authoritarian, democratic, and laissez-faire styles, which are still being studied today.

In the 1940s, a group of researchers at Ohio State University conducted a series of leadership studies (Stogdill & Shartle, 1948). They formed an interdisciplinary group consisting of members from the field of psychology, sociology, and economics. One of their goals was to improve the methodology of studying leadership. The team agreed that leadership was a group-oriented goal activity that needed to be studied as such. They developed the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ). This questionnaire was administered to widely diverse populations in order to assess a variety of leaders' descriptive styles (Petty & Pryor, 1974). Through factor analysis of these studies and previous leadership studies, two distinct leadership dimensions surfaced: consideration and initiating structure. Consideration often refers to the human relations aspect of leadership style. To simplistically illustrate this dimension, leaders take into consideration individual needs when making managerial decisions and good relationships among the group. Initiating structure refers to the stringent task orientation of leadership style. Leaders define roles, explain tasks, and set goals for their subordinates in order for the group to meet obtainable objectives. Although these dimensions can be viewed as isolated and distinct aspects of leadership, they both are vital to overall leader effectiveness (Korman, 1966). Furthermore, the development of the LBDQ laid the foundation for the two modern leadership camps: transactional and transformational leadership.

Traditional Leadership Styles

Early theories of leadership claimed that groups performed at their optimum if they were led by "the most adequate all-around leader" (Borgatta, Bales, & Couch, 1954, p. 755). Logically researchers wanted to isolate those traits that distinguished a leader from that of an average leader. The trait theories of leadership evolved from the assertion that leaders' characteristics differ from those of non-leaders. Researchers sought to dissect the personality traits that could be considered universal among effective leaders (Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1991). Stogdill's (1948) and Mann's (1959) review of such studies reported a slightly positive relationship between intelligence and leadership. These reports had a chilling effect on trait studies going forward. Researchers were expecting to find more profound, consistent traits that could predict leadership perceptions among various groups in different situations (Lord, de Vader, & Alliger, 1986).

With approximately 18,000 words that describe personality (Allport & Odbert, 1936), trimming down traits into a manageable number would be a daunting task. Just the sheer number of descriptions for personality may be one reason for the disappointing results of early trait studies. Even though much progress was not made between Stogdill's (1948) and Mann's (1959) review, Lord et al. (1986) revisited traits as predictors of leadership with their meta-analysis. With the resurgence of this research, there was a need to determine a concise, thorough, and inclusive model of personality traits that would be suitable for the business and psychology community (McCrae & Costa, 1985).

McCrae and Costa (1985) attempted to provide clarity to the trait debate by comparing the Eysenck scales (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1975) to the widely reproduced five-factor model (Goldberg, 1980). Eysenck scales included four dimensions: neuroticism, extraversion, psychoticism, and lie. Tupes and Christal (1961) suggested that the five-factor model includes

neuroticism, extraversion, conscientiousness, agreeableness, and culture (or openness to experience). By comparing these scales, McCrae and Costa discovered five core personality traits: conscientiousness, emotional stability, agreeableness, extraversion, and openness to experience. These traits were deemed the five-factor model, or FFM. The FFM is still one of the valid basic tools of an industrial organizational psychologist today. In fact, a meta-analysis shows the FFM relevance as it relates to trait theory. Extraversion had the highest average correlation, .31, with leader effectiveness. Conscientiousness was a close second, with a correlation of .28, followed by openness to experience (.24), neuroticism (–.24), and agreeableness (.08) (Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002). Based on the resurgence of the FFM and its relevance in today's organizations, trait theory research will continue well into the future.

The subsequent theories of leadership were an offshoot of social psychology and classic exchange theory (Yammarino & Dansereau, 2002). The group and exchange theories of leadership maintain that leadership is merely an exchange process. Positive exchange occurs between the leader and follower in which the leader offers a reward in return for a cost for the follower. Fiedler (1967) expanded the field of study by incorporating situational dimensions of leadership to develop the contingency theory of leadership. This model (Anderson & Fiedler, 1964; Fiedler, 1967) included three fundamental dimensions: the leader-member relationship, the degree of task structure, and the leader's position power. In essence, Fiedler discovered that depending on the favorableness of the situation, either a task-oriented or relationship-oriented style of leadership worked most effectively. While this theory has many outcomes depending on the variables, there is only one octant when all three are high. Although Fiedler's research received mixed reviews (Vecchio, 1983), his model is a major contribution to the study of

leadership. He is credited for developing a contingency theory that incorporated situational aspects and a leader's traits to predict effectiveness (Strube & Garcia, 1981).

Combining aspects of the contingency theory with the motivation theory of leadership resulted in the development of path-goal theory (Georgopoulos, Mahoney, & Jones, 1957). Although several researchers added to the breadth of knowledge of this theory, House (1971) and Evans (1970) are considered the theory's major contributors (Jermier, 1996). The path-goal theory depicts the means by which a leader establishes a path for his subordinates to achieve desired goals. In this theory, leadership is classified into four styles. Directive leadership involves the leader ensuring that the subordinate knows exactly what is expected in terms of performance and providing guidance accordingly. Subordinates have limited autonomy and voice in this type of leadership. With participative leadership, leaders solicit their subordinates' views and ask for guidance. Ultimately, the decision still rests with the leader. The supportive leadership style involves an affable leader who expresses authentic concern about the welfare of subordinates. Finally, achievement-oriented leadership style features a leader who is highly involved in creating challenging yet obtainable goals. Leaders provide support to the level that they are confident in their subordinates' abilities. House believed that leaders were more successful if they employed different leadership types based on the situation at hand. Leaders are able to influence a subordinate's satisfaction, motivation, and job performance by utilizing one of the four leadership styles in conjunction with situational analysis (House, 1971).

Modern Leadership Styles

Although enormous strides in leadership research have occurred, there remains a desire and need to continue building on the guiding principles that influence the development and refinement of leadership theories (Bennis, 2007). A comprehensive theory of leadership does not

exist and cannot be achieved without the collaborative efforts of many academic disciplines. The hope for the future is to fill in the gaps in our knowledge with advancement in empirical and theoretical foundations of leadership. Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Ahearne, and Bommer (1995) provided a thorough review of traditional leadership theories, suggesting that many of these studies have not been replicated and much of the information conveyed is incomplete. Historical studies and the traditional theories of leadership have led us to examine the topics of more modern theories, such as transformational and transactional leadership.

A common theme derived from the attempted leadership definitions is the importance of influence in the leadership process. The salient theme found in modern theories and processes of leadership is charisma. *Charisma* is derived from the Greek words *charis,* meaning grace, and *charizesthai*, meaning to favor. The first use of the word in a scientific setting was demonstrated by German sociologist Max Weber. Weber felt charisma was a result of magical, captivating, and gifted personalities (Bass & Avolio, 1990). He classified authority in three types: charismatic, traditional (feudal), and rational (legal). Through his studies, he explored the connection between charisma and both noneconomic and economic sources of authority (Sashkin & Burke, 1990). Weber felt charismatic leaders emerged during turbulent times to steer followers in the right direction with their powerful influence (Hollander & Offermann, 1990).

Robert House, of the University of Pennsylvania's Wharton School of Business, also addressed charismatic leadership. He was the first to study charisma in a contemporary setting. House (1977) felt that charismatic leaders possessed certain traits that enabled followers to exceed well beyond the performance expectations of the leader. Leaders exhibited high levels of self-confidence, faith, and trust in their followers, foresight, leading by example, and the genuine belief that followers could accomplish their goals. In turn, followers shared many of the leader's

beliefs, work ethics, and vision for the future. The followers formed close bonds with the leaders that resulted in a sense of self-confidence and trust in the leader's ability (House, 1977).

Transactional and Transformational Leadership Theories

Although Burns (1978) is still credited with the identification of transactional and transformational leadership, Downton (1973) coined the term "transformational leadership" in his book *Rebel Leadership: Commitment and Charisma in the Revolutionary Process.* He examined the variations in leadership of ordinary, rebellious, revolutionary, and reform leaders. Burns's research made a lasting impact on political leaders. He was intrigued with politicians' power and influence (Hollander & Offermann, 1990). To Burns, *power* was a positive term and had two components: resource and motive. Both components could be viewed by the leader and follower. For instance, a leader could utilize resources and motives to sway followers (Burns, 1978). Another area of Burns's interest was the exchange relationship of political leaders. He espoused that transactional politicians exchanged jobs for votes or subsidies for donations. In contrast to transactional leadership qualities, he attributed transformational leaders' success to their ability to influence a follower's principles and higher-order needs (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Burns believed that a main difference in the two styles of leadership was what the follower and leader furnished each other (Conger & Kanungo, 1987). Additionally, he felt that transactional leadership was more common in organizations than transformational leadership (Judge, 2004). Tracing the origins of the charismatic leadership theory links the development of transactional leadership and transformational leadership together (Bono & Judge, 2004; de Vries, 2008).

Zaleznik's (1977) research similarly explored the differences between transactional and transformational styles. He found that leaders developed goals for their followers first by assessing the followers' needs. Secondly, leaders determined feasible, realistic, and achievable

goals (Zaleznik, 1977). Zaleznik's study validated Burns's (1978) belief that transactional leaders comprehend what their followers' workplace needs are and strive to help them reach their goals if their performance is acceptable (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

Bass's (1985) research followed the same lines as Burns's (1978), but it broadened the scope of charismatic characteristics of a leader in an attempt to refine the process of transactional and transformational leadership. Unlike Burns, Bass was convinced that these two leadership types should not reside on separate ends of the spectrum. Bass acknowledged they were two distinct models; however, he felt that superior leaders must exhibit behaviors associated with both transactional and transformational styles (Judge, 2004). Bass stated:

> Transformational leaders provide their followers with a clear, motivating purpose. This purpose goes well beyond the short-term goals at hand and centers around higher order intrinsic needs. Transactional leaders concentrate on offering their followers resources in exchange for work or performance. In other words, if the leader is satisfied with the work he receives from the follower, he will reward the follower with a resource he wants, typically compensation. (Judge, 2004, p. 755)

Authentic transformational leaders place the needs of the common good ahead of their own self-interests (Avolio, Jung, Murry, & Sivasubramaniam, 1996). Bass summarized transformational leaders as those who perform the following:

1. Raise associates' level of awareness of the importance of achieving valued outcomes and the strategies for reaching them;

2. Encourage associates to transcend their self-interest for the sake of the team, organization, or larger policy;

3. Develop associates' needs to higher levels in such areas as achievement, autonomy, and affiliation, which can be both work related and not work related. (Avolio & Bass, 2004, p. 17)

Avolio and Bass (2004) created the "Full Range of Leadership Model." The model included the four dimensions of transformational theory, three of transactional theory and a nonleadership dimension. This model provided the study a means in which to assess several dimensions of various leadership styles (Avolio & Bass, 2004).

Bass first developed the MLQ in 1985 with a model that included seven leadership factors. First, he analyzed a survey of 70 senior executives and depicted 142 leadership items. Later these 142 items were given to 11 graduate MBAs and social science students. Prior to assessment of the items, these students were briefed in detail on the concepts of transactional and transformational leadership. The students then sorted the 142 items into three categories that included transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire. An item was kept for further scrutiny if eight out of the 11 students acknowledged it as transformational and none of them acknowledged it as transactional. The same procedure was followed to determine if an item was acknowledged as transactional. Seventy-three passed the scrutiny test and were revised for a different questionnaire. Further research produced the original seven leadership factors: Charisma, Inspiration, Intellectual Stimulation, Individualized Consideration, Contingent Reward, Management-by-Exception, and Laissez-Faire. However, the original version of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, or the MLQ Form 1, combined Charisma and Inspiration due to the high correlation of these factors. Bycio, Hackett, and Allen (1995) persuaded Bass to combine these factors, which resulted in a six-factor model.

Since 1985, the MLQ has undergone many revisions. As a result of additional research using revised versions of the MLQ, alterations have been made to enhance the instrument. First, Management-by-Exception is no longer a stand-alone factor. It has been divided into two factors: Management-by-Exception Active, or MBEA, and Management-by-Exception Passive, or MBEP. Leaders who fall into the MBEA category specify the behaviors and actions that are deemed inappropriate and keep track of the mistakes followers are making. Their main focus is on monitoring followers' mistakes and taking corrective action when those mistakes are made. In contrast, leaders who fall into the MBEP category only take action when a problem has become insurmountable. The leader is no longer allowed to avoid the problem.

As a result of much criticism concerning the deficient discriminate validity among some of the factors, the MLQ 5R was revised and the MLQ 5X remains (Hunt, 1991; Smith & Peterson, 1988). For instance, one of the factors, Charisma, was divided into Idealized Influence (Behavioral) and Idealized Influence (Attributed). Idealized Influence (Behavioral) depicts those behaviors that are actions of the leader. These actions reflect the leaders' ability to convey their principle values and beliefs as well as their sense of purpose. In addition, Idealized Influence (Attributed) depicts those behaviors that have an impact on followers. These behaviors help instill pride in the followers for merely being associated with the leader. The leader portrays a sense of confidence and power that has a positive impact on the followers. Another notable change in the MLQ Form 1 is that Inspiration is now referenced as Inspirational Motivation.

The MLQ 5X–short (see Appendix A) consists of 45 items that identify leaders' key behaviors. The MLQ 5X–long consists of 63 items—two items more per component, which adds to the time that is required to administer the survey. In addition, the long form is better served for

research purposes than the short form. Approximately 10 to 15 minutes is all that is required to complete the short form, thus enticing more participants to participate in the research.

The identification of key behaviors categorizes leaders as exhibiting transformational, transactional, or laissez-faire tendencies. The survey employs a 5-point scale that requires responses on the frequency in which the participant demonstrates particular behaviors. The responses are as follows: Frequently, if not always (4); Fairly often (3); Sometimes (2); Once in a while (1); and Not at all (0). The five measured transformational factors are (a) Idealized Influence (Attributed), (b) Idealized Influence (Behavior), (c) Inspirational Motivation, (d) Intellectual Stimulation, (e) Individualized Consideration. Twenty of the 45 items depict transformational leadership behaviors. Contingent Reward, Management-by-Exception (Active), and Management-by-Exception (Passive) are the three factors that demonstrate transactional leadership styles. Sixteen of the 45 items represent transactional type of leadership. Non-transactional factors include the laissez-fair factor, and four items on the survey measure this non-leadership factor.

With so much attention being placed on charismatic leadership, inspirational styles, and the augmentation effect of transformational leadership, the MLQ model was needed to expand the scope of leadership styles. Bass (1985) contended that past leadership models did not encompass an adequate range of leadership dimensions that isolated the key active leadership behaviors from the non-active leadership behaviors. Active leadership behaviors are typical of charismatic leadership styles, and nonactive behaviors are associated with laissez-faire leadership characteristics. Waldman, Bass, and Yammarino (1990) extended Bass's theory into the augmentation effect of transformational leadership. The trio believed that transformational leaders' behaviors had an amplifying effect on the follower's ability to produce beyond normal

performance expectations. Their hypothesis was that charisma augmented contingent-reward behavior, an interaction between the leader and followers that emphasized an exchange. This augmentation in turn would increase a leader's effectiveness. The additive theory is demonstrated here since charisma is a transformational quality and contingent-reward is a transactional behavior. The results showed that charisma amplified the understanding of effectiveness beyond contingent reward alone. Bass contended that transformational leadership qualities build upon those of transactional traits; therefore, transactional qualities cannot build upon those of transformational. Transactional leadership qualities are the foundation for transactional behaviors. Thus, without the presence of transactional leadership, transformational leadership would not exist (Judge, 2004).

Women in The Workforce

Traditional leadership studies focused on women in the workforce have been sparse up until more modern times. Research on gender issues has revealed differences between leadership styles of men and women (Eagly, 2005; Eagly & Carli, 2003a, 2003b; Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, & van Engen, 2003; Eagly & Karau, 2002). As women's roles in leadership positions have increased over the years due to social, political, and economic changes, there have been an increasing number of studies regarding previously established leadership theories and their application to female leaders in various roles (Miller, Taylor, & Buck, 1991).

The road to leadership in business has been long-standing with many obstacles for working women (Daily, Certo, & Dalton, 1999; Elmuti et al., 2003; Knutson & Schmidgall, 1999; Maxwell, 1997). Despite the often limited or low-wage workforce opportunities, women have contributed to the economic security of their families by working both within and outside

the home since colonial times. The early 20th century saw women in industrial and clerical jobs. World Wars I and II and the subsequent absence of men on the home front created more job growth for women. In the years since, women's participation has increased significantly in the workforce, but not without the challenge of balancing domestic and professional responsibilities (Rosener, 1990).

Traditionally, married women were expected to use their talents for the good of the family household, and those who held jobs outside the home were considered to be part of a secondary labor force. Even many hardworking women of World War II were expected to return to familial pursuits as men returned from military service and resumed their places in the workforce. Domestic challenges and chores often included housework, child rearing, cooking, and attending to the needs of their breadwinning spouses. Charity work often provided a transition from the domestic to the public sphere. Women often lent their time and talents to hospitals, churches, service organizations, and their children's schools. Volunteering fostered a woman's innate ability to be cooperative, gentle, supportive, caring, and loving. As women progressed from being domestic engineers to working outside the home, they were drawn or encouraged to become teachers, nurses, secretaries, and administrative assistants. Women who did secure positions in the business world, however, frequently were limited to staff positions of support rather than line positions of power, or leadership positions. For women who chose or were otherwise required to wander outside the domestic realm, the social norms largely dictated the path for their occupation, and they assumed jobs that somewhat exploited their maternal instinct to nurture (Rosener, 1990).

Today, women have made exceptional strides in the professional arena. Women comprise 46% of the managers and administrators in the United States and Canada (U.S. Bureau of Labor

Statistics, 2002). In fact, in many areas of management, women dominate. Women constitute

68% of managers in the medical and health services field, 66% in the human resources and social

community services, and 64% in education (Eagly & Carli, 2007, p. 20). Five percent of the top

corporate officers of Fortune 500 companies are women (Eagly et al., 2003, p. 569).

Remarkably, 23% of chief executive positions in the United States are held by women (Eagly &

Carli, 2007, p. 13). This particular statistic is remarkable because prior to 1960, executive

positions were off limits to women. Federal regulations under Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of

1964 opened the doors for more opportunities. Businesses were no longer allowed to

discriminate based on race, color, gender, national origin, or religion (Eagly & Carli, 2007).

Based on the statistics cited above, one would assume that discrimination and challenges

for women leaders have disappeared or at least subsided. According to Eagly and Carli (2007):

> For all U.S. workers in 2005, without taking into account their hours on the
>
> job or any other consideration, women earned 73 cents for every dollar that
>
> men earned. For full-time workers, women earned 81 cents for every dollar
>
> that men earned. (p. 68)

The gap in wages suggests that discrimination is still alive and well. It is important to be

cognizant of this major difference in wages, explore the causes, and identify solutions to rectify

the problem. By focusing on women leaders and the unique challenges they encounter, we may

be closer to deconstructing the continuing theme of gender disparity in the workplace. Women in

leadership roles face numerous obstacles while trying to rise to the top of the corporate ladder.

Their challenges include having to negotiate stereotypes and decipher the gender differences in

leadership styles.

Stereotypes and Gender Differences

Many working women balance the dual roles of the business world and the family/personal realm. The balancing act intensifies in the workplace, where they sometimes must juggle the "masculine" and "feminine" leadership styles. According to Gardiner and Tiggemann (1990), women inherently have a more democratic style of leadership than men. This research implies that a democratic style is stereotypically feminine. Although research suggests that women have a cultural tendency toward a democratic style of leadership, women have a natural tendency to lead democratically, they feel the pressure to adhere to the rules of conduct of men (Rosener, 1990).

Despite the significant placement advancements women have achieved in the business world, they often feel pressured to outperform their male counterparts. Women are still a minority in many instances, especially as they rise to the upper echelons of organizations. This increased visibility may attract a disproportional share of attention, real or even imagined (Gardiner & Tiggemann, 1990). According to Myers (2008), social identity implies that one derives one's self-concept not only from one's personal identity, but also in terms of whom one is not. For example, if a woman is surrounded by a majority of men, she becomes cognizant of the difference and uniqueness she brings to the table (Myers, 2008).

If women do not succeed in outperforming their male counterparts, they may be perceived as less committed to their job than men (Gardiner & Tiggemann, 1990). Women tend to overcompensate in order to be perceived as extremely competent and fully dedicated to the job and organization. Working mothers often must allow for downtime or absences associated with parenting. When a child becomes ill and has to miss school, typically it is the mother who takes time off from work to tend to the child. When children participate in extracurricular sports and

educational activities, typically the mother misses time from work to oversee the child's activities. Likewise, elder-care issues accompany some women into the business world, as three-quarters of all caregivers of aging relatives are women. These added responsibilities can lend themselves to performance pressure on the job.

A good example of the desire to overcompensate can be found in the medical field, where women practice alongside their male colleagues (Eagly & Carli, 2007). Most of a physician's early adulthood is occupied with medical school and residency. Physicians enter the medical field in their early thirties, the prime time for women to become pregnant and start a family. Female doctors with families must negotiate and compensate for their inability to work weekends and to take emergency calls during the week. Their loyalties are divided between their family and work. Unfortunately, some male medical colleagues take a dim view on the fairness of the long, grueling hours they must work in order to establish their practices versus the flexible, shorter hours females work to balance career and family. The pressure to outperform is especially rampant within the medical arena, but it is also prevalent in many other areas of business and industry.

As women climb the proverbial ladder, they may become isolated from the majority of leaders, who are typically male (Gardiner & Tiggemann, 1990). This isolation could be a result of lack of common interests, hobbies, and leisure activities outside work among men and women. Typically women become more and more deprived of leisure as they add marriage and children to their responsibilities. Women who work outside the home often radically limit their leisure time to ensure more quality time with their children. In fact, research has revealed that "having children under age six reduces women's leisure time by an hour a day and so does marriage" (Eagly & Carli, 2007, p. 55). Men typically do not cut back on their leisure activities

and thus can continue to participate in conversations at work involving extracurricular activities (Eagly & Carli, 2007). Working mothers are less apt to be able to converse with men of equal positions about hobbies and interests they share, thus creating a barrier between them. These women and men may not be able to form strong social bonds at work. Such bonds are needed to facilitate group projects, foster organizational commitment, and solidify informal and formal support. Without these bonds, isolation may occur and overall job dissatisfaction is likely.

Transformational and transactional leadership styles are a major part of the engine that drives the leadership approach taken by males and females (Eagly et al., 2003). In studies dating from 1970 to 1990, male managers and even college students perceived male managers as more successful and competent, implying that in order to be an accomplished manager, one must exhibit masculine traits (Gardiner & Tiggemann, 1990). These masculine traits are associated more with transactional styles of leadership. This style focuses on initiating structure or task-oriented performance and achievement of organizational goals. Masculine style is also characterized by competitiveness, hierarchical authority, emphasis on control, and analytical problem solving. Men often describe their leadership style in terms of how they influence their coworkers. In other words, men receive transactions from their subordinates as a result of their leadership style (van Engen, van der Leeden, & Willemsen, 2001).

Transformational leadership style is more often associated with females due to the "emphasis on manager's intellectual stimulation of, and the individual consideration given to employees" (van Engen, van der Leeden, & Willemsen, 2001, p. 583). The stereotypical feminine style—consideration or people-oriented—is characterized by the nurturing of interpersonal relationships (van Engen, van der Leeden, & Willemsen, 2001). Women base their

style on collaboration, cooperation, lower control for the leader, and problem-solving techniques based on rationale and intuition (Klenke, 1993).

Four successful leadership aspects of female leadership styles are associated with participative management (Eagly & Carli, 1990; van Engen & Willemsen, 2004). Participative management is strongly associated with many facets of transformational leadership (Bass, 1985). First, women encourage participation from subordinates and colleagues. Inclusion is essential in making people feel part of the organization instead of feeling like an outsider. Asking for suggestions to improve a process or to solve a problem before making any final decisions is crucial to participatory management. Secondly, women enjoy sharing power and information within the organization. Sharing creates a sense of loyalty by implying to employees that their ideas are respected and management trusts them with confidential information. Communication flow is improved through this process as well. Both employees and managers may embrace an open-door policy in which all parties feel comfortable being open and frank. Thirdly, participatory management styles enhance other people's self-worth. Women engage in giving appropriate employees credit and praise when it is deserved. Even the smallest recognition can boost self-worth. Employees who feel they belong to a successful organization share a sense of accomplishment with each other. Jobs may take on a new meaning or a higher purpose than just meeting performance standards. Finally, some women are able to get others excited about their work. Enthusiasm for work may spread throughout the organization, making the workplace more conducive to productivity (Rosener, 1990).

Even though a majority of women inherently are better suited for transformational styles, they still must negotiate the world of transactional and transformational leadership (Gardiner & Tiggemann, 1990). They experience a double bind in the work arena. One consequence of

choosing a stereotypical masculine style of leadership is that they may be coined prickly, uncompromising, or just maladjusted. However, if they choose to incorporate a stereotypical feminine style, they may risk being perceived as incompetent, unassertive, or ineffective (Gardiner & Tiggemann, 1990; Scott & Brown, 2006).

The intrinsic need to excel in all areas of their lives compounds the pressure many women feel to choose between career and family. Educating children of both sexes—the very population that comprises our future business leaders and employees—about the women's workplace challenges may be a key in breaking the cycle of having women bear the brunt of child care and domestic duties. Progress in this area will have been reached when work-life balance issues are related equally to women and men, signaling an egalitarian work environment.

Current Study

The current study proposes further analysis of the transactional and transformational leadership styles of women and men to add to the body of research. Research in gender differences in leadership has been noted as an important step in understanding the effectiveness of leaders in the real world (Kabacoff, 1998). Transformational leadership styles have been deemed more effective and satisfying than transactional styles (Bass, 1997, 1999; Bycio, Hackett, & Allen, 1995; Dunham-Taylor, 2000). Understanding the relationship between gender and leadership style may help individuals to more effectively mentor to aspiring or current leaders (Holmes, 2005). Furthermore self-analysis of leadership styles may provide male and female leaders with insights regarding their leadership behaviors and the implications for their followers or subordinates (Zachary, 2009).

The following hypotheses have been derived from the current literature regarding transformational and transactional leadership styles and gender studies cited previously in this

paper. Studies suggest that in leadership style, men tend to be more transactional and women tend to me more transformational (Rosener, 1990; Eagly et al., 2003; Eagly & Johnson, 1990). Understanding leaders' perspectives regarding factors contributing to their effectiveness may help link both types of leadership to specific, self-identified qualities and behaviors. The participants' responses will then be linked back to the literature to either further strengthen or challenge findings about the relationship between gender and leadership tendencies. The results will also provide information to help determine why men and women tend to employ certain leadership-style qualities.

To better understand differences and similarities between the self-perceived leadership practices of men and women, the first hypothesis states that women will tend to exhibit more transformational leadership behaviors and beliefs, whereas men will tend to exhibit more transactional leadership behaviors. It is anticipated that the results will be similar to the conclusions reached in the Eagly and Carli (2007) meta-analysis of gender and leadership studies. Using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), data indicated that female leaders were somewhat more transformational than male leaders. The study also revealed that women used more of the rewarding behaviors, an aspect of transactional leadership, than did men. Men demonstrated more laissez-faire leadership and active and passive management-by-exception strategies, also associated with transactional leadership behaviors. Essentially, the meta-analysis showed that women have generally more effective leadership styles.

Secondly, this study hypothesizes that there will be effects of gender and age on leadership styles, and there is reason to suspect that the impact of age may differ between men and women. Younger (2002) found age to be positively and directly related to transformational leadership styles, whereas Laurent and Bradney (2007) revealed that age and years of experience

were not associated with stylistic differences. Hoopes (2008) also found no difference in leadership behaviors based on age, but in this case tenure had a direct impact on styles identified within the scope of the study. Participants who served less than five years were perceived as more competent (Hoopes, 2008). Interestingly, Eagly et al.'s (2003) meta-analysis comparing gender differences in leadership discussed a possible relationship between age and leadership style. It was opined that quite possibly the seasoned female leaders were the survivors of decades of discrimination in the workplace and thus utilized the transformational style to retain their positions (Eagly et al., 2003). In a male-dominated workplace, the fact that these study results consistently identified a systematic preference for the transformational style may have steered more women into that school of thought.

To summarize:

Hypothesis 1: Women will tend to exhibit more of a transformational style of leadership (as defined by specific subscales), whereas men will tend to exhibit more of a transactional style (defined by a separate set of subscales).

Hypothesis 2: Age will be significantly related to subscale score.

CHAPTER II: METHODS

The participants in this study consisted of a sample of independent school headmasters in North Carolina. Participation was understood as voluntary in nature, and informed consent was required. Of the 43 participants, 18 were men and 25 were women. Four participants were excluded from the study since they only completed the demographic information and did not complete the survey.

Procedure

The Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Bass & Avolio, 1990) was administered as a means of objective assessment of the leadership style of men and women. Additional data obtained in the MLQ revealed the factors that the subjects attribute to their success and effectiveness as a leader. The MLQ self-report was the selected data instrument. Demographic information was acquired with the questionnaire. The data was collected online using SurveyMonkey (www.surveymonkey.com). An e-mail attachment was disseminated requesting the participation of subjects and included both survey material and documents regarding informed consent. The study was reviewed and approved by the Institutional Review Board (IRB) on April 8, 2011. A copy of the IRB approval form is presented in Appendix A.

All data was obtained in an anonymous manner. All participants were given the option to stop the questionnaire at any time during the process. Each survey took approximately 15 minutes to complete. After the collection of appropriate data on specific measures, scoring and data analysis took place using SPSS (SPSS, 2001) software.

Measures

The MLQ (Bass and Avolio, 1990) has been instrumental in the advancement of leadership research on transformational and transactional (Burns, 1978; Downton, 1973), and laissez-faire leadership (Bass, 1985). The MLQ is a leadership assessment tool that measures a wide range of leadership behaviors that can be used in service, military, and even manufacturing organizational settings. This instrument has also been used in over 100 dissertations, theses, and research investigations in countries all over the world (Avolio & Bass, 2004). The MLQ is all-encompassing in that it includes a self-report assessment and an appraisal of perceptions of the leader held by other individuals in the organization. The transformational leadership scale is composed of five transformational subscales: idealized influence (attributes), idealized influence (behavior), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individual consideration.   The transactional leadership scale is composed of subscales: contingent reward and management by exception (active). The passive-avoidant leadership scale (sometimes referred in studies as lassiez-faire) is composed of laissez-faire and management by exception (passive). For this study, the self-report assessment was only the component of the MLQ that was employed.

Data Analysis

To test hypothesis one, a *t*-test was employed for the MLQ subscales included in the questionnaire. Mean and standard deviations of reported scores were calculated and reported in Table 2 for male and female subsets within each subscale, as seen in Table 2. Two-tailed *t*-tests for samples of unequal size and unequal variance were used to determine whether the mean responses from the groups of male and female respondents were statistically different from one another (Howell, 2002).   This *t*-test was utilized in order to identify effects of demographic information on reported values for each of the leadership style subscales. An overall alpha level

of .05 was used to test the significance of this analysis, and based on standard tables of significance, p-values were established for the resulting metrics. SPSS software was utilized to conduct a multiple regression analysis of the eight MLQ subscales according to independent variables of age, gender, and an interaction factor of genderxage which represents a centered mean value of the gender and age subsets. The independent input variables were delineated according to the following numerical values within the SPSS statistical analysis: male = 1, female = 2; < 25 years = 1, 25-29 years = 2, 30-39 years = 3, 40-49 years = 4, 50-59 years = 5, and 60+ years = 6.

CHAPTER III: RESULTS

For this particular study, 82 participants were contacted to answer the questionnaire with 47 responding, a 57% response rate. Four participants were excluded from the study since they only completed the demographic information, which makes the sample size 43 individuals. Forty-two percent of participants were between the ages of 50 and 59. Twenty-six percent of the participants were between the ages of 40 and 49. Twenty-one percent were above 60 years of age and no respondents were younger than 25 years old (which represents a null set where age = 1 in later statistical analysis). Nine percent were between the ages of 30 and 39 and two percent were between 25 and 29 years old. The largest percentage of participants (33%) had been employed for three to four years. Twenty-six percent were employed between ten and fourteen years. Nineteen percent had tenure in excess of fifteen years and seven percent had been employed for less than a year. Sixteen percent had been employed between five and nine years. In terms of number of direct reports, the largest percentage of participants (30%) had between one and two direct subordinates. Twenty-eight percent had over fifteen direct reports and nineteen percent had between three and six subordinates. The lowest percentage of participants (7%) had between ten and fourteen direct reports. Sixteen percent had between seven and ten direct reports. Refer to Table 1 for respondent demograhics.

Table 1

Respondent Demographics (*N* = 43)

	Gender (number of respondents) (%)
Male	18 (42%)
Female	25 (58%)

	Age (number of respondents) (%)
Less than 25 years old	0 (0%)
25 – 29 years old	1 (2%)
30 – 39 years old	4 (9%)
40 – 49 years old	11 (26%)
50 – 59 years old	18 (42%)
Older than 60 years old	9 (21%)

	Tenure (number of respondents) (%)
Less than 2 years	3 (7%)
3 – 4 years	14 (33%)
5 – 9 years	7 (16%)
10 – 14 years	11 (26%)
More than 15 years	8 (19%)

	Direct Reports (number of respondents) (%)
1 – 2 individuals	13 (30%)
3 – 6 individuals	8 (19%)
7 – 10 individuals	7 (16%)
More than 15 individuals	12 (28%)

The first hypothesis was that women would score higher than men on the five scales associated with transformation leadership and lower than men on the two scales associated with transactional leadership. To reduce negative skewness in scores associated with idealized influence (attributed), idealized influence (behavior), inspirational motivation, and individual consideration, all scores less than 2.999 were replaced by 3. Problematic skewness was observed on the idealized influence (behavior), inspirational motivation, and individual consideration subscales when male and female sub-populations were combined. When these subgroups were separated, however, only female responses showed negative skewness for the aforementioned subscales. To reduce remaining negative skewness in the female sub-population, scores on idealized influence (behavior) and individual consideration were squared, thus alleviating the problem. As shown in Table 2, the differences between men and women all fell short of statistical significance at the .05 level, except for individual consideration. As predicted, women scored significantly higher than men on individual consideration.

Table 2

MLQ Leadership Style Metrics Weighted Against Gender Differences

	Men		Women				
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p*
Idealized Influence (attribute)[a]	3.92	.65	4.17	.62	1.367	41	.179
Idealized Influence (behavior)[a]	4.38	.71	4.40	.66	.152	41	.880
Inspirational Motivation[a]	4.28	.67	4.33	.76	.536	41	.595
Intellectual Stimulation[a]	4.11	.54	4.09	.74	.103	41	.918
Individual Consideration[a]	4.14	.52	4.42	.68	2.024	41	.049*
Contingent Reward[b]	4.01	.55	4.05	.58	.206	41	.838
Management by Exception Active[b]	2.92	.78	2.59	.76	1.374	41	.177

Notes. N (women) = 25, *N* (men) = 18 for each outcome variable.
* $p \leq 0.05$
[a] Transformational Subscales
[b] Transactional Subscales

Hypothesis 2 stated that age would predict scores on the leadership scales and that this relationship would be different for women than for men. As shown in Table 3, age was significantly correlated with scores on every leadership scale except idealized influence (attribute) and Management by Exception Active.

Table 3

Zero-Order Correlations Between All Subscale Variables

	Gender	Age	Idealat	Idealbe	Motiv	Stim	Consid	Reward
Gender[a]								
Age[b]	-.17							
Idealat	.20	.21						
Idealbe	.02	.46*	.61**					
Motiv	.08	.37*	.56**	.59**				
Stim	-.02	.31*	.75**	.65**	.51**			
Consid	.30*	.34*	.69**	.44**	.33*	.66**		
Reward	.03	.32*	.62**	.50**	.36*	.61**	.53**	
MBEA	-.21	.12	.32*	.15	.17	.18	.01	.26

Notes. $* p \leq 0.05$ (2-tailed); $** p \leq 0.01$ (2-tailed)

Idealized Influence (attribute) = Idealat, Idealized Influence (behavior) = Idealbe, Inspirational Motivation = Motiv, Intellectual Stimulation = Stim, Individual Consideration = Consid, Contingent Reward = Reward, Management by Exception Active = MBEA

[a] For Gender, 1 = men, 2 = women
[b] For Age, less than 25 years = 1, 25-29 years = 2, 30-39 years = 3, 40-49 years = 4, 50-59 years = 5, older than 60 years = 6

To determine if the relationship between leadership and age differed between men and women, seven sequential multiple regression analyses were performed. In each such analysis gender and age were added as predictors in the first step and then the interaction term in the second step. If the addition of the interaction term were to significantly increase the model R^2, then the conclusion would be that the relationship between age and leadership style differed

significantly between men and women. As shown in Table 4, the relationship between age and

leadership style did not differ significantly between men and women on any of the leadership

scales.

Table 4

Multiple Regression Analysis of Individual Subscale (by Subscale ANOVA Model)

Model	Gender x Age[a] Interaction		
	t	*p*	*df*
Idealized Influence (attribute)	.12	.33	3
Idealized Influence (behavior)	.22	.83*	3
Inspirational Motivation	.51	.34	3
Intellectual Stimulation	.10	.68	3
Individual Consideration	.17	.74	3
Contingent Reward	.13	.31	3
Management By Exception Active	.11	.11	3

Notes: *p ≤ 0.05
[a] Gender x Age reflects the centered mean of Gender (nominal) and Age (ordinal) to reduce the effect of multicollinearity on reported scores

CHAPTER IV: DISCUSSION

Neither women nor men tended to exhibit more transformational or transactional behaviors. Worth noting is the fact that women did differ significantly from men on one of the five transformational subscales: Individual Consideration ($r = .30$, $p \leq 0.05$, $CI_{.95} = .00, .55$). This finding suggests that women tended to report higher scores for this set of questions within the MLQ, and that the mean values for each gender subset represent two distinct sampling populations. This study's results were inconsistent with the Eagly and Carli (2007) meta-analysis of gender and leadership which found that women exhibit more transformational tendencies within the MLQ. Despite the trend within the Individual Consideration subscale, the fact remains that overall these MLQ results do not support the hypothesis that men and women differ significantly on transformational or transactional leadership styles.

Additionally, this study's results find no predictive capacity of age for leadership style. Past research revealed that age was directly related to transformational components (Younger, 2002: Eagly et. Al, 2003), but this study found no such effect. Therefore, within the limits of this research, no assertion can be made as to the stylistic tendencies of younger and older individuals, and the null hypothesis must be accepted. Other studies (Laurent & Bradney, 2007: Hoopesk, 2008:Eagly et. Al, 2003) have found inconsistent and sometimes contradictory trends among different age groups, and as such further research in this area is needed.

Individual Consideration and Gender

As stated previously, women in this study did significantly differ on one of the transformational subscales: individual consideration.   A common theme for this subscale is teaching, coaching, and helping of subordinates. The individual consideration subscale of the MLQ includes the following categories:

> *15. I spend time teaching and coaching*
>
> *19. I treat others as individuals rather than just as a member of a group*
>
> *29. I consider an individual as having different needs, abilities, and aspirations from others*
>
> *31. I help others to develop their strengths*

These statements suggest a sense of caregiver-type nurturing, including words like 'teaching', 'consider', and 'help'. A study by Van Engen, van der Leeden, & Willemsen (2001), likewise claimed that a feminine or transformational style of leadership tends to be characterized by the nurturing of interpersonal relationships.   These notations re-iterate the age-old assertion that the act of nurturing tends to be expressed as a more feminine trait, and as such deserve more attention. Though complex societal, behavioral and genetic components of personal leadership tendencies deserve attention, of more immediate and particular importance to this study is the origin and nature of the subscale in question.

Studies that re-examine the MLQ subscales (Avolio et al., 1999; Bycio, Hackett, & Allen, 1995; Heinitz (2005) are often critical of the non-distinquishable and highly correlated facets of the transformational scale, and in most cases found the subscales to be consistently overlapping and thus largely redundant. One study (Heinitz, 2005) further divided the transformational scale into the smaller subscales of Core Transformational Leadership and a smaller but similarly-

named Individual Consideration. In this case, the study aimed to extract and more clearly specify the characteristics associated with transformational leadership styles. Heinitz suggested that three of the nine factors included in the original Transformational scale could be omitted without compromising the overall validity of the MLQ (2005). On the other hand, Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam (2003) utilized a substantial group of homogeneous business executives to test the consistency of the nine subscales (including laissiez-faire) and found the MLQ to be a stable representation of this group's leadership tendencies. Perhaps industrial organizational psychologists should revisit the importance of each subscale and determine if one should carry more weight than the others. Furthermore, an examination of the relationship between the subscales and gender might lead us into a better understanding of how men and women lead differently within the workplace.

It is possible that the findings of this study are unique to the discipline of education, given that all individuals assessed were members of this field. Education administrators may prefer a more uniform leader in classroom settings, or there could be a pre-emptive selection criteria that favors particular leadership styles over others. Classroom education, after all, includes a significant age-dominated hierarchy whereby leaders (teachers) influence groups of significantly younger and unqualified students. Women have dominated the field of education for decades (Schmuck, 1987) and their continued presence may have impacted the leadership dynamics within this group, meaning that the tendency of one gender to favor their particular brand of leadership would not only lead them to subsequently employ more likeminded women, but also more men that shared these same leadership tendencies. Additionally, over-arching societal norms may have dictated the type of leadership required to effectively enter the education field, and this need may have necessitated a prevalence of female educators.

Study Limitations and Future Research

The first limitation to this study is the sufficient statistical power needed to conduct the analyses. Cohen (1992) conducted an a priori power analysis and determined that 128 participants were required in order to obtain power of .80. The participants in this study consisted of a sample of independent school headmasters in North Carolina. Unfortunately, the database used in the study to identify potential participants consisted of 82 participants, of which 43 were used in the analyses, well short of Cohen's recommendation. Time and resource limitations precluded further sampling, and given the inconsistent trends within these results, it is probable that future research with larger sample sizes could more confidently identify consistent leadership variances.

In its professional application, the MLQ is an all-encompassing leadership tool that includes a self-report assessment and an appraisal of perceptions of the leader held by other individuals in the organization, including subordinates of the leader in question. This study only utilized the self-report assessment part of the MLQ and did not include third party survey results. Self-assessments may have an inherent bias that lends itself to higher and more congratulatory self-reports, thus skewing this particular measure of the instrument's subscales (Dunning, Heath & Suls, 2004). Without peer and direct supervisor assessments, leaders may be processing subjective personal perception data instead of more critical and/or realistic third party scrutiny. Including a 360 ° appraisal in future research may help reveal lower ratings and/or more accurate and realistic subscale reports, thus changing the results and predictive capacity of independent variables. This study did not corroborate past research that suggested strong delineations of leadership style between men and women ((Eagly, 2005; Eagly & Carli, 2003a, 2003b; Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, & van Engen, 2003; Eagly & Karau,

2002), but it may have benefitted from this 360-degree assessment in honing in on confirmation or refutation of these results. Further research may also consider incorporating the MLQ in its entirety without individual subscale delineations in order to better extract perception from reality, as multiple sources have repeatedly identified the utility of the MLQ in professional settings (Antonakis, Avolio & Sivasubramaniam, 2003; Lowe, 1996).

This study included a homogenous group of educational leaders. Possibly the findings within this study are unique to the field of education. Further research should consider drawing from a wealth of other disciplines such as politics, health care, and advertising, all of which have particularly homogeneous (politics) or heterogeneous (advertising) leadership demographics and all of which may reveal different trends in leadership. By conducting studies separately within each field, differences among men and women in leadership styles, as well as inherent differences within each field may be more precisely reported.

Questions still remain as to the directional (linear) relationship between age and leadership styles, and whether or not this study found age to be a significant predictor, the fact remains that further analysis is needed. Do individuals become more transformational as they grow older or does their style stagnate at a particular age? Are younger individuals even aware of the difference in leadership styles is there a trend in the field of professional development that favors one style over the other? Future research should explore these questions in addition to examining other experimental variables such as income, education levels, and tenure, which play into the qualification and effectiveness of the leaders in today's society and thus deserve attention in their own right.

Organizational and Practical Implications

This study yielded results that were contrary to previously published meta-analyses (including Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, & van Engen, 2003; Eagly, & Johnson, 1990). It is important to review these results not as an anomaly, but put in relation to other, similar studies. It is possible that gender differences in leadership exist within diverse sampling populations, and that differences in leadership are less robust or non-existent within isolated disciplines of professional leadership. Regardless of the direction of future industrial organizational psychology research, leadership may remain one of the few processes over which organizations have a great deal of control, and it is possible that business models are inadequately valuing the power of particular leadership styles in long-term growth projections. Given the recent trend toward deep and lasting federal and state budget cuts, as well as the looming threat of global financial instability, is vital today to understand more intimately the strength and effectiveness of different leadership styles so that executives and administrators can maximize efficacy and cohesion within their respective organizations.

Over the last several decades, colleges have graduated more women than men; although this change in graduation demographics has occurred, the well-publicized wage gap has experienced no such transformation (Dorning, 2011). In 2005, women earned 81 cents for every dollar earned by their male counterparts (Eagly and Carli (2007). Even today, women make 84 cents for every male dollar earned (Dorning, 2011). During the recent global recession, real estate and construction were two industries very heavily impacted by the collapse of the housing bubble (Hadi, 2011; Rampell, 2008). This resulted in disproportionately large job losses for male workers (Dorning, 2011). All of these trends seem to suggest an eminent and long-term change in the employment climate and executive demographics. Human resource departments

would do well to develop a measurement tool that assesses the effectiveness of transformational

and transactional leadership styles based on these recent changes in the long-standing gender

roles of our society.

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APPENDIX A: IRB APPROVAL FORM
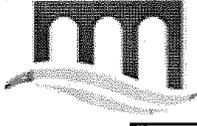
EAST CAROLINA UNIVERSITY
University & Medical Center Institutional Review Board Office
1L-09 Brody Medical Sciences Building• 600 Moye Boulevard • Greenville, NC 27834
Office **252-744-2914** • Fax **252-744-2284** • www.ecu.edu/irb

Date: April 8, 2011

Principal Investigator: Susan Moore, Graduate Student
Dept./Ctr./Institute: Department of Psychology
Mailstop or Address: swmoore@embarqmail.com

RE: **Exempt Certification** *VM*
UMCIRB#   11-0229
Funding Source: Unfunded

Title: "Gender Differences in Leadership: A Closer Look at Predictions and Perceptions of Transactional vs.
       Transformational Leadership Styles."

Dear Ms. Moore:

On 04/06/2011, the University & Medical Center Institutional Review Board (UMCIRB) determined that your
research meets ECU requirements and federal exemption criterion #2 which includes research involving the use of
educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), survey procedures, interview procedures, or
observation of public behavior on subjects 18 years of age or older, unless:

> (a) information obtained is recorded in such a manner that human subjects can be identified, directly or
> through identifiers linked to the subjects; and
> (b) any disclosure of the human subjects' responses outside the research could reasonably place the
> subjects at risk of criminal or civil liability or be damaging to the subjects' financial standing,
> employability, or reputation.

It is your responsibility to ensure that this research is conducted in the manner reported in your Internal
Processing Form and Protocol, as well as being consistent with the ethical principles of the Belmont Report and
your profession.

This research study does not require any additional interaction with the UMCIRB unless there are proposed
changes to this study. Any change, prior to implementing that change, must be submitted to the UMCIRB for
review and approval. The UMCIRB will determine if the change impacts the eligibility of the research for
exempt status. If more substantive review is required, you will be notified within five business days.

The UMCIRB Office will hold your exemption application for a period of five years from the date of this letter.
If you wish to continue this protocol beyond this period, you will need to submit an Exemption Certification
Request at least 30 days before the end of the five year period.

Sincerely,

Chairperson, University & Medical Center Institutional Review Board

Pc: Dr. John Cope

APPENDIX B: DEMOGRAPHICS

Please check the box that best reflects your answer to each of the following questions.

Gender: ☐Male   ☐Female

Age: ☐ less than 25 years   ☐ 25–29 years ☐ 30–39 years ☐ 40–49 years

☐ 50–59 years ☐ older than 60 years

How long have you been in your current work position? ☐ less than 1 year

☐ 1–2 years   ☐ 3–4 years   ☐ 5–9 years   ☐ 10–14 years ☐ 15 years or more

How many people report to you directly?

☐ 1–2 direct reports ☐ 3–6 direct reports ☐ 7–10 direct reports ☐ 10–14 direct reports

☐over 15 direct reports