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**Gender, power and leadership style: Perceptions of selected
senior level North Carolina community college administrators**

Bryan, Lori Denise, Ed.D.

The University of North Carolina at Greensboro, 1993

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GENDER, POWER AND LEADERSHIP STYLE: PERCEPTIONS OF
SELECTED SENIOR LEVEL NORTH CAROLINA
COMMUNITY COLLEGE ADMINISTRATORS

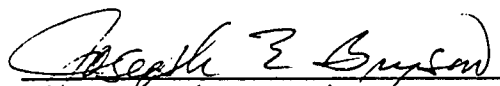
by

Lori Denise Bryan

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the Faculty of the Graduate School at
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of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Education

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Approved By


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APPROVAL PAGE

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BRYAN, LORI DENISE, Ed.D. Gender, Power, and Leadership Style: Perceptions of Selected Senior Level North Carolina Community College Administrators. (1993). Directed by Dr. Joseph E. Bryson. 81pp.

Although much has been written on gender, power, and leadership, there is still a lack of consensus as to whether men and women lead and use power in the same ways.

The purpose of this study was to explore whether self-reported leadership style and power are significantly different in men and women senior level administrators of the North Carolina Community College System. This was accomplished by sending the Leader Effectiveness Adaptability Description (LEAD) and the Power Perception Profile to 20 male and 20 female randomly selected senior level administrators across the North Carolina Community College System. Sixteen males and sixteen females completed the instruments and returned them for analysis. The dominant leadership style and differences were determined by descriptive statistics and a chi square. Power differences were determined by a manova. Based on the analysis of the data, the following conclusions were drawn:

1. The dominant style of leadership for males and females is high task, high relationship.
2. A chi square indicated that there is no significant difference between men's and women's leadership style.

3. There is no significant difference in the way men and women use power. All mean scores on the seven bases of social power were within one point when comparing men's and women's scores except, for expert power, which had a two point spread.

Recommendations for further research included that ethnicity and the use of personality inventories be considered as factors when comparing men's and women's leadership styles. It was also recommended that this study be replicated using a larger sample. In addition, employee perception instruments, along with self-perception instruments, can be included in future studies.

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CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION
OVERVIEW

"Power mad," "power behind the throne," "black power," "people power," "power lunch," and "brain power" are all familiar terms. However, what is power? It is a concept present since the beginning of time.¹ According to Hersey and Blanchard, power is the resource that enables a leader to gain compliance or commitment from others.² This definition illustrates the interconnectedness between power and leadership.³ One must have power to lead. Western culture promotes men as leaders, and women as assistants or helpers, as the norm. Women who choose to deviate from the stereotypical norm and move into leadership roles meet with much opposition.⁴

¹Genesis 1:2. American Bible Society: New York, Today's English Version, 1978.

²Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior: Utilizing Human Resources, Prentice Hall, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, 1988, p. 202.

³Ibid.

⁴Carol Tavris, The Mismeasure of Woman, Simon & Schuster, New York, 1992, p. 21-22.

Traditionally, power has been associated with men, rather than with women. As children, we are taught that men are the powerful rescuers, while women are the helpless victims waiting for someone to rescue them.⁵ Fairy tales such as "Cinderella" and "Sleeping Beauty" provide examples to illustrate this point. In these fairy tales the role portrays the male as the leader and the female as the follower. However, contemporary studies indicate that women can be as effective in leadership roles as men.⁶

Numerous theories concerning leadership and leadership style abound. From the classic Hawthorne Studies to Situational Leadership, researchers are in disagreement as to the preferred way to lead.⁷ Forisha states that leadership effectiveness may also be based on the sex of the

⁵Ibid, p. 302.

⁶Stephen M. Brown, "Male Versus Female Leaders: A Comparison of Empirical Studies," Sex Roles, Vol. 5, p. 595-611. Gregory H. Dobbins and Stephanie J. Platz, "Sex Differences in Leadership: How Real Are They?," Academy of Management Review, Vol. 11, No. 1, 1986, p. 118-127. Sam Donnell and John Hall, "Men and Women Managers: A Significant Case of No Significant Difference," Organizational Dynamics, 8, 1980, p. 60-77.

Benson Rosen and Thomas H. Jerdee, "Perceived Sex Differences in Managerially Relevant Characteristics Among Female Managers," Journal of Applied Psychology, 60, 1975, p. 340-344.

⁷Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard, p. 51-66, 87-102, 116.

leader.⁸ Male and female stereotypes have an influence on the "perceptions" of those who interact with the leader.

Forisha describes these stereotypes:

According to the traditional stereotype, being masculine means being assertive, being interested in things rather than people, being analytical and manipulative, and being able to get things done! Men are thought to be able to see themselves as separate from their environment. They are supposed to be able to stand back and analyze any problem--whether it has to do with people or things--and from this analysis to be able to come up with a solution. Men are traditionally skilled in leadership... According to this stereotype, men's sense of self-worth depends on meeting these expectations: being strong, analytical, and dominant.

According to the contrasting traditional stereotype for women, being feminine implies interdependence, interest in others, and skill in interpersonal relationships... They are thought of as nurturing, tender, receptive, empathetic, and submissive. They smooth the way for others, namely men, who do not have such capabilities. The self-esteem of women is viewed as being derived from serving well and pleasing others, particularly men.⁹

As a result, power and leadership traditionally blend well with the stereotype of men, while women are still

⁸Barbara L. Forisha, Sex Roles and Personal Awareness, Scott, Foresman and Company, Morristown, New Jersey, 1978, p. 18-22.

⁹Ibid, p. 23-24.

struggling for leadership positions.¹⁰ Although the passage of Title VII of the 1964 Civil Rights Amendment and women's movement of the 1960's has brought more women into senior level positions, males still dominate the field.¹¹ Morrison, White, and Van Velsor's groundbreaking book, Breaking the Glass Ceiling: Can Women Reach the Top of America's Largest Corporation?, substantiates that this is presently still the case.¹²

The lack of female senior level administrators is also prevalent in the North Carolina Community College System. A recent teleconference conducted by the State Department of Community Colleges stated that there has been only three female presidents in its 29 year history, two of which have been appointed in the last five years.¹³ The North Carolina Community College System, chartered in 1963, consists of 58 institutions serving the 100 counties across the state.

¹⁰Ann M. Morrison, Randall P. White, and Ellen Van Velsor, Breaking the Glass Ceiling: Can Women Reach the Top of America's Largest Corporations?, Addison Wesley, Reading, Massachusetts, 1978, p. 5.

¹¹Ibid, p. 6. See also William Kaplan, The Law of Higher Education, Jossey Bass, San Francisco, Ca., 1985, p. 121 and 130.

¹²Morrison, et al. p. 6-7.

¹³Quote from a teleconference conducted February, 1992, by North Carolina Department of Community Colleges.

Significance of the Study

The issues of gender and power have been addressed within feminist scholarship and have been intensified over the past two decades.¹⁴ While the precise nature of these issues remains rather shadowy, the interconnectedness of power and leadership, however, has also been confirmed.¹⁵ The issues of gender, power and leadership are also important components in the North Carolina Community College System. There have been no studies on senior level male and female administrators in the North Carolina Community College System about the possible differences in leadership style and power. A self-report study is needed to ascertain whether these differences exist.

While more women are moving into senior level positions in the North Carolina Community College system, there has been no specific study to test differences in the use of power and leadership style of men and women. My study is significant because men and women leaders need to develop an awareness of how power is used in their leadership positions. If one uses power in their leadership positions in a way that is viewed as ineffective, s/he may have difficulty being an effective leader. This study will also

¹⁴Kathy Davis, Monique Yeyenaar, and Jantine Olderesma (Editors), The Gender of Power, Sage Publications, London, 1991, p. 1-18.

¹⁵Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard, p. 204.

help men and women develop an awareness of the importance of leadership style. If one is not viewed as having the capacity to lead, it would be difficult to move into a senior level position.

Purpose

The purpose of this study is to explore whether self-reported leadership style and power are significantly different in men and women senior level administrators of the North Carolina Community College System.

Questions to be Answered

In order to address the purpose of this study the following questions will be tested:

1. What are the male and female dominate styles of leadership of senior level North Carolina Community College Administrators?
2. Is there a significant difference between men and women's leadership style?
3. Is there a significant difference between men and women's use of power?

Organization of the Remainder of the Study

The remainder of this study is divided into three major parts. Chapter 2 reviews the literature related to gender, power and leadership. Gender is discussed, including how

it impacts the way men and women are perceived as leaders. Power and leadership are discussed from an historical perspective and include how they interrelate.

Chapter 3 identifies the methodology used in this study. There are 58 community colleges in North Carolina. Male and female senior level administrators were randomly selected from this system. The instruments administered were Hersey and Blanchard's Leader Effectiveness Adaptability Description (LEAD) and the Power Perception Profile. Also discussed are the rationale for selection of these instruments, along with a presentation of validity and reliability information.

Chapter 4 discusses the results of the instruments which were administered. Significant differences in male and female leadership style and use of power in the North Carolina Community College System will be examined.

Chapter 5 contains a summary of the information obtained from the literature review and from an analysis of the test results. The research questions are answered and discussed, along with suggestions for further study.

Definition of Terms

Gender - The expected roles of males and females based on social theory.¹⁶

¹⁶Barbara Forisha, p. 19.

Leadership - The process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation. From this definition of leadership, it follows that the leadership process is a function of the leader, the follower, and other situational variables.¹⁷

Leadership Style - Consistent behavior patterns used when working with and through people, as perceived by those people.¹⁸

Power - The resource that enables a leader to gain compliance or commitment from others.¹⁹

Senior Level Administrator - Senior level administrator includes the president, executive vice president, chief business officer, chief instructional officer, chief continuing education officer, chief student affairs officer, and chief evening programs officer, chief institutional researcher/development/planning/effectiveness officer, and chief other senior administrator.²⁰

¹⁷Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard, p. 86.

¹⁸Ibid, p. 146.

¹⁹Ibid, p. 202.

²⁰1992 Higher Education Directory, Mary P. Rodenhouse, Editor, Higher Education Publications, Falls Church, Virginia.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

INTRODUCTION

The review of the literature will be divided into three major sections:

1. Gender Differences
2. Leadership
3. Power

These major sections are relevant to the research questions posed in Chapter 1.

The content of these sections overlap somewhat, as their interconnectedness makes it difficult to discuss each completely and separately. Gender differences can be studied based on social theory, while leadership theories can be used to illustrate how leaders are "perceived." The literature is rich with numerous leadership theories, many of which address the concept of power. The plethora of research on these items can be traced from Machiavelli to the Twentieth Century.¹

¹Bernard M. Bass, Handbook of Leadership, Collier Macmillan Publishers, London, 1990, p. 15.

An emphasis on progressive leadership has been part of the 29- year history of the North Carolina Community College System. Each year all community colleges in North Carolina are allocated funds to send two employees from each school to a leadership training program coordinated through North Carolina State University.² This training provides opportunities for women, as well as men, to develop their leadership potential.

Gender Differences

In order to gain an understanding of gender differences, one has to look at how children are socialized--since gender is learned.³ There are three basic theories which play a role in the explanation of how boys acquire masculine gender traits and girls acquire feminine gender traits.

The first is Identification Theory. This theory is rooted in the work of Sigmund Freud (1856-1939).⁴ According to Freud, the mother is the primary care giver.

²1992 Higher Education Directory, Mary P. Rodenhouse, Editor, Higher Education Publications, Falls Church, Virginia.

³Barbara L. Forisha, Sex Roles and Personal Awareness, Scott, Foresman and Company, Morristown, New Jersey, 1978, p. 20.

⁴Claire Renzetti and Daniel Curran, Women, Men and Society, Allyn and Bacon, Boston, Mass. 1989, p. 61-63.

At about age four, female children identify with the mother, while male children break the attachment with their mother to be more like their father. The mother and daughter maintain an ongoing relationship providing the daughter with feminine (care giving) characteristics.⁵

The second theory, Social Learning Theory, comes from the school of behaviorism. Social Learning Theory states that boys and girls are rewarded or punished for appropriate or inappropriate gender behavior.⁶

Children learn quickly that certain toys, clothing, and colors are related to gender.⁷ Toys for boys encourage exploration and invention, while toys for girls encourage creativity and nurturance. Children's books stereotype boys and girls. Boys are depicted as adventurous and girls are seen as helpers.⁸

⁵Nancy Chodorow, The Reproduction of Mothering, University of California Press, Berkeley, Ca. 1978.

⁶Carol Tavis, The Mismeasure of Woman, Simon & Schuster, New York, 1992, p. 290-291.

⁷Mary Shakin and L. Sternglanz, "Infant Clothing: Sex Labeling for Strangers," Sex Roles, 12, 1985, p. 955-964. Hal Rheingold and K. Cook, "The Content of Boys and Girls Rooms as an Index of Parents Behavior," Child Development, 46, 1975, p. 459-463.

⁸Ibid.

The third theory, Cognitive-Development Theory, is based on the principles of Piaget and Kohlberg.⁹ Children learn gender behavior through their mental efforts to organize their social world. They look at men and women and attach themselves to whomever is the same sex. Parents teach their children gender specific behavior. For example, a parent may describe daughters as delicate and soft while boys are described as strong and alert.

Gender differences are learned.¹⁰ However, it is relevant to touch briefly on biological differences in the sexes, since much has been written which adds to the stereotypes of males and females.¹¹ Gould mentions that the French scientist, Gustave Le Bon, wrote in 1879 that women are inferior to men because of brain size:

In the most intelligent races... there are a large number of women whose brains are closer in size to those of gorillas than to the most developed male brains. This inferiority is so obvious that no one can contest it for a moment; only its degree is worth discussion. All psychologists who have studied the intelligence of women... recognize today that they represent the most inferior forms of human evolution and that they are closer to children and savages than to an adult, civilized man. They excel in fickleness, inconstancy, absence of thought and logic, and incapacity to reason. Without doubt

⁹Claire Renzetti and Daniel Curran, p. 65-67.

¹⁰Barbara L. Forisha, p. 19.

¹¹Stephen Jay Gould, The Mismeasure of Man, W. W. Norton & Company, New York, 1981, p. 103-105.

there exists some distinguished women, very superior to the average man, but they are as exceptional as the birth of any monstrosity, as, for example, of a gorilla with two heads; consequently, we may neglect them entirely.... A desire to give them the same education, and, as a consequence, to propose the same goals for them, is a dangerous chimera.... The day when, misunderstanding the inferior occupations which nature has given her, women leave the home and take part in our battles; on this day a social revolution will begin.... (1879, p. 60-62).¹²

Another biological theory is the left-right brain dichotomy researched by Sperry.¹³ The left and right brain hemispheres of males and females develop differently during gestation. This is supposed to explain why males are superior in reasoning and logic while females are superior in speaking and intuition.¹⁴

In the last decade, new interpretations of old theories have emerged.¹⁵ The older theories, such as the works of Le Bon, have been debunked while newer theories on the left-right brain dichotomy have become popular.¹⁶ The issue is that many of these theories reinforce the notion that women are powerless and unable to be effective leaders while

¹²Stephen Jay Gould, p. 104-105.

¹³Roger Sperry, "Some Effects of Disconnecting the Cerebral Hemispheres," Science, 217, 1982, p. 1123-1226.

¹⁴Ibid.

¹⁵Carol Tavis, p. 39.

¹⁶Stephen Jay Gould, p. 106.

men are socially and biologically able to lead.¹⁷ The impact of stereotypes set forth by these theories is so strong that those men and women who do not adhere to traditional roles meet with much opposition.¹⁸

Despite the fact that there are no significant differences in the way men and women lead, women are still underrepresented in leadership positions.¹⁹ For example, there are still few women in senior level positions in the North Carolina Community College System.²⁰ Tavis states that women are not properly socialized for work and must receive extensive training in management in order to succeed--especially in the area of assertiveness.²¹ This statement lends itself to the recognition of the connection of power and leadership with

¹⁷Barbara L. Forisha, p. 147.

¹⁸Carol Tavis p. 21-22.

¹⁹Stephen M. Brown, "Male Versus Female Leaders: A Comparison of Empirical Studies," Sex Roles, Vol. 5, p. 595-611; Gregory H. Dobbins and Stephanie J. Platz, "Sex Differences in Leadership: How Real Are They?" Academy of Management Review, Vol. 11, No. 1, 1986, p. 118-127; Sam Donnell and John Hall, "Men and Women Managers: A Significant Case of No Significant Difference," Organizational Dynamics, 8, 1980, p. 60-77; and Benson Rosen and Thomas H. Jerdee, "Perceived Sex Differences in Managerially Relevant Characteristics Among Female Managers," Journal of Applied Psychology, 60, 1975, p. 340-344.

²⁰Quote from a teleconference conducted February, 1992, by North Carolina Department of Community Colleges.

²¹Carol Tavis, p. 40.

males. Females, lacking such male socialization, are still not prepared to lead.

LEADERSHIP

Myths and legends about leaders have been important in the development of civilized societies. For the most part, the study of history has been the study of leadership. The effort to study leadership has spread from the study of history and philosophy to the developing social sciences.²²

Leadership of noted Greeks was illustrated as heroes in Homer's Iliad. Ajax illustrated inspirational leadership with law and order. Other heroic leaders such as Agamemnon illustrated justice and judgement while Odysseus illustrated shrewdness and cunning.²³ Plato examined the requirements for the ideal leader of the ideal state (Philosopher King). The leader is the most important part of good government and is educated to rule with order and reason.²⁴ These teachings of the great philosophers are still used in the classroom, as well as by effective leaders today.²⁵

²²Bernard M. Bass, p. 3.

²³Bob Sarachek, "Greek Concepts of Leadership," Academy of Management Journal, 11, 1968, p. 39-48.

²⁴Plato, (1945), The Republic, F. M. Cornford (Trans.) New York Oxford University Press.

²⁵Bernard M. Bass, p. 4.

Theories, styles and models of leadership attempt to explain what it is that makes a good leader. Throughout the centuries leaders have emerged who are looked upon as being great.

Leadership Theories

Leaders who perform extraordinary tasks, such as freeing the slaves (Abraham Lincoln) or leading the Jews out of Egypt (Moses), are classified as great leaders. These two men are examples of leaders who personify the Great-Man Theory of Leadership. It is to be noted here that great female leaders of the past, such as Joan of Arc and Catherine the Great, are not considered to be a part of the Great-Man Theory.²⁶ Some writers attributed the Great-Man Theory to heredity. Galton and Woods stated that heredity helps explain leadership. Leaders, being the fittest to serve, are able to move into a position of power and influence.²⁷

Another leadership theory, the trait approach, became popular in the 1930's and 1940's. Leaders were studied to determine what traits they possessed in order to be an

²⁶Ibid, p. 37.

²⁷Frank Galton, (1869), Heredity Genius, D. Appleton, New York, p. 390; F. A. Woods, (1913), The Influence of Monarchs, New York, Macmillan; Warren Bennis, On Becoming a Leader, Addison Wesley Publishing Co., Reading, Mass., 1989, p. 39-48.

effective leader.²⁸ Psychological tests were administered, as well as a comparison of leaders to one another were examined. Yukl's studies found the following traits and skills needed to be an effective leader:

Traits

1. Adaptable to situations
2. Alert to social environment
3. Ambitious and achievement-oriented
4. Assertive
5. Cooperative
6. Decisive
7. Dependable
8. Dominant (desire to influence others)
9. Energetic (high anxiety level)
10. Persistent
11. Self-confident
12. Tolerant of stress
13. Willing to assume responsibility

Skills

1. Clever (intelligent)
2. Conceptually skilled
3. Creative
4. Diplomatic and tactful
5. Fluent in speaking
6. Knowledgeable about group task
7. Organized (administrative ability)
8. Persuasive
9. Socially skilled²⁹

²⁸Bernard M. Bass, p. 38; Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior: Utilizing Human Resources, Prentice Hall, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, 1988, p. 88; Gary Yukl, Leadership in Organizations, Prentice Hall, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, 1981, p. 67.

²⁹Gary Yukl, p. 70.

The concept that "leaders are born" has been discredited by Yukl, since it has been shown that the skills and traits listed above can be learned.³⁰ Another fallacy in the trait approach is that leaders were compared to leaders. Therefore, many who were non-leaders had the same traits as leaders which blurred the distinction of leadership traits.³¹

Douglas MacGregor presented two opposite sets of assumptions in the area of leadership. Theory X and Theory Y are two ways to categorize followers. His assumption was that followers fell somewhere between the two extremes:³²

Theory X assumptions:

1. The average human being has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if he can.
2. Because of this human characteristic of dislike of work, most people must be coerced, controlled, directed, or threatened with punishment to get them to put forth adequate effort toward the achievement of organizational objectives.
3. The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, has relatively little ambition, and wants security above all.³³

³⁰Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard, p. 88.

³¹Yukl, p. 69.

³²Herbert G. Hicks and C. Ray Gullett, The Management of Organizations, McGraw Hill, New York, 1976, p. 409.

³³Douglas MacGregor, The Human Side of Enterprise, McGraw Hill Book Company, New York, 1960, p. 33-34.

Theory Y assumes the leaders rearrange their assumptions so that organizational and individual goals are compatible.

Theory Y assumptions:

1. The expenditures of physical and mental effort in work is as natural as play or rest.
2. External controls and the threat of punishment are not the only means for bringing about the effort toward organizational objectives. Man will exercise self-direction and self-control in the service of objectives to which he is committed.
3. Commitment to objectives is a function of the rewards associated with their achievement.
4. The average human being learns, under proper conditions, not only to accept, but to seek responsibility.
5. The capacity to exercise a relatively high degree of imagination, ingenuity, and creativity in the solution of organizational problems is widely, not narrowly, distributed in the population.³⁴

In the 1960's, Henry Mintzberg researched leaders to determine what made a leader effective and what a leader does.³⁵ His method was to follow leaders around and take note of all activities performed by the leader, along with the length of time spent during the day to accomplish that task. As a result, Mintzberg determined that leaders' roles

³⁴Douglas McGregor, p. 47-48.

³⁵Henry Mintzberg, The Nature of Managerial Work, Harper and Row, New York, 1973, p. 29-35.

fell into three categories: interpersonal, informational, and decisional. Listed below are the three categories, along with the roles defined in each category:

Interpersonal

Figurehead: Symbolic head; obliged to perform a number of routine duties of a legal or social nature.

Leader: Responsible for the motivation and activation of subordinates; responsible for staffing, training, and associated duties.

Liaison: Maintains self-developed network of outside contacts and informers who provide favors and information.

Informational

Monitor: Seeks and receives wide variety of special information (much of it current) to develop thorough understanding of organization and environment; emerges as nerve center of internal and external information of the organization.

Disseminator: Transmits information received from outsiders or from other subordinates to members of the organization; some information factual, some involving interpretation and integration of diverse value positions of organizational influencers.

Spokesman: Transmits information to outsiders on organization's plans, policies, actions, results, etc.; serves as expert on organization's industry.

Decisional

Entrepreneur: Searches organization and its environment for opportunities and initiates "improvement projects" to bring about change; supervises design of certain projects as well.

Disturbance Handler: Responsible for corrective action when organization faces important, unexpected disturbances.

Resource Allocator: Responsible for the allocation of organizational resources of all kinds--in effect the making or approval of all significant organizational decisions.

Negotiator: Responsible for representing the organization at major negotiations.³⁶

Leadership Styles

As various theories on leadership emerged, the style of the leader was also studied. White and Lippett classified leadership style into three well-defined categories. These categories comprise the areas of autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire style.³⁷

The autocratic style leader makes all the decisions and enforces them by the use of rewards and the fear of punishment.³⁸ Decisions can be made quickly since group consensus is not needed.

The democratic style leader takes into consideration the suggestions of the group members. Members are perceived as important contributors and member commitment adds to the

³⁶Ibid, p. 92-93.

³⁷Ralph White and Ronald Lippett, Autocracy and Democracy, Harper and Row, New York, 1960, p. 26-27.

³⁸Herbert G. Hicks and C. Ray Gullett, p. 450.

quality of the decision.³⁹ This style may cause a delay in decisions, as consensus is needed.

The laissez-faire style leader exercises very little control over the group. A task is given to the group, who is then responsible for accomplishing it. The group, however, may have very little focus which might lead to inefficiency and lack of control.⁴⁰

The Managerial Grid developed by Robert Blake and Jane Mouton takes leadership style into two areas: concern for people and concern for production.⁴¹ By drawing the grid, the two axes, for production (X axis) and people (Y axis), can be illustrated. These axes illustrate the possible combinations that can be charted from a range of 1,1 leadership style of low concern for people and production to a 9,9 leadership style with high concern for people and production. Note the 5,5 leadership style is a "middle of the road" style which incorporates people and production equally.⁴²

³⁹Ibid, p. 452.

⁴⁰Ibid

⁴¹Robert R. Blake, Jane S. Mouton, and Alvin Bidwell, "Managerial Grid," Advanced Management Office Executive, September, 1962, p. 13.

⁴²Robert Blake, "Breakthrough in Organization Development," Harvard Business Review, November-December, 1964, p. 136.

The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) helps to classify the style of the leader. It helps determine how individuals prefer to function when interacting with others.⁴³ The Myers Briggs types references into 16 combinations of style in the following dimensions:

Introversion (I) or Extroversion (E): Energy is directed inward (I) or outward (E). The introvert uses his/her own truth while extroverts seek input from others.

Sensing (S) or Intuition (N): Perception of situations need direct experiences (S) or implied meanings will suffice (N).

Thinking (T) or Feeling (F): Preferred judgements are logical (T) or based on personal importance (F).

Judging (J) or Perceiving (P): Is the person planned and organized to control events (J) or spontaneous and adaptable (P).⁴⁴

Situational Models of Leadership

Situational leadership is different from other ways of leading previously cited. The difference is that the leader focuses on the needs of the follower instead of focusing on how the leader interacts. The leader must be sensitive to the needs of the follower and the current situation and be flexible in responding in the most appropriate manner.

⁴³Robert Benfari, Understanding Your Management Style, D. C. Heath and Company, Lexington, Mass., 1991, p. 5.

⁴⁴Robert Benfari, p. 6-10.

Leaders who choose to use a situational approach can benefit immensely from training, as the leader needs to understand the motivation of the follower and the work environment.⁴⁵

The Fred Fiedler Leadership Contingency Model suggests there are three variables which determine leader effectiveness:

1. Their personal relations with the members of their group (member-leader relations).
2. The degree of structure in the task that their group has been assigned to perform (task structure).
3. The power and authority that their position provides (position power).⁴⁶

Fiedler states that leader-member relations are the most important followed by task structure and position power. By combining the three aspects to a situation, Fiedler found an index of situational control.⁴⁷ Situational control is greatest when the task is highly structured, leader-member relations are good and the leader has power to follow through. Situational control is lowest when the task is unstructured, leader-member relations are poor and the leader has little power.

⁴⁵Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard, p. 105.

⁴⁶Fred E. Fiedler and M. M. Chemers, "Improving Leadership Effectiveness," Personnel Psychology, 38, Spring, 1985, p. 220-222.

⁴⁷Gary Yukl, p. 135-136.

Another situational model of leadership is the Path-Goal Model of Leadership. This model focuses on how the behavior of the leader influences the motivation and satisfaction of the employee. House states that:

the motivational function of the leader consists of increasing personal payoffs to subordinates for work-goal attainment, and making the path to these pay-offs easier to travel by clarifying it, reducing roadblocks and pitfalls, and increasing the opportunities for personal satisfaction en route.⁴⁸

The leader should supply coaching and guidance needed for the employee to accomplish the task. The leader should also supply role clarity as ambiguity is dissatisfying to the workers.⁴⁹

The last situational model to be mentioned is the Hersey Blanchard Situational Leadership Model. This model is the most comprehensive one identified, as it encompasses a situational approach based on human relations theory and is coupled with leadership style. The Situational Leadership Model is based on the amount of guidance and direction (task behavior) a leader gives, the amount of socioemotional support (relationship behavior) a leader provides, and the readiness level that followers exhibit in

⁴⁸Robert J. House, "A Path Goal Theory of Leader Effectiveness," Administrative Quarterly, 16, 1971, p. 321-339.

⁴⁹Gary Yukl, p. 148.

performing a task, function or objective.⁵⁰ The emphasis is on the behavior of the leader in relation to the followers.

The four styles that can be identified in the Situational Leadership Model can be described as the following:

Style 1: This leadership style is characterized by above-average amounts of task behavior and below-average amounts of relationship behavior.

Style 2: This leadership style is characterized by above-average amounts of both task and relationship behavior.

Style 3: This style is characterized by above-average amounts of relationship behavior and below-average amounts of task behavior.

Style 4: This style is characterized by below-average amounts of both task behavior and relationship behavior.⁵¹

These four leadership styles can be matched to the four readiness levels of the follower. Each readiness level of the follower represents a different level of follower ability and confidence:

Readiness Level One (R1)

Unable and Unwilling- The follower is unable and lacks commitment and motivation.

Unable and Insecure- The follower is unable and lacks confidence.

⁵⁰Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard, p. 170.

⁵¹Ibid, p. 173.

Readiness Level Two (R2)

Unable but Willing- The follower lacks ability but is motivated and making an effort.

Unable but Confident- The follower lacks ability but is confident as long as the leader is there to provide guidance.

Readiness Level Three (R3)

Able but Unwilling- The follower has the ability to perform the task but is not willing to use that ability.

Able but Insecure- The follower has the ability to perform the task but is insecure or apprehensive about doing it alone.

Readiness Level Four (R4)

Able and Willing- The follower has the ability to perform and is committed.

Able and Confident- The follower has the ability to perform and is confident about doing it.⁵²

The two instruments used in this research, Leader Effectiveness Adaptability Description (LEAD) and the Power Perception Profile, are both based on the Hersey Blanchard Situational Leadership Model.

Power

All of the above theories, styles and models help illustrate the characteristics of leadership. Many have several components of the others while some have characteristics of their own. There was one element that all theories, styles, and models mentioned as a continuous thread needed for leadership. This thread is the use of power. Leaders can have all the characteristics and

⁵²Ibid, p. 176-177.

qualities of being an effective leader but without power, the leader is doomed for failure.⁵³

French and Raven, in their classic work on the bases of social power, identified five kinds of power. Their work is cited in numerous sources.⁵⁴

The first base of social power is reward power. Reward power is the ability to give other people something they see as valuable. This reward could be something tangible such as money or intangible such as praise. Reward power is controlled by the leader. When the reward is appropriate and genuine, it enhances the self-esteem of the recipient as well as reinforces positive leadership on the giver. When reward power is given in an inappropriate manner, it loses effectiveness.⁵⁵

The second base of social power, coercive power, is the opposite of reward power. The person usually completes a

⁵³Ibid, p. 202; See also Herbert G. Hicks and C. Ray Gullett, p. 308; Bernard M. Bass, p. 131-132; Gary Yukl, p. 43. See also Warren Bennis, Why Leaders Can't Lead: The Unconscious Conspiracy Continues, Jossey Bass, San Francisco, Ca. 1991, p. 142-146.

⁵⁴Bernard M. Bass, p. 231; Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard, p. 207; Robert Benfari, p. 48-51; Gary Yukl, p. 38-39.

⁵⁵Robert Benfari, p. 49.

task in order to avoid punishments controlled by the leader. Coercion reduces the possibility of improved behavior and works against effective performance.⁵⁶

The third base of social power is legitimate power. The person completes the task because the leader has the right to request it and the person has the obligation to comply.⁵⁷ Legitimate power can be effective. However, its overuse leads to distancing and resentment. It can limit team effort and can come from a more authoritarian style of leadership.

Expert power, the fourth base of social power, is where the employee believes that the leader has special knowledge and knows what is necessary to get the job done. Benfari mentions that expert power cannot be exercised unless it is needed. Otherwise, the leader with expert power can be perceived as a know-it-all and create dissention among workers.⁵⁸

The fifth base of social power identified by French and Raven is referent power. The person completes a task because he admires the leader and wants approval or to be like the leader. This base of power is built on goodwill and mutual respect. This base of power evolves as people

⁵⁶Ibid, p. 49.

⁵⁷Gary Yukl, p. 38.

⁵⁸Robert Benfari, p. 50-51.

work together. It is the most under utilized as it takes time to build. Ironically, it is one of the most effective bases of social power.⁵⁹

Two additional bases of social power, information power and connection power, have since been developed from the framework of French and Raven. Information power is the perceived access to useful information. This power base evolved because high technology has made it necessary to have information readily available. Information power is different from expert power where the person is able to understand and use data. Connection power is the perceived association with influential people. This connection may be real or perceived.⁶⁰

Of the seven bases of social power, all can be divided into two broad categories, personal and position power:

Personal Power

Expert
Information
Referent

Position Power

Legitimate
Reward
Connection
Coercive⁶¹

⁵⁹Ibid, p. 50, and Bernard M. Bass, p. 235.

⁶⁰Kenneth Hersey and Paul H. Blanchard, p. 207-210.

⁶¹Ibid.

Each of the bases can be used at various times depending on the situation and people involved.

Feminist Studies of Power and Leadership

The issues of gender and leadership have been prevalent and intensified over the last 20 years. However, history documents that women have held leadership positions over the centuries. Most writings of early female leaders have been written from an historical perspective, as opposed to examining the path taken to leadership positions or their leadership characteristics. The Warrior Queens is an example of this.⁶² While the literature reviewed for the previous sections on leadership and power makes no mention of women in leadership positions, those historical and classic studies were researched, tested, and written by white males for white males. Women were not perceived as leaders and were therefore not included in research.⁶³ Women, however, have made strides in obtaining leadership positions over the last 20 years.⁶⁴ Therefore, the study

⁶²Antonia Fraser, The Warrior Queens, Random House, New York, 1988.

⁶³Bernard M. Bass, p. 707.

⁶⁴Ann M. Morrison, Randall P. White, and Ellen Van Velsor, Breaking the Glass Ceiling: Can Women Reach the Top of America's Largest Corporations?, Addison Wesley, Reading, Massachusetts, 1978, p. 5.

of leadership has altered to include a variety of studies on women in leadership.

Anne Schaeff states that men and women lead in different ways. She states that the male system of leadership lacks a "theology of difference."⁶⁵ The perceptions of men and women are different and these differences can be perceived as threatening.⁶⁶ She outlines these differences by categorizing leadership into two systems, as a White Male System and the Female System. Some of the aspects of these leadership systems are:

Relationships

Male System: In the masculine system, relationships are measured in terms of being one-up or one-down.

Female System: In the female system, one does not have to be one-up or one-down, one can be a peer.

Power

Male System: In the white male system, power is conceived of in zero-sum fashion. Men believe that there is only so much power available and one had better scramble for it and hoard it. In the white male system, persons tend to hold on to, hoard and try to own their ideas. In the white male system, power is conceived of to exert domination and control over others.

Female System: In the female system, power is seen as limitless. In the female system, power

⁶⁵Anne Wilson Schaeff, Women's Reality, Harper and Row, San Francisco, Ca. 1985, p. 7.

⁶⁶Ibid, p. 8.

is viewed in much the same way as love. It is limitless and when it is shared it regenerates and expands. When women share their power, it increases. In the female system, power is conceived of a personal power which has nothing to do with power or control over another.

Leadership

Male System: In the white male system, leadership means to lead. Leading means being out front at all times, having all the answers and presenting a strong, powerful and all-knowing image.

Female System: In the female system, leadership means to enable others to make their contributions while simultaneously making one's own. It includes encouraging others to develop their capabilities.

Rules

Male System: In the white male system, rules exist to control others and limit freedom.

Female System: Rules are developed to increase individual freedom and facilitate personal growth.

Defining Thought

Male System: In the white male system, thought is perceived as a linear process. Linear thinking is efficient; it allows conclusions to be reached and information to be processed fairly quickly.

Female System: In the female system, thinking is seen as multivariant and multidimensional. Decisions reached by multivariant thinking tend to hold and have full support of the group.

Method of Processing Data

Male System: In general, a man takes in information through the sense organs in the head. This type of traditional thinking usually occurs in the left brain.

Female System: A woman takes in information through her solar plexus. It is processed there then sent to the right brain, the left brain, and then to the body for action.

Communication

Male System: In the white male system, the purpose of communication is often to confuse, win and stay one-up.

Female System: In the female system, the purpose of communication is to bridge, understand and be understood.

Decision Making

Male System: In the white male system, decision making follows Robert's Rules of Order.

Female System: Decision making is a consensual process..issues are clarified and everyone has a chance to contribute.

Process Vs Product

Male System: The white male system has a product goal orientation. The ends almost always justify the means. What counts are outcomes.

Female System: The female system has a process orientation. A goal is less important than the process used to reach it.

Either/Or/Syndrome

Male System: The white male system is dualistic. It thinks in dichotomies and views the world in this way.

Female System: The female system is not dualistic--it allows people to be right even when they differ.⁶⁷

⁶⁷Ibid, p. 104-152; Weddle, Charlotte, handout from "Gender Issues and Leadership," workshop attended on June 12, 1992.

In order to be a leader in today's society, one must know the White Male System since it is the dominant perspective in society.⁶⁸ Learning this system will demonstrate to those in authority (i.e. white males) that one has the characteristics of being a leader.

Other feminist research indicates that men and women basically do the same thing when in leadership positions. There are some minor differences, however, such as amount of time spent on a task. Sharing information with others was typical in women while men tended to withhold information, as information was perceived as power. Women were more adaptable to taking on a variety of roles while men sometimes became frustrated with interruptions involved in switching roles. Men had a tendency to identify themselves totally with their jobs while women saw themselves in multiple roles such as a leader and parent.⁶⁹

Feminist theories seeking to understand the power process have not benefitted much from traditional

⁶⁸Charol Shakeshaft, Women in Education Administration, Sage Publications, Newbury Park, 1989, p. 167.

⁶⁹Ibid, p. 177. See also Sally Helgesen, The Female Advantage: Women's Ways of Leadership, Doubleday, New York, 1990, p. 10-29.

theories.⁷⁰ With the exclusion of women from studies on power, it is difficult to determine if the use of power by men and women is different. Shakeshaft states that women use power to empower others. For women, sharing power is based on the notion that power expands when it is shared.⁷¹ This idea of sharing power may suggest that decisions and leadership style may be different in men and women.

One major difference in the way men and women use power is in communication. Traditional studies on organizational communication entails the sender and receiver of the message, along with an emphasis on the receiver interpreting the message the way the sender meant it to be.⁷² Women's language, has been characterized as powerless, and conciliatory, avoiding conflict and considerate. Men's language is perceived as powerful and is characterized as win-win, aggressive, more task oriented, and competitive.⁷³

⁷⁰Kathy Davis, Monique Yeyenaar, and Jantine Olderesma (Editors), The Gender of Power, Sage Publications, London, 1991, p. 28.

⁷¹Charol Shakeshaft, p. 206.

⁷²Herbert Hicks and C. Ray Gullett, p. 482-485.

⁷³Kim Bartol, and D. Butterfield, "Sex effects in Evaluating Leaders" Journal of Applied Psychology, 61, 1976, p. 446-454.

V.E. Schien, "Relationships between Sex Role Stereotypes and Requisite Management Characteristics Among Female Managers,"

Lakoff's classic book, Language and a Woman's Place, clearly illustrates how women communicate differently from men and do so in a powerless way. She gathered her information from observation and introspection and concluded that the following patterns exist in women's language. The first pattern is the use of tag questions. The "questions" are declarative statements made without the assumption that the statement is believed by the listener. An example would be "It is time for lunch, isn't it?" Another is intonational patterns. This is where the person speaks in a variety of pitches causing the message to appear entertaining instead of being taken seriously.⁷⁴ These patterns rob the women of their power by coming across as unsure and tentative. She goes on to say:

Men's language is the language of the powerful. It is meant to be direct, clear, succinct, as would be expected of those who need not fear giving offense....It is the language of people who are in charge of making observable changes in the real world. Women's language developed as a way of surviving and even flourishing with control over economic, physical, or social reality. Then it is necessary to listen more than speak, agree more than confront, be delicate, be indirect, say dangerous things in such a way that their impact will be felt after

Journal of Applied Psychology, 60, 1975, p. 340-344.

⁷⁴Robin Lakoff, Language and a Woman's Place, Colophon Books, New York, 1975.

the speaker is out of range of the hearer's retaliation.⁷⁵

Tannen identified other aspects of communication that rob women of power. Men interrupt more than women do. Men take up more physical space for themselves and their belongings and move more freely around the room thus appearing more powerful.⁷⁶

Feminist scholarship is quite different in its assertions about the similarities and differences in leadership and power of men and women when compared to the study of leadership and power in general. Questions still remain as to the nature of differences and their probable deviation as more women move into positions of leadership.

Synthesis and Integration

Early studies of power and leadership were conducted by men for men. Therefore, assumptions were made concerning the characteristics of power and leadership. With the advent of the women's movement, women began to move into leadership positions. As a result, women were examined from the perspective of leadership from the male view. Numerous

⁷⁵Idem, Talking Power: The Politics of Language, cited in Carol Tavis, The Mismeasure of Woman, Simon and Schuster, New York, 1992, p. 297.

⁷⁶Deborah Tannen, You Just Don't Understand, Ballentine Books, New York, 1990, p. 189-190 and 235-244.

studies compare men and women in leadership positions and have found no difference in the way they lead.⁷⁷ Several feminist studies examine leadership and power differences in the way men and women lead and use power.⁷⁸ However, it should be noted that many feminist studies do cite studies where there are no significant differences in the way men and women lead. All sources were clear on the differences in gender and socialization of males and females.

One point worthy of mention is that women who know the male system have a tendency to emulate it in order to move into leadership roles.⁷⁹ This behavior may somewhat dehumanize the system causing a blurring of any differences.

With conflicting results on various studies cited concerning differences or no differences in the way men and women lead and use power, more research needs to be conducted. It is also important to determine if these differences, if

⁷⁷Stephen Brown, p. 595-611; Gregory Dobbins and Stephanie Platz, p. 118-127; Sam Donnell and John Hall, p. 60-77; Benson Rosen and Thomas H. Jerdee, p. 340-344.

⁷⁸Kathy Davis, Monique Yeyenaar, and Jantine Olderesma, p. 17; Charol Shakeshaft, p. 206; Sally Helgeson, p. 16-18; Deborah Tannen, p. 277; Anne Wilson Schaefer, p. 99; Bernard M. Bass, p. 737.

⁷⁹Barbara Forisha, p. 290-292; Ann Morrison et al, p. 54-57; Barbara Kellerman, Leadership: Multidisciplinary Perspectives, Prentice Hall, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, 1987, p. 151; Patricia Abundene and John Naisbitt, Megatrends For Women, Villard Books, New York, 1992, p. 88-94.

any, are significant. These sources cited research subjects as being leaders in business and industry or college students. No such studies have been conducted on men and women senior level administrators in the North Carolina Community College System. With the emphasis at this time of the North Carolina Community college System expanding opportunities for women, it is significant to research this subject to add to the knowledge base.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

OVERVIEW

While gender, leadership, and power have been studied extensively, there have been no studies conducted in the North Carolina Community College System on senior level men and women administrators. Models, theories, and styles of leadership have been examined and suggest that the use of these tools can help one be a more effective leader.¹

The purpose of this study is to explore whether self-reported leadership style and power are significantly different in men and women senior level administrators of the North Carolina Community College System. The research questions to be addressed are:

1. What are the male and female dominate styles of leadership of senior level North Carolina Community College Administrators?
2. Is there a significant difference between men and women's leadership style?
3. Is there a significant difference between men and women's use of power?

¹Warren Bennis and Bert Nanus, Leaders Harper and Row, New York, 1985, p 2-3.

Population

There are 605 employees categorized as senior level administrators across the North Carolina Community College System.² In 1990, 29% of the community colleges' senior level staff members were females. This indicates a 9% increase from 1980.³ Currently, there are 415 males and 190 females classified as senior administrators.

A current listing of senior level administrators for all 58 North Carolina Community Colleges was requested and received for this study.⁴ This listing was generated by using the classification numbers of senior level staff positions as defined by the North Carolina Department of Community Colleges. The listing consisted of a total of 307 senior level administrators for all 58 institutions. Of the 307 senior level administrators, 52 were female and 255 were males. This listing clearly shows a discrepancy in the number of senior level administrators across North Carolina. One explanation for this discrepancy is that each local institution has the autonomy to classify employees according

²A Matter of Facts: The North Carolina Community College System Fact Book, Raleigh, North Carolina, 1992.

³The Dawning of a New Century: North Carolina Community College System Comprehensive Plan for Administrative Leadership through Diversity Enhancement, Raleigh, North Carolina, 1991.

⁴North Carolina Department of Community Colleges Area of Responsibility listing for 1992 generated by Shirley Carroll DPC on October 13, 1992.

to their needs. Therefore, some institutions may have employees classified as senior level that are not the same as the North Carolina Department of Community College's definition of senior level.

In order for this study to be valid, the names generated on the listing classified by the North Carolina Department of Community Colleges as senior level was used. This was done to ensure consistency of the sample for the comparison across the state.

The sample for this study consisted of 20 males and 20 females randomly selected from the 58 community colleges across North Carolina. All 40 subjects were mailed the Hersey and Blanchard Leader Effectiveness Adaptability Description (LEAD) and the Power Perception Profile. The subjects completed both instruments based on their perception of how they lead and use power.

Instrumentation

The two instruments used in this study were the Leader Effectiveness Adaptability Description (LEAD) and the Power Perception Profile. Both instruments were mailed to each of the selected group of participants, along with a letter describing the nature of this study. The outcome of these self-report instruments depended on the extent to which the participant was cognizant of his/her style and use of power.

The Leader Effectiveness Adaptability Description (LEAD) contains 12 situations in which the test-takers selected from four choices--high task/low relationship behavior, high task/high relationship behavior, high relationship/ low task behavior, and low relationship/ low task behavior. Their response to each question reflected the behavior most suited to their action. The LEAD is designed to measure style, style range and style adaptability.⁵ The LEAD, as a self-report instrument, is designed to identify the perceptions of the leaders in relationship to their style. Since this study compares men and women senior level administrators of the North Carolina Community College System, the results will indicate if men and women's self-perceptions of their respective leadership styles differ. The instrument used is based on the concept of situational leadership in regard to different situations of task and relationship behavior. However, each participant will have a dominant style emerge based on their responses to this instrument. The second instrument selected for use in this study, the Power Perception Profile developed by Hersey and Natemeyer, contains 21 forced choice pairs of reasons given by people when asked why they do things that

⁵Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior: Utilizing Human Resources, Prentice Hall, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, 1988, p. 120-121.

a leader suggests or wants done. Each statement reflects one of the seven sources of power: expert, information, referent, legitimate, reward, connection, and coercive. The test-takers assigned three points between the two choices (total score between the two choices is three in any combination). Their answers are based on their self-perception of why people comply with their wishes.

Validity and Reliability

At the theoretical level, the Leader Effectiveness Adaptability Description (LEAD) has been suggested to have a good deal of overlap with other views of leadership behavior. Hersey and Blanchard achieved a synthesis of the concepts contained in MacGregor's Theory X and Y, Argyris' Maturity/Immaturity Continuum, Likert's Management Systems, Maslow's Need Hierarchy, Hertzberg's Two-Factor Theory, McClelland's Achievement Theory, Schien's Assumptions of Human Nature, transactional analysis, Skinner's Behavior Modification, and Lewin's Force Field Analysis.⁶ Although

⁶Robert P. Vecchio, "Situational Leadership Theory: An Examination of a Prescriptive Theory," Journal of Applied Psychology, 72, 3, 1987, p. 444-451. Many of these concepts were mentioned in the review of the literature. For more information on these theories see Chris Argyris, Personality and Organization, Harper and Row, New York, 1957; Eric Berne, Games People Play, Grove Press, New York, 1964; J.R. P. French and B. Raven, "The Bases of Social Power," in D. Cartwright (Ed.), Studies in Social Power, Institute for Social Research, Ann Arbor, Michigan, 1959, p. 150-167; Fred Hertzberg, Work and the Nature of Man, World

the fact that the LEAD can be shown to overlap in some ways with other theories, this is not sufficient evidence for validity. However, additional studies do support its validity.

The LEAD was standardized on the responses of 264 managers constituting a North American Sample. The 12 item validities for the adaptability score ranged from .11 to .52 and 10 of the 12 coefficients (83%) were beyond .25 or higher. Eleven coefficients were significant beyond .01 level and one was significant at the .05 level. Face validity was based on a review of items, and content validity emanated from the procedures employed to create the original set of terms. Reliability was moderately strong with a test-retest reliability coefficient of .75.⁷

Publishing, New York, 1966; Kurt Lewin, "Frontiers in Group Dynamics: Concepts, Method, and Reality in Social Science, Social Equilibria and Social Change," Human Relations, 1, 1947, p. 5-41; Renesis Likert, The Human Organization, McGraw Hill, New York, 1967; Abraham Maslow, Motivation and Personality, Harper and Row, New York, 1954; David C. McClelland, The Achieving Society, Van Nostrand, Princeton, New Jersey, 1961; Douglas MacGregor, The Human Side of Enterprise, McGraw Hill, New York, 1960; B. F. Skinner, Science and Human Behavior, MacMillan, New York, 1953; and Edgar H. Schien, Organizational Psychology, (2nd ed.), Prentice Hall, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, 1970.

⁷John F. Greene, Executive Summary for the LEAD-Self Manual. LEAD-Self Manual: Preliminary Report, Center for Leadership Studies, Escondido, California, 1980. See also Salvatore V. Pascarella and Fredric C. Lunenburg, "A Field Test of Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory in a School Setting," College Student Journal, 22, 1, 1988, p. 33-37.

The other instrument, the Power Perception Profile, has categories responding to the categories of power bases. According to Delaney, reliability testing established that the instrument has strong stability from one administration to another, and good validity as measured through a content validity procedure using 22 experts to match descriptions and definitions with corresponding power bases.⁸

The Leader Effectiveness Adaptability Description (LEAD) and the Power Perception Profile were selected for this study because they are both self-report instruments. They were also developed on Hersey and Blanchard's model of situational leadership and complement each other to give a complete profile of each participant.

Scoring

Both instruments from each participant were scored and tallied. The men's scores were separated from the women's so that differences, if any, could be determined. For the Leader Effectiveness Adaptability Description (LEAD), a chi-square was used to determine differences. For the Power Perception Profile, a MANOVA was used. Both instruments

⁸John Delaney, "A Validity and Reliability Study of the Power Perception Profile," cited by Allen Feld, "Self Perceptions of Power: do Social Work and Business Students Differ?" Social Work, 32, 3, p. 225-230.

were scored using the .05 level of significance. Results are discussed and analyzed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER IV
RESULTS
INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study is to explore whether self-reported leadership style and power are significantly different in men and women senior level administrators of the North Carolina Community College System. This chapter provides an analysis of the data received through the administration of the Leader Effectiveness Adaptability Description (LEAD) and Power Perception Profile. These tests reveal self-perceptions of leadership style and use of power.

Of the 58 community colleges, there are a total of 307 senior level administrators as defined by the North Carolina Department of Community Colleges. Of the 307 employees, 52 are female and 255 are male. Of the 58 North Carolina Community Colleges, one school has three female senior level administrators, 15 have two females, 17 has one female, and 23 schools have no female senior level administrators.

A packet containing the Leader Effectiveness Adaptability Description (LEAD) and the Power Perception Profile were mailed to a random sample of 20 male and 20 female senior level administrators as defined by the North

Carolina Department of Community Colleges, across the 58 institutions. The 40 subjects randomly selected represented 26 of the 58 North Carolina Community Colleges. Of the 40 packets mailed, 32 were returned representing 16 males and 16 females. One male administrator had vacated his position. Therefore, another male was randomly selected for this study. Of the eight packets not returned, the administrators said they had been inundated with other studies mailed to them, were extremely busy and would try to get to it, or had been away from the office and would not have time to complete the instruments. Both instruments are contained in the appendix of this study.

The subjects selected the response on the Leader Effectiveness Adaptability Description (LEAD) which reflected the most appropriate behavior for a given situation. The LEAD measured dominant and backup styles and range flexibility. The highest score indicated the dominant style, the next highest score, the backup style. These scores convert onto a range flexibility scale. A negative number indicated ineffective flexibility, while a positive number indicated positive flexibility. The scale ranges from -24 to +24.

In addition, the subjects weighed the choices on the Power Perception Profile as to the use of power appropriate for the given situation. Completion of the instrument

indicates which of the seven bases of social power: expert, legitimate, information, referent, connection, coercive, and reward are used most frequently.

According to Hersey and Blanchard, the type of power used may depend on the leadership style.¹ Therefore, both of these instruments were used because of their close interrelationship to each other. The high task/low relationship (S1), often called directing style, is closely related to the use of coercive and connection power. The high task/high relationship (S2), coaching style, is closely associated with reward and legitimate power. The high relationship/low task (S3), supporting style, is closely related to referent and information power bases, while the low relationship/low task (S4), delegating style, is closely associated with expert power.²

Findings

In order to determine the findings for the Leader Effectiveness Adaptability Description (LEAD), descriptive statistics were used. The LEAD classifies the participant into one of four specific leadership styles, one of which is considered to be the subject's dominant style. The four

¹Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard, Management of Organizational Behavior: Utilizing Human Resources, Prentice Hall, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, 1988, p. 216-218.

²Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard, p. 217.

styles are classified as S1, S2, S3, and S4. The S1 style of leadership is characterized by above-average amounts of task behavior and below-average amounts of relationship behavior. The S2 style is characterized by above-average amounts of both task and relationship behavior, while the S3 style is characterized by above-average amounts of relationship behavior and below-average amounts of task behavior. Finally, S4 is characterized by below-average amounts of both task and relationship behavior.³ Table 1 illustrates the relationship of leadership styles to gender across the S quadrants.

TABLE 1

DOMINANT STYLE

STYLE	M (n=16)	F (n=16)	TOTAL
S1	2 (12.50%)	2 (12.50%)	4 (12.50%)
S2	11 (68.75%)	8 (50.00%)	19 (59.37%)
S3	3 (18.75%)	6 (37.50%)	9 (28.13%)
S4	0 (0.00%)	0 (0.00%)	0 (0.00%)
TOTAL	16(100.00%)	16(100.00%)	32(100.00%)

S1 indicates that 2 males and 2 females of the 32 participants had high task, low relationship as the dominant style. These 4 participants represent 12.5% of the total sample who participated.

³Ibid, p. 173.

S2 indicates that 11 males and 8 females used high task, high relationship as their dominant style. These 19 administrators represent 59.37% of the total participants.

S3 indicates that 3 males and 6 females used high relationship, low task as their dominant leadership style. This represents 28.13% of the total participants.

There were no participants (0%) represented in this study who had S4, low relationship, low task as their preferred leadership style.

Based on a review of Table 1, the dominant style of leadership for males and females is S2 (high task, high relationship). The results indicate that both males and females prefer the same dominant style of leadership. It should be noted that the majority of males and females fell into the S2 and S3 categories, which represented 87.50% of the total sample.

To determine if there is a significant difference between men and women's leadership styles, a chi-square was computed on the results of the Leader Effectiveness Adaptability Description (LEAD) instrument. The chi-square is designed to test data expressed as frequencies. The chi-square ($\chi^2 = 1.474$ with 2 degrees of freedom; $p = 0.479$) indicates that there is no significant difference between men and women's leadership style. Some of the cells within the chi-square had numbers of less than 5, which indicates

that caution should be utilized when interpreting these results. This does not necessarily lead to a dead end. It suggests that a larger sample could have the same or different results.

Table 2 illustrates the backup style of the participants in this study. The backup style of men indicates that 12 out of 16 preferred the S3, high relationship/low task style while the other 4 men preferred the S2, high relationship/high task style. The women's backup style indicates that 8 women used the S2, high relationship/high task style, 4 women preferred the S1, high relationship/high task style, and 4 preferred S3, high relationship/low task style. Table 2 illustrates the backup style of the men and women in this study.

TABLE 2
BACKUP STYLE

STYLE	M(n=16)	F(n=16)	TOTAL
S1	0(0.00%)	4(24.00%)	4(12.50%)
S2	4(25.00%)	8(50.00%)	12(37.50%)
S3	12(75.00%)	4(25.00%)	15(50.00%)
S4	0(0.00%)	0(0.00%)	0(0.00%)
TOTAL	16(100.00%)	16(100.00%)	32(100.00%)

The range flexibility in table 3 indicates the extent to which a person is effective or ineffective in their ability to switch from their dominant leadership style to another style. The negative numbers represent an ineffective flexibility style, while a positive number

reflects effective range flexibility. The men's range went from 6 to 17. The women's range went from -1 to 16. These results illustrate that men and women are about the same in their adaptability to move from one leadership style to another.

TABLE 3
RANGE FLEXIBILITY

RANGE	M(n=16)	F(n=16)	TOTAL
-24 to -18	0(0.00%)	0(0.00%)	0(0.00%)
-17 to -11	0(0.00%)	0(0.00%)	0(0.00%)
-10 to - 4	0(0.00%)	0(0.00%)	0(0.00%)
- 3 to 3	0(0.00%)	3(18.75%)	3(9.50%)
4 to 10	8(50.00%)	6(37.50%)	14(43.90%)
11 to 17	8(50.00%)	7(43.80%)	15(47.14%)
18 to 24	0(0.00%)	0(0.00%)	0(0.00%)
TOTAL	16(100.00%)	16(100.00%)	32(100.00%)

To determine differences of men and women in the Power Perception Profile instrument, a MANOVA was computed using the scores of the Power Perception Profile. The MANOVA takes multiple variables, such as the seven types of power identified by the Power Perception Profile instrument, and summarizes the variation of the variables among the averages of the males and females scores. The results ($F = 1.2507$ with 1,30 degrees of freedom; $p = .3151$) indicate that there is no significant difference between men and women's use of power. Table 4 illustrates descriptively the mean scores of males and females. All mean scores of males and females were within one point, with the exception of expert power where the mean scores fell within 2 points of each other.

TABLE 4
POWER PERCEPTION PROFILE
MEAN SCORES

SCALE	COER.	CONN.	EXP.	INFO.	LEGI.	REF.	REW.
18							
17							
16							
15							
14			F				
13							
12			M				
11							
10					M&F		
9				M		M&F	M&F
8				F			
7							
6							
5	M	M&F					
4	F						
3							
2							
1							
0							

M=Male F=Female

<u>Coercive:</u>	<u>Connection:</u>	<u>Expert:</u>	<u>Information:</u>
Males=5.5	Males=5.8	Males=12.8	Males=9.5
Females=4.9	Females=5.5	Females=14.9	Females=8.0

<u>Legitimate:</u>	<u>Referent:</u>	<u>Reward:</u>
Males=10.2	Males=9.3	Males=9.6
Females=10.8	Females=9.0	Females=9.0

Summary

Senior level administrators, as defined by the North Carolina Department of Community Colleges, consist of 255 males and 52 females. Based on the results of the Leader Effectiveness Adaptability Description (LEAD) and the Power Perception Profile of selected senior level North Carolina

Community College Administrators, it appears there is no significant difference in the way men and women prefer to lead and use power. As stated earlier, twenty-six community colleges across North Carolina were represented in this study. Twenty males and twenty females were randomly selected, with a return rate of 16 males and 16 females.

Chapter 5 will present conclusions and implications for further study.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, RECOMMENDATIONS

INTRODUCTION

Power and leadership have been subjects for study for centuries. There is no real consensus as to their definitions. However, many know power and leadership when they see them in action.

In this century women have moved into roles of leadership and power more than at any other time in history. The Women's Movement, civil rights laws, and economic necessity have propelled women into the work place.

As women have moved more into leadership roles, attention has focussed on gender differences. All studies reviewed indicate that men and women are socialized differently. Toys, language and role expectations are gender specific, and those who do not conform to these roles meet with much opposition. Women who move into leadership positions deviate from the norm per se and many have difficulty moving into senior level positions. As a result, while many women have moved into mid-level leadership positions, many are still struggling to attain senior level status.

Numerous studies have been conducted on men and women leaders to determine their specific leadership style and use

of power. Results indicate there is no significant difference in their leadership style and use of power. However, over the past two decades, feminist studies have become prevalent. These studies indicate there are differences in leadership style and use of power for men and women. The results of such research indicates that women are more interested in the relationship aspect of leadership, while men are more focussed on the task or "bottom line." Women see power as being something to share, while men see power as being "over others." The general studies on leadership and power, as well as the feminist studies, both agree that women are underrepresented in senior level positions.

No studies, however, have been conducted on North Carolina Community College senior level administrators to determine differences in gender, power and leadership styles. The North Carolina Community College System, chartered in 1963, currently has 52 female and 255 male senior level administrators across the state. Therefore, this study was conducted to add more information concerning senior level community college personnel to the knowledge base of the areas of gender, power and leadership style.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to explore whether self-reported leadership style and power are significantly different in men and women senior level administrators of the North Carolina Community System. This study was undertaken to reveal information about men and women's self perceptions of how they lead and use power. This understanding would provide a reference point for individuals seeking to understand or aspire to senior level positions in a community college setting.

The material introduced in Chapter 1 stated the significance and purpose of this study. One aspect of research on leadership is to identify specific characteristics of leadership style and power employed by successful leaders.

An examination of the literature in Chapter 2 provided a review of the study of leadership and power throughout the ages, along with theories, models and styles. The types of power and their use were also explored. Feminist studies, along with general studies concerning leadership, were also included.

Chapters 3 and 4 introduced the instruments used in this study, and provided a detailed analysis of the results.

There were three research questions presented in Chapter 1 of this study. These questions are reviewed, with the results presented after each question.

1. What are the male and female dominant styles of leadership of senior level North Carolina Community College Administrators?

Descriptive statistics were used on the results of the Leader Effectiveness Adaptability Description (LEAD) to indicate that the dominant style of leadership for males and females is S2, high task/high relationship. The results indicate that both males and females prefer the same dominant style of leadership, with 59.37% of the sample falling into that category.

2. Is there a significant difference between men and women's leadership style?

Statistical analysis using the chi-square ($\chi^2=1.474$ with 2 degrees of freedom; $p=0.479$) indicated that there is no significant difference between men and women's leadership style. Since there was no difference between men and women's dominant style of leadership, the chi-square confirms the fact that overall leadership style is not significantly different in men and women.

3. Is there a significant difference between men and women's use of power?

A MANOVA was used on the results of the Power Perception Profile, ($F=1.2507$ with 1,30 degrees of freedom; $p=.3151$), and indicated that there was no significant difference in the way men and women use power. The mean scores of the seven bases of power: reward, coercive, legitimate, expert, referent, information, and connection illustrated that men and women fell within one point of each other on each power base, with the exception of expert power. Expert power fell within two points of each other when men and women were compared. However, this small difference is not significant.

The findings of this study seem to confirm much of the research concerning power and leadership in relation to gender. From a leadership standpoint, my study indicates that there is no significant difference in the way men and women lead. These results confirm the general studies reviewed. Feminist studies, on the other hand, contend that there are major differences in the leadership style of men and women. However, this study does not support the differences found in the feminist literature.

The use of power for men and women senior level North Carolina Community College administrators was not significantly different. Again, this confirms general

studies conducted on those using power but does not confirm the studies from the feminist perspective. All mean scores of the power bases for men and women in this study were within one point except for expert power. The two point difference in expert power is not significantly different. However, feminist studies do indicate that women in senior level administrative positions usually have more education than men in the same position. Feminist studies state that women over-educate themselves in order to be considered for senior level positions. This over-education of women might serve as an explanation for the mean scores of men and women being two points apart instead of one. However, since the education level of participants was not considered in this study, stating that women had a higher education level than men is speculation.

Since 26 of the 58 community colleges across North Carolina were represented, it would be appropriate that the results of this study are generalizable across the state. Senior level administrators from all institutions had an equal chance of being selected. Community colleges represented in this study include large, mid-sized and small institutions. It should be noted that 23 of the institutions had no female senior level administrators; therefore, only male senior level administrators were considered from those institutions.

Conclusions

The success of the North Carolina Community College System is contingent on effective leadership. Senior level men and women administrators need to use a combination of leadership styles and different bases of social power in order to be effective. Based on an analysis of the data gathered from the 26 community colleges across North Carolina and a review of the literature, the following conclusions can be drawn:

1. Senior level administrators who are flexible in their leadership style are better able to work with diverse groups by adapting the leadership style to the readiness level of others.
2. There is no significant difference in men and women's leadership style. Gender should not be a factor when employing senior level administrators. Emphasis should be focussed on education and experience instead of gender.
3. Men and women are socialized differently. However, those differences do not directly influence leadership style or use of power for men and women.
4. An employee should not make assumptions on a person's leadership style or how they might use power based upon the person's gender.
5. The disproportionate numbers of men and women in senior level positions throughout the North Carolina Community College System indicates that the stereotype of women as helpers and men as leaders is still prevalent.
6. The passage of Title VII of the 1964 Civil Rights Amendment has done little to move women into senior level positions.

7. Based on this research, people respond in different ways, a leader needs to be sensitive to the needs of others to determine which power base is most appropriate for effectiveness.

Recommendations for Further Study

A review of the literature and the results of this study indicate that there are no significant differences in the way men and women lead and use power. However, most literature still confirms that women remain underrepresented in senior level positions. Therefore, the following recommendations are made:

1. This study, and general studies, indicate there is no significant difference in the way males and females lead and use power. Feminist studies contend that there are differences. Studies in leadership and power do not include personality as a factor. Therefore, future studies on power and leadership should include a personality component such as the Myers-Briggs or some other instrument, along with the leadership and power instruments. Including aspects on personality in future studies would give a more complete picture of the subjects for comparison.

2. This study on power, gender, and leadership is the first one conducted on senior level administrators for the North Carolina Community College System. Future studies could include a larger sample of participants, as well as include the LEAD-Other and the Power Perception Profile-Other. These instruments would not only provide self-perception, as in this study, but the perceptions others have of the senior level administrator.

3. Each North Carolina Community College has local autonomy in selecting personnel. The diversity plan which was recently approved needs to be disseminated to all local boards of trustees. Awareness of the disproportion of male

and female senior level administrators across the state needs to be made known, so that trustees can move toward balancing the work force.

4. No regard was given to ethnicity in this study. Further studies could include a comparison of leadership and power based on race and gender.

5. A series of case studies on the subjects in this study could be conducted that might serve as a qualitative study to further validate the findings of this study.

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APPENDIX A

Letter of Request

.date B: presadd.doc/

October 21, 1992

.name/,.title/
.college/,
.city/,.state/,.zip/

Dear .addressee/:

I would like to ask for your assistance in gathering some very significant information. I would like to include responses from you and several of your colleagues as part of the data collection concerning senior level administrators in the North Carolina Community College System.

I am currently a doctoral candidate at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro. The topic of this study is "Gender, Power, and Leadership Style: Self Perceptions of Selected Senior Level North Carolina Community College Administrators." Data is being gathered from 26 community colleges across North Carolina.

Permission has been granted to administer a copy of the Leader Effectiveness Adaptability Description (LEAD) and the Power Perception Profile which is enclosed.

The completion of these instruments should take only a brief time. Of course, all of this information will be totally confidential, and no names or locations will be cited.

Please complete the instruments and return to me in the enclosed envelope by November 6, 1992. Being an employee in the Community College System myself, I understand your busy schedule. However, by completing these instruments and returning them you are helping add valuable information to the knowledge base concerning our system.

If you have any questions or would like information concerning the results of this study, please feel free to contact me.

Sincerely,

Lori Denise Bryan

Enclosure.

APPENDIX B



Reprinted from: Paul Hersey and Kenneth H. Blanchard, Leader Effectiveness Adaptability Description, Leadership Studies, Inc., Escondido, CA: 1988. Used with permission.

LEAD

SELF

Leadership Style/Perception of Self

Developed by Paul Hersey and Kenneth H Blanchard

Your name _____

PURPOSE

The purpose of this instrument is to evaluate your perception of your leadership style in terms of "telling," "selling," "participating," or "delegating," and to indicate whether the style is appropriate in various situations.

INSTRUCTIONS

Assume you are involved in each of the following twelve situations. Each situation has four alternative actions you might initiate. Read each item carefully. Think about what you would do in each circumstance. Then, circle the letter of the alternative action choice which you think would most closely describe your behavior in the situation presented. Circle only one choice.

After you have circled one choice for each situation, use the "LEAD Directions for Self-Scoring and Analysis" to score and array the data.

Leader **E**ffectiveness & **A**daptability **D**escription

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<p>1. SITUATION Your followers are not responding lately to your friendly conversation and obvious concern for their welfare. Their performance is declining rapidly.</p>	<p>ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS You would . . .</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A. Emphasize the use of uniform procedures and the necessity for task accomplishment. B. Make yourself available for discussion but not push your involvement. C. Talk with followers and then set goals. D. Intentionally not intervene.
<p>2. SITUATION The observable performance of your group is increasing. You have been making sure that all members were aware of their responsibilities and expected standards of performance.</p>	<p>ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS You would . . .</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A. Engage in friendly interaction, but continue to make sure that all members are aware of their responsibilities and expected standards of performance. B. Take no definite action. C. Do what you can to make the group feel important and involved. D. Emphasize the importance of deadlines and tasks.
<p>3. SITUATION Members of your group are unable to solve a problem. You have normally left them alone. Group performance and interpersonal relations have been good.</p>	<p>ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS You would . . .</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A. Work with the group and together engage in problem solving. B. Let the group work it out. C. Act quickly and firmly to correct and redirect. D. Encourage the group to work on the problem and be supportive of their efforts.
<p>4. SITUATION You are considering a change. Your followers have a fine record of accomplishment. They respect the need for change.</p>	<p>ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS You would . . .</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A. Allow group involvement in developing the change, but not be too directive. B. Announce changes and then implement with close supervision. C. Allow the group to formulate its own direction. D. Incorporate group recommendations, but you direct the change.
<p>5. SITUATION The performance of your group has been dropping during the last few months. Members have been unconcerned with meeting objectives. Redefining roles and responsibilities has helped in the past. They have continually needed reminding to have their tasks done on time.</p>	<p>ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS You would . . .</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A. Allow the group to formulate its own direction. B. Incorporate group recommendations, but see that objectives are met. C. Redefine roles and responsibilities and supervise carefully. D. Allow group involvement in determining roles and responsibilities, but not be too directive.
<p>6. SITUATION You stepped into an efficiently run organization. The previous administrator tightly controlled the situation. You want to maintain a productive situation, but would like to begin humanizing the environment.</p>	<p>ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS You would . . .</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A. Do what you can to make the group feel important and involved. B. Emphasize the importance of deadlines and tasks. C. Intentionally not intervene. D. Get the group involved in decision making, but see that objectives are met.

<p>7. SITUATION</p> <p>You are considering changing to a structure that will be new to your group. Members of the group have made suggestions about needed change. The group has been productive and demonstrated flexibility in its operations.</p>	<p>ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p>You would . . .</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A. Define the change and supervise carefully. B. Participate with the group in developing the change, but allow members to organize the implementation. C. Be willing to make changes as recommended, but maintain control of implementation. D. Avoid confrontation; leave things alone.
<p>8. SITUATION</p> <p>Group performance and interpersonal relations are good. You feel somewhat insecure about your lack of direction of the group.</p>	<p>ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p>You would . . .</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A. Leave the group alone. B. Discuss the situation with the group and then initiate necessary changes. C. Take steps to direct followers toward working in a well-defined manner. D. Be supportive in discussing the situation with the group, but not too directive.
<p>9. SITUATION</p> <p>Your boss has appointed you to head a task force that is far overdue in making requested recommendations for change. The group is not clear on its goals. Attendance at sessions has been poor. Their meetings have turned into social gatherings. Potentially, they have the talent necessary to help.</p>	<p>ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p>You would . . .</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A. Let the group work out its problems. B. Incorporate group recommendations, but see that objectives are met. C. Redefine goals and supervise carefully. D. Allow group involvement in setting goals, but not push.
<p>10. SITUATION</p> <p>Your followers, usually able to take responsibility, are not responding to your recent redefining of standards.</p>	<p>ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p>You would . . .</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A. Allow group involvement in redefining standards, but not take control. B. Redefine standards and supervise carefully. C. Avoid confrontation by not applying pressure; leave the situation alone. D. Incorporate group recommendations, but see that new standards are met.
<p>11. SITUATION</p> <p>You have been promoted to a new position. The previous supervisor was uninvolved in the affairs of the group. The group has adequately handled its tasks and direction. Group interrelations are good.</p>	<p>ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p>You would . . .</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A. Take steps to direct followers toward working in a well-defined manner. B. Involve followers in decision making and reinforce good contributions. C. Discuss past performance with the group and then examine the need for new practices. D. Continue to leave the group alone.
<p>12. SITUATION</p> <p>Recent information indicates some internal difficulties among followers. The group has a remarkable record of accomplishment. Members have effectively maintained long-range goals. They have worked in harmony for the past year. All are well qualified for the task.</p>	<p>ALTERNATIVE ACTIONS</p> <p>You would . . .</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> A. Try out your solution with followers and examine the need for new practices. B. Allow group members to work it out themselves. C. Act quickly and firmly to correct and redirect. D. Participate in problem discussion while providing support for followers.

APPENDIX C



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POWER PERCEPTION PROFILE

Perception of Self

Developed by Paul Hersey and Walter E. Natemeyer

Your name _____

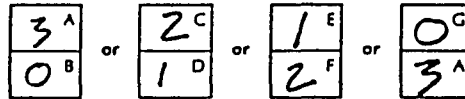
PURPOSE

This instrument is designed to provide you with some important information about utilization of various types of power as the basis of your leadership attempts.

PART I: Instructions for completing the profile

- Listed below are 21 pairs of reasons often given by people when they are asked why they do the things the leader suggests or wants them to do.
- Allocate 3 points between the two alternative choices in each pair. Base your point allocation on your judgment of each alternative's relative importance as a reason for others' compliance to you.
- Allocate the points between the first item and the second item based on perceived importance as shown in the ex-

amples below, making sure that the numbers assigned to each pair add up to 3:



- After you have completed this profile, use the "Power Perception Profile Work Sheet" to relate the data gathered to various levels of follower readiness.

Others respond to my leadership attempts because:

1.	A	I can administer sanctions and punishment to those who do not cooperate with me.
	B	They realize that I have connections with influential and important persons.
2.	C	They respect my understanding, knowledge, judgment, and experience.
	D	I possess or have access to information that is valuable to others.
3.	E	My position in the organization provides me with the authority to direct their work activities.
	F	They like me personally and want to do things that will please me.
4.	G	I can provide rewards and support to those who cooperate with me.
	A	I can administer sanctions and punishment to those who do not cooperate with me.
5.	B	They realize that I have connections with influential and important persons.
	C	They respect my understanding, knowledge, judgment, and experience.
6.	D	I possess or have access to information that is valuable to others.
	E	My position in the organization provides me with the authority to direct their work activities.
7.	F	They like me personally and want to do things that will please me.
	G	I can provide rewards and support to those who cooperate with me.

8.	A	I can administer sanctions and punishment to those who do not cooperate with me.
	C	They respect my understanding, knowledge, judgment, and experience.
9.	B	They realize that I have connections with influential and important persons.
	D	I possess or have access to information that is valuable to others.
10.	C	They respect my understanding, knowledge, judgment, and experience.
	E	My position in the organization provides me with the authority to direct their work activities.
11.	D	I possess or have access to information that is valuable to others.
	A	I can administer sanctions and punishment to those who do not cooperate with me.
12.	E	My position in the organization provides me with the authority to direct their work activities.
	B	They realize that I have connections with influential and important persons.
13.	F	They like me personally and want to do things that will please me.
	C	They respect my understanding, knowledge, judgment, and experience.
14.	G	I can provide rewards and support to those who cooperate with me.
	B	They realize that I have connections with influential and important persons.
15.	A	I can administer sanctions and punishment to those who do not cooperate with me.
	E	My position in the organization provides me with the authority to direct their work activities.
16.	B	They realize that I have connections with influential and important persons.
	F	They like me personally and want to do things that will please me.
17.	C	They respect my understanding, knowledge, judgment, and experience.
	G	I can provide rewards and support to those who cooperate with me.
18.	D	I possess or have access to information that is valuable to others.
	F	They like me personally and want to do things that will please me.
19.	E	My position in the organization provides me with the authority to direct their work activities.
	G	I can provide rewards and support to those who cooperate with me.
20.	F	They like me personally and want to do things that will please me.
	A	I can administer sanctions and punishment to those who do not cooperate with me.
21.	G	I can provide rewards and support to those who cooperate with me.
	D	I possess or have access to information that is valuable to others.

Read the following descriptions of the power bases to interpret your perceptions of your leadership attempts with others:

POWER BASES¹

- A. Coercive power is based on fear. A leader scoring high in coercive power is seen as inducing compliance because failure to comply will lead to punishments such as undesirable work assignments, reprimands, or dismissal.
- B. Connection power is based on the leader's "connections" with influential or important persons inside or outside the organization. A leader scoring high in connection power induces compliance from others because they aim at gaining the favor or avoiding the disfavor of the powerful connection.
- C. Expert power is based on the leader's possession of expertise, skill, and knowledge, which, through respect, influence others. A leader scoring high in expert power is seen as possessing the expertise to facilitate the work behavior of others. This respect leads to compliance with the leader's wishes.

- D. Information power is based on the leader's possession of or access to information that is perceived as valuable to others. This power base influences others because they need this information or want to be "in on things."
- E. Legitimate power is based on the position held by the leader. The higher the position, the higher the legitimate power tends to be. A leader scoring high in legitimate power induces compliance from or influences others because they feel that this person has the right, by virtue of position in the organization, to expect that suggestions will be followed.
- F. Referent power is based on the leader's personal traits. A leader scoring high in referent power is generally liked and admired by others because of personality. This liking for, admiration for, and identification with the leader influences others.
- G. Reward power is based on the leader's ability to provide rewards for other people. They believe that their compliance will lead to gaining positive incentives such as pay, promotion, or recognition.

PART I: Power Choice Scoring

In order to score your instrument, go back through the 21 items and add up all the scores that you have given to each of the A, B, C, D, E, F, and G items. Enter the total for each category in the boxes below. The total of these scores should

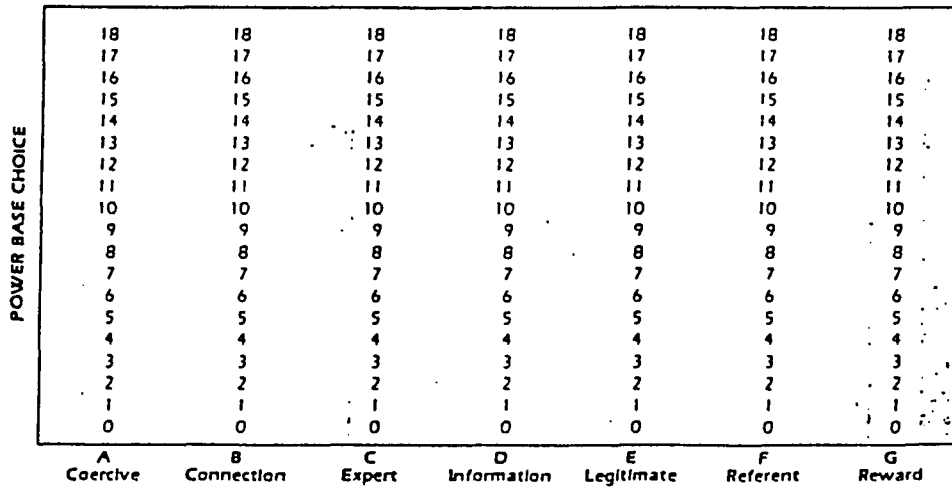
equal 63. These scores reflect your perception of the utilization of various types of power as the basis of your leadership. You will use these data in Part I: Power Choice Profile below.

TOTALS: ^A + ^B + ^C + ^D + ^E + ^F + ^G = 63

PART I: Power Choice Profile

Transfer your score totals from Part I: Power Choice Scoring and plot them on the graph below by circling the corresponding number on each scale. Connect the circled points

to complete your profile. This provides feedback on your perception of the relative strength of each of your power bases.



¹Five of these descriptions of power bases (coercive, expert, legitimate, referent, and reward) have been adapted from the work of J.R.P. French, Jr., and B. Raven, "The Bases of Social Power," in D. Cartwright (Ed.), *Studies in Social Power*, Ann Arbor, MI: Institute for Social Research, The University of Michigan, 1959, pp. 150-167. One power base (information) was introduced

by B.H. Raven and W. Riegelskis, "Conflict and Power," in P.G. Swingle (Ed.), *The Structure of Conflict*, New York: Academic Press, 1975, pp. 177-219. In this profile, some of these definitions have been modified and a seventh power base has been added: connection power.

APPENDIX D

November 30, 1992

Katherine Munson
University Associates
8517 Production Ave.
San Diego, CA 92121

Dear Ms. Munson:

The Leader Effectiveness Adaptability Description (LEAD) and the Power Perception Profile instruments were purchased for research purposes of which you granted permission of their use.

In order to illustrate findings in a concise manner, I request that a copy of both instruments be copied and placed in the appendix. These copies will be used as an example only and not used for administration.

Thank you for your consideration.

Sincerely,

Lori Denise Bryan
Doctoral Candidate

APPENDIX E

Lori Denise Bryan
P.O. Box 5972
Winston-Salem, NC 27113

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