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An Investigation into Women's Cognitive Orientations to Leadership

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MARY KAREN BROWN

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AN INVESTIGATION INTO WOMEN'S COGNITIVE ORIENTATIONS TO LEADERSHIP

By

Mary Karen Brown

A DISSERTATION

Submitted to
Michigan State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

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Department of Educational Administration

1994

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ABSTRACT

AN INVESTIGATION INTO WOMEN'S COGNITIVE ORIENTATIONS TO LEADERSHIP

By

MARY KAREN BROWN

The purpose of this study was to identify and describe the cognitive orientations and underlying value systems espoused by 24 women leaders chosen from senior, middle and first line administrative positions in community college settings. Within the framework of Quinn's (1988) Competing Values Model, the study describes the level of cognitive complexity demonstrated by these women in terms of their cognitive models of preference, and their overall preferred cognitive perspectives. The study also examined selected factors identified in the reviewed literature as being influential in the formation of one's values, beliefs and assumptions (i.e., socialization patterns, educational level, work experience, gender mix in referent groups and level in the organizational hierarchy).

The design of this study used a combination of both qualitative (interview) and quantitative (Prism 1 instrument) elements. Statistical analysis was conducted using a two-tailed ANOVA at the p=.05 level of significance.

Data from this study indicated that these women leaders were able to draw on a number of different cognitive models, each reflective of distinct cognitive values and associated beliefs and behaviours. In contrast to Quinn's (1988)

finding that le institut cognit mederence for with the Human or the Open Syst ethod. The val Process Model we aiso demonstrate Perspective dire towards "control Finally, AN that the middle Melaviours in the ther two manager list line group Ear Relations 1 tale Skewed Group sequently in the ther two gender dominant cognitive model, these women demonstrated an equal preference for the values, beliefs and practices associated with the Human Relations Model and the Rational Goal Model or the Open System Model depending on data collection method. The values, beliefs and practices of the Internal Process Model were least preferred. These women leaders also demonstrated a preference for an overall cognitive perspective directed towards "flexibility" over one oriented towards "control".

Finally, ANOVA results for the interview data indicated that the middle level women leaders tended to select behaviours in the Open System Model more frequently than the other two management groups, and that women leaders in the first line group selected behaviours more frequently in the Human Relations Model. In addition, women leaders in the Male Skewed Groups tended to select behaviours more frequently in the Rational Goal Model than the women in the other two gender ratio subgroups.

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h wy husband Da suport and enco To my husband David and my son Mark who provide the love, support and encouragement that enables me to follow my dreams.

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I would like to thank Kathryn M. Moore, Ph.D., my dissertation advisor who directed this study and provided intellectual guidance and moral support through every stage of its development.

Special thanks also to David Brown and Barbara Reeves who edited the manuscript before submission, and to Lauren Griffith for her assistance with the statistical analysis.

Finally, to the women leaders who participated in this study and shared their beliefs and practices about their leadership with me, I give my heartfelt thanks.

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Chapter I

Introduction

Statement of Problem

Although positions of influence and control in academic institutions tend to be occupied by males, increasing numbers of women are seeking voice and influence. Couple this with a qualitative shift in the way academic organizations must compete, manage, and do business in the 1990's, and the stage is set for powerful shapers of equity in the work place. Rosener (1990) argues that the first wave of women leaders, because they were breaking new ground, adhered to many of the "rules of conduct" that spelled success for men. Now the second wave of women is making its way into senior administrative positions, not by primarily adopting the style and habits that have proved successful for men, but by drawing on the perspectives, values, attitudes, beliefs and skills they have developed from their shared experience as women.

Literature on women and leadership has tended to follow three main approaches. One approach focuses on the traits or personalities of leaders. Leaders are viewed as a chosen

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A second approach focuses on differences in orientation to the tasks of leadership. This approach examines the relationship between gender groups on two major leadership orientations: consideration versus initiating structures. Conclusions drawn from this literature indicate that skill in utilizing both of these two major orientations is necessary for effective leadership regardless of the leader's gender.

A third approach holds that it is not differences in gender-role socialization and lived experience that influence women's approach to leadership behaviours, but issues related to women's constrained access to and use of power. This latter approach argues that strong perceptual biases about who has access to power and how it can be used exist between the two gender groups (Caffarella & Barnett, 1993; Epstein, 1988; Nieva & Gutek, 1981). This approach also argues that perceptual biases exist which tend to associate leadership characteristics with masculinity. Perceptual bias is maintained in the organization by maledominated power structures coupled with expectations by referent groups that female leaders must engage in gender appropriate behaviour (Haslett, et al, 1992; Birnbaum, 1992;

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Brenner, 198 The stud mixed results traditional t mderstand, a May also be 1 when related om voice, gi lack of power seres* (Gillia Brenner, 1989; Deaux & Major, 1988; Epstein, 1988; Brass, 1985).

The studies on gender and leadership have produced mixed results. This may reflect the inability of traditional theories to capture how women come to know, understand, and act in formal leadership roles. The results may also be influenced by "the diffidence prevalent among women related to their reluctance to speak publicly in their own voice, given the constraints imposed on them by their lack of power and the politics of relations between the sexes" (Gilligan, 1982, p. 70).

In the last ten years, several cognitive theories have defined effective leadership in terms of the ability of the leader to develop skills in cognitive complexity. These theorists (Bolman & Deal, 1988; Quinn, 1988; Desjardins, 1989; Birnbaum, 1991) argued that adherence to single frame thinking contributes to rigidity and inattention to important cues in the environment. It may be this rigidity, rather than gender issues, that contributes to ineffective leadership style/behaviour.

These cognitive models (Bolman & Deal, 1988; Quinn, 1988; Desjardins, 1989) may make possible new interpretations of effective leadership in which women's perspectives are better discerned and valued. These models, I believe, may also allow us to consider differences in the ways men and women come to understand the world of work

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without scaling these differences from better to worse, or from dominant to inferior. Use of these cognitive theories will help make visible aspects of a women-centred perspective or orientation to leadership. It is believed that a women's perspective or orientation, and the leadership behaviours that are associated with it, can be identified, named, described and valued as an additional tool for developing cognitive complexity in academic leaders.

Purpose of the Study

This study was concerned with how selected women administrators in Ontario's community colleges make sense of their leadership roles, given ways of perceiving that may be influenced by values, beliefs, skills and experiences that tend to be gender-related, or normative, among women. It is anticipated that this study will contribute to the development of effective models of academic leadership. By focusing on how these women leaders come to know and understand their work world, their preferred modes of operating, and the cognitive orientations that affect their choice of actions, this study will contribute both theoretically and practically to the study and practice of leadership.

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Overview of Interpretive Framework

The framework for this study was leadership theory: specifically, cognitive theories of leadership. The conceptual model that will guide this study was derived from the leadership theories that focus on the use of cognitive perspectives, frames, vantage points, conceptual maps, or moral orientations utilized by leaders to guide them in "knowing what to attend to, what sense to make of it, and what to do about it" (Bolman & Deal, 1988, p. 514).

An interpretive framework was developed for analyzing and describing the leadership orientations and resultant behaviours of women administrators in community college settings based on the Competing Values Model (CVM) developed by Quinn (1988). This researcher believes that women administrators are a diverse group and therefore will demonstrate a range of cognitive orientations from single focus to multi-frame perspectives or models. Factors that may influence a woman administrator's ability to develop skills in using multi-frame thinking (i.e., prior socialization experiences, educational level, moral orientation, age, career experience, expectations for the identified leader position in that organizational hierarchy, and the gender-ratio composition in her referent groups) were examined.

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Research Questions

Birnbaum (1992) identified three concepts that are of particular importance in interpreting and analyzing how someone makes sense of leadership. These concepts include cognitive frames, the use of strategy, and the implicit theories of leadership held by the leader. Cognitive frames describe conceptual maps used by the individual for understanding an organization and interpreting the effectiveness of leader behaviours. Strategies describe preferences in how a leader enacts the role. Implicit theories of leadership refer to those beliefs that the leader holds about what constitutes good leadership. These affect the leader's perceptions, behaviours and the way the person defines her role.

The purpose of the study was two-fold. First an attempt was made to analyze the extent to which selected women leaders in the Ontario community college system incorporate single or multiple cognitive perspectives or orientations in their descriptions about what they believe constitutes good leadership and in the ways in which they describe their own approaches to their current leadership positions. The study also sought to describe how these women leaders developed their cognitive orientations to leadership.

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There were five research areas of interest that guided this study:

- * implicit beliefs about leadership;
- * cognitive models, perspectives, or orientations;
- * leader roles;
- * relationship between the gender-ratio in the woman leader's referent groups and her leadership behaviours; and
- * the woman's level in the hierarchy and her use of cognitive frames.

Implicit Beliefs about Leadership

The study attempted to identify and describe the implicit theories that these women administrators held about what constitutes good academic leadership. The study also described how these women leaders came to hold these beliefs. The research questions that addressed this perspective were:

- 1. What does being a leader mean to these women?
- 2. What people and experiences do these women describe as being influential in shaping their values, beliefs, and assumptions about what consitutes good leadership practice?

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Cognitive Models, Perspectives, or Orientations

This study attempted to identify and describe the cognitive orientations or models that serve as conceptual maps for helping these women leaders decide what to look at, what sense to make of the information, and what actions to take in their leadership roles. The research questions that addressed this perspective were:

- 4. What motivates these women to be good leaders?
- 5. What do these women leaders describe as being their primary satisfiers in their current positions?
- 6. What do these women leaders describe as being their primary dissatisfiers in their current positions?
- 7. What cognitive models or vantage points are revealed within their narratives, and in the scores on the Prism 1 instrument?

Leader Roles

Within the framework of the Competing Values Model, each of the cognitive perspectives utilized by these women

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leaders held implicit assumptions about what constitutes good leadership behaviours and roles. Therefore, this study tried to identify the leadership role(s) utilized by these women leaders. The research question that addressed this issue was:

8. What leadership roles are revealed by these women in their descriptions of their preferred mode(s) of getting things done, and by their Prism 1 self-assessment scores?

Relationship between the Gender-Ratios in the Woman Leader's Referent Groups and Her Leadership Behaviours

Kanter (1977), Powell (1988) and Deaux & Major (1988) have all spoken to the powerful effect that the sex ratio of a group has on the dynamics of work relationships among its members. This study inquired into the women leader's perceptions about the influence of the gender ratios in her referent work groups on her leader behaviour. The research question that addressed this issue was:

9. Is there a relationship between the work place gender composition of these women and their cognitive orientations?

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Level in the Hierarchy and Use of Frames

Quinn (1988) identified the impact that one's level in the organizational hierarchy has on the leader's need for cognitive complexity. He stated:

...as one moves up the organizational ladder, matters become less tangible and less predictable. At higher levels in the organization the manager is confronted with change, ambiguity, and contradictions. They are constantly forced to make trade-offs, there are often no right answers, and there is a need for complex, intuitive decisions and the ability to cope with tension, stress and uncertainty (Quinn, 1988, p.3).

This study sought to examine whether there was a relationship between the level in the organizational hierarchy and the number and type of cognitive frames used. The research question that addressed this issue was:

10. Is there a relationship between level in the organizational hierarchy and cognitive orientations?

Outline of Dissertation Sections

The dissertation is divided into the following sections: Chapter II provides a review of the literature relevant to this research. This includes a review of six categories of theories of leadership. Leadership theory is then reviewed within the context of theories of organizations. A brief review of the differences between

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academic organizations and business corporations is discussed next. The review concludes with a summary of selected literature related to women in leadership, and the findings from studies that focused on the impact of gender on various components of leadership.

Chapter III presents a detailed discussion of the interpretive framework of this study which was derived from Quinn's (1988) Competing Values Model.

Chapter IV describes the methodological approach to this research, including the research questions; population and sample selection process; data collection tools; evidence to be collected; modes of analysis; data collection strategies; ethical considerations; and the limitations of the study.

Chapter V presents the results of this study, in relation to the specific study questions, for each of the interview and Prism 1 data collection tools.

Chapter VI presents a discussion of the study results and recommendations for further study.

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Chapter II

Literature Review

Theories of Leadership

This section summarizes and critiques some of the major approaches to the study of leadership. First theories and models of leadership are reviewed. Then leadership within the context of theories of organization are discussed. This is followed by a brief discussion of the differences, in both the contexts and the resultant leadership requirements, between academic organizations and business organizations. The literature review concludes with a review of findings of various studies that have addressed the impact of gender on various components of leadership.

Definitions of Leadership

There does not appear to be a definitive definition of leadership in the surveyed literature. Definitions of leadership seen to be dependent on who is providing the

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definition, the context in which the person defining leadership finds him/herself, and the relationship between the person (or group of persons) providing the definition and the person holding the position being defined as "leader." Bolman & Deal (1988) suggested four distinct approaches to the definition of "leadership". Leadership. they stated, could be defined as the ability to get others to do what you want. Leadership could also be described as the ability to motivate people to get things done through the use of influence or persuasion. Leadership could be defined as the ability to provide a vision for others that shapes and gives meaning and direction to their specific lived reality. Leadership could also be defined as a process of facilitation, a process of empowering people to do what they want (p. 405). In addition, leaders could be defined as people who hold formal administrative positions in organizations.

The definition of leadership used in this study reflected the assumptions of leadership inherent in cognitive theories:

Leadership arises from the social cognition of organizations...Leadership is a social attribution—an explanation used by observers to help them find meanings in unusual organizational occurrences. Leadership is an invention of followers. What matters is perception: If leaders are seen as doing the desired leaderlike things, they will be regarded as effective leaders (Bensimon, Neumann, Birnbaum, 1989, p. 23 & 26).

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This study was concerned with how selected women leaders in community college settings develop their cognitive perspectives or understandings about desired leaderlike knowledge, attitudes and behaviours. Bensimon (1989) commented that "even though espoused theories may not accurately represent what leaders actually do, they are likely to influence the expectations these leaders have of themselves as leaders as well as their behaviour" (p. 109).

Theories and Models of Leadership

Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum's (1989) monograph provided an excellent summary and critique of the research traditions in leadership. They grouped the theories of leadership into six major categories: trait theories, theories of power and influence, behavioral theories, contingency theories, cultural and symbolic theories and cognitive theories. In addition, they suggested that leadership could be examined within the context of various frames, vantage points, or coherent perspectives about organizations. The summary described in this section reflects these authors' organizational framework and interpretation of the literature on leadership.

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Theories of Leadership

Trait Theories

Trait theories of leadership attempt to identify specific personal characteristics that contribute to a person's ability to assume and successfully function in positions of leadership. These traits often differentiate the leader from the led. Traits include things such as physical characteristics (e.g. height, gender, age, appearance), personality characteristics (e.g. degree of self-confidence, energy level, degree of initiative), characteristics related to social background (i.e. level of education, where educated, socio-economic background), and specific abilities or skills valued by the group (i.e. intelligence, verbal fluency, technical proficiency). Bensimon, Neumann & Birnbaum (1989) described two major weaknesses of the trait theories. "Although some traits and skills appear to be characteristic of successful leaders, possession of these traits did not quarantee effectiveness, nor did their absence proscribe it" (p.8). Another weakness in these theories centred on their failure to consider the context in which leadership occurs. Few people exhibit consistent traits under all circumstances. Effective leaders, male and female, need to be able to manifest

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Power and Influence Theories

Power and influence theories, according to Bensimon,
Neumann & Birnbaum (1989), "consider leadership in terms of
the source and amount of power available to leaders and the
manner in which leaders exercise that power over followers
through either unilateral or reciprocal interaction" (p.7).
These theories can be grouped into two main approaches:
social power theories and social exchange theories.

Social power theories emphasize one-way influence, usually top-down. Social exchange theories emphasize two-way mutual influence and reciprocal relationships between leaders who provide needed services to a group in exchange for the group's approval and compliance with the leader's demands (Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 1989, p. 9).

The social power approach looks at sources of power that leaders could use to influence followers, including legitimate power, reward power, coercive power, expert power and referent power (French & Raven, 1968). "Personal forms of power such as expert and referent have been found to lead to greater satisfaction and performance in followers" (Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 1989, p.9).

The social exchange approach recognizes that

although leaders accumulate power through their positions and their personalities, their authority is constrained by followers expectations. The difference between fulfilling and changing

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expectations of followers is at the heart of the distinction between transactional leadership and transformational leadership as described by Burns in 1978 (Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 1989, p.10).

Behavioral Theories

Behavioral theories, according to Bensimon, Neumann & Birnbaum (1989) study leadership by examining leaders patterns of activity, managerial roles, and categories of behaviour. They look at what leaders actually do. Data are collected through observations, use of diaries, activity sampling, self-reporting, questionnaires and the analysis of critical incidents. Early studies analyzed the effects on a group's performance of the leader's behaviours (i.e. Lippett & White, [1958] concepts of democratic, authoritarian and laissez-faire styles of leadership; Ohio State Leadership, [1957], concepts of initiating structure vs consideration and Blake & Mouton's, [1967], "managerial grid"; Mintzberg's [1978] aspects of roles such as interpersonal behaviour, information-processing and decision making behaviour). These studies have again tended to produce mixed results. Subordinates' performance may influence the leader's behaviour as much as the reverse (Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 1989, p.12-14).

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Contingency Theories

Contingency theories attempt to indicate how the leader's behaviour is shaped and constrained by situational factors and unfolding events. These theories

emphasize the importance of situational factors such as the nature of the tasks to be performed by a group, or the nature of the external environment, to understand effective leadership. These theories assume that different situations require different patterns of traits and behaviours for a leader to be effective (Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 1989, p.7).

Examples of theories in this category include: "Contingency Model", Hersey & Blanchard's "Situational Leadership Theory", House's "Path-Goal Theory", and Kerr & Jermier's "Substitutes for Hierarchical Leadership Model." Contingency theories, however, "do not address questions about what it takes for a manager to see the differences in organizational situations, to grasp the contradictions inherent in them, and to behave in a contingent fashion" (Frost & Kaiser, 1989, p. 462). Cognitive theories of leadership, such as Quinn's (1988) Competing Values Model, can help managers to gain insight into these situational differences and inherent contradictions. Cognitive theories recognize that the values, beliefs, and assumptions, held by individual managers/leaders, about what constitutes good leadership also influences what information a leader chooses to consider, what sense the leader makes of this

information, and understanding.

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Cultural or Symbolic Theories

Cultural or symbolic theories study the influence of leaders in maintaining or reinterpreting the system of shared beliefs and values that give meaning to organizational life. Bensimon, Neumann & Birnbaum (1989) state that in contrast to the other categories of theories

the cultural perspectives and symbolic approaches represent a paradigmatic shift in thinking about organizations and leadership. They assume organizational structures and processes are invented not discovered. These theories propose that leadership functions within complex social systems whose participants attempt to find meaningful patterns in the behaviours of others so that they can develop common understandings about the nature of reality. Within this context, it is as important to study how leaders think and process organizational data as it is to look at their behaviour (p.21).

Success of the leader depends on the degree to which she/he is able to articulate and influence cultural norms and values by creating new symbols or myths, developing organization sagas or stories, or establishing and reinforcing consistent values. Culture, in these theories, can also be thought of as a powerful constraint on the individual leader's behaviour, i.e., if the leader does not function within the culture of the organization, she/he may

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Cognitive Theories

Cognitive theories of leadership are closely related to the symbolic and cultural theories. These theories suggest that "leadership is a social attribution that permits people to make sense of an equivocal, fluid, and complex world (Bensimon, Neumann, Birnbaum 1989, p.23). Birnbaum (1992) identified three concepts that are of particular importance in cognitive theories. These are cognitive frames, strategy, and the implicit theories of leadership held by the leader.

Cognitive frames are the conceptual maps for understanding an organization and interpreting the effectiveness of leaders' behaviour. Frames focus the attention of individuals on one or another aspect of the organization, but they can also serve as cognitive blinders which leave that which is out-of-frame unseen (Birnbaum, 1992, p.63).

Birnbaum (1992) modified Bolman & Deal's (1988) frames to better suit academic organizations. He identified four frames/perspectives labelled structural, political, collegial and symbolic, and he described assumptions and beliefs about what constitutes good leadership from each of these four perspectives. Birnbaum (1992) concluded that the use of different frames or conceptual maps helps us to see

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The second concept important in cognitive theories, according to Birnbaum (1992), is strategy. Birnbaum (1992) cited three models of strategy described by Chaffee (1985) as useful in articulating cognitive theories.

Linear strategists believe effective action results from rational decision making. They view goal accomplishment in a means-end fashion, emphasize internal factors in the organization, and the improvement of efficiency. Adaptive strategists believe in aligning their organizations with the environment, monitoring the environment for threats and opportunities, and changing the organizational's programs to move into new environmental niches. They emphasize the flow of resources into the organization. Interpretive strategists are concerned with how people see, understand, and feel about their organizations. They try to shape the values, symbols, and emotions influencing individual behaviours by explaining and clarifying organizational purpose. They emphasize changing perceptions so that others can find meaning in their organizational roles (Chaffee, 1985, cited in Birnbaum, 1992, p. 65).

The third concept identified by Birnbaum (1992) as important in understanding cognitive theories were the implicit theories of leadership held by the leader. These theories are described as "those beliefs that the leader holds about what constitutes good leadership. Birnbaum (1992) cited the following as examples of possible effects of implicit theories of leadership on leader behaviour.

If a leader thinks of leadership as one-way communication in which the leader is expected to influence others, he/she may attend to or respond to information and people differently than a leader who thinks of leadership as a two-way

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exchange in which leaders and followers exert mutual influence. Leaders who define their role as helping to determine goals and directing others toward achieving these goals may respond differently than a leader who defines his/her role as helping others to establish their own goals and procedures (Birnbaum, 1992, p. 65-66).

Implicit theories of leadership may affect the leaders perceptions, behaviours and the way they define their role" (p.65). Cognitive theories fill the gap left by the contingency theorists in that they provide frameworks or models that enable one to see differences in organizational situations, to grasp and understand the inherent contradictions, and propose ways of responding to these apparent contradictions.

An emerging cognitive perspective, or way of looking at leadership, is based on Carol Gilligan's (1982) model of moral development in women. This model is currently being articulated by Carolyn Desjardins and others at the National Institute for Leadership Development in Phoenix, Arizona.

Desjardins (1989) describes two perspectives or orientations to leadership. One orientation is focused on a male gender-related moral standard of justice and rights referred to as a "justice perspective." The other orientation is focused on a female gender-related moral standard of care and attachment referred to as a "care perspective."

Desjardins (1989) reported that in a study of 72 community college CEOs (50% male and 50% female), it was found that "the majority of CEOs exhibited behaviours in

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both perspectives or modes. However, the tendency among the CEO's was to favour one mode, and to use the other minimally. In this study, 66% of the women CEOs were categorized as dominantly focused in the "care perspective". In contrast, 50% of the male CEOs favoured the "justice perspective." It was interesting to note that 17% of the women and 22% of the men in this study fell into the combined modes category defined as less than 75% of "considerations" being categorized as either in the "care mode" or the "justice mode" (Desjardins, 1989, p.7).

In her study of community college CEOs, Desjardins (1989) found that considerable caring and connecting behaviours (behaviours stereotypically associated with femaleness) were observed in both genders. She reflected that this finding may reflect the kind of people that are attracted to educational institutions. This finding may also reflect that behaviours associated with the "care perspective" mode, that in the past were considered feminine and therefore less valued, may now appear to be playing a major role for both male and female leaders. Thus behaviours reflective of the "care perspective" mode may now be considered important aspects in leadership orientation and style (p.9).

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Theories of Organization and Leadership

Another useful way of looking at the concept of leadership is to use different perspectives, frames, or vantage points about organizations and then to examine the assumptions and beliefs inherent in these perspectives about what constitutes effective leadership. Bolman & Deal (1988) and Quinn (1988) have each described models of organizations based on cognitive perspectives or frames. Bolman & Deal's model (1988) presents four frames or perspectives on organizations and their inherent assumptions about what constitutes good leadership. Quinn (1988) has also developed "A Competing Values Model of Organizations" that encompasses four frames or perspectives that he believes represent differing value orientations, and eight different leadership roles associated with the four frames in his model.

Each of these two models argues that effective leadership depends on the level of cognitive complexity in the leader and the leader's flexibility in choosing and using different perspectives in interpreting and acting in their roles. Each of these theorists stated that no single frame/perspective is better or more dominant than others. Rather, they stated that adherence to single frame thinking contributes to rigidity, and inattention to important cues

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in the environment. It is this rigidity that contributes to ineffective leader behaviour.

Quinn (1988) described a "master leader" as someone who is able to transcend style, who has higher scores in all eight roles of his model, who tends to be located at higher levels of management, and who has been in their organization longer. This group, in his studies, had a large female representation (p. 104). Bolman & Deal (1992), in studies using their cognitive frames model, found that the stereotypical beliefs about women (i.e., that women would be rated higher on characteristics such as warmth, supportiveness, and participation, and lower on characteristics such as being persuasive, shrewd or well-connected) could not be supported. In fact, they reported that men and women in comparable positions are actually more alike than different (Bolman & Deal, 1992, p. 527).

Summary

Studies that have focused on gender and leadership have tended to produce mixed results. These results may reflect the inability of traditional theories to capture the relationship between organizations and how women leaders come to know, understand, and act in leadership roles. I believe that the cognitive theories of leadership developed by Bolman & Deal (1988), Quinn (1988) and Desjardins (1989)

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may make possible new interpretations that will allow us to see and value women-centred perspectives and behaviours that were previously not discerned. These theories, I believe, will allow us to consider the similarities and differences in the ways men and women understand their leadership roles. Differences tend not to be scaled from better to worse, or from dominant to inferior. Each of these models speaks to the value of cognitive complexity or multi-frame thinking in one's orientation to effective leadership behaviours. A potential weakness inherent in the cognitive theories is the assumption that cognitive complexity will produce behavioral complexity.

Differences Between Academic and Business Organizations

Kerr & Jermier's (1978) "Substitutes for Hierarchical Leadership Model" suggested that some organizations have elements in them that substitute for or neutralize leadership. Substitutes make the behaviours of the leader unnecessary (i.e., everyone understands their roles and tasks, and are motivated to perform them). Neutralizers include characteristics of the task or organization that prevent the leader from acting in a specified way or that counteract the effects of leadership (Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 1989, p.19).

Birnbaum differences the business corpo: business organ: that universiti activities (i.e do essentially expertise (i.e. redundant histo professor), a f interdependence over raw materi where admission and less visibl carry out their professionals o He concluded th $^{ ext{higher}}$ educatio ^{leadership} than Green (198 ^{Organizations}, Test continue t resources, incr 30vernment, and ^{constitue}nts.

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Birnbaum (1991) suggested that there are a number of differences that separate academic organizations from business corporations. In contrasting the "typical" business organization and the "typical" university, he noted that universities exhibit less specialization of work activities (i.e., assistant professors and full professors do essentially the same things), a greater specialization of expertise (i.e., it is more difficult to substitute a redundant history professor for a needed economics professor), a flatter hierarchial structure, a lower interdependence between parts or departments, less control over raw materials (e.g., especially at public institutions where admission may be non-selective), low accountability, and less visible role performance (i.e., faculty usually carry out their professional teaching unseen by other professionals or administrators)" (Birnbaum, 1991, p. 21). He concluded that leadership in an academic setting of higher education might require a different approach to leadership than that typical of business organizations.

Green (1988), writing about leaders in academic organizations, stated that academic leaders of the present must continue to deal with issues related to diminished resources, increasing control from coordinating boards and government, and the conflicting demands of various constituents. Good management skills continue to be vital for academic leaders. In addition, "campuses and society in

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general will look to academic leaders to clarify their institutional missions, to articulate an academic vision. and to be accountable for the quality of their programs and graduates. Leaders will have to do all of this in an atmosphere of growing external controls, decreased institutional autonomy, and generally scarce resources" (Green, 1988, p.36). Green (1988) stated that leadership tasks in the postmanagerial era will require academic leaders to be coalition builders, team leaders, and knowledge executives. In addition, they must be able to provide symbolic leadership by helping their organizations to create shared values, a common agenda, and by fostering a stronger sense of community (Green, 1988, p. 40-47). These requirements of academic leaders in the postmanagerial era underscore the need for leaders who have the ability to use multiple vantage points, or cognitive perspectives, in coping with their leadership roles. This study sought to identify and describe the range and types of cognitive perspectives or orientations that women leaders in Ontario's community colleges utilize in their attempts to know, understand and act in these academic settings.

Women and Leadership

The bulk of the literature on women and leadership followed three main approaches that seem to typify much of the thinking on leadership and gender. These approaches

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focused on the personalities of leaders, assuming that leaders are a chosen breed with special characteristics. There are widely held beliefs that women do not possess these traits as a result of genetics, gender-role socialization, and/or a different lived experience. Other authors argued that men and women, who elect to enter leadership positions, are very similar to each other in characteristics, motivation, and behaviour (Birnbaum, 1992; Donnell & Hall, 1980; Powell, 1988).

A second approach focused on leadership style and the impact of gender. This literature tended to examine the relationship between gender groups on two major orientations to leadership: consideration and initiating structure. Research on actual working leaders and managers led to the identification of two factors or components of successful leadership (Stogdill, 1974). One of these factors, called "initiating structure" refers to the active, directive role of the leader. This role involves setting goals, planning strategies, allocating work, sequencing tasks to meet goals, and supervising the work of subordinates. This component represents a task orientation and tends to be associated with a masculine stereotype. The other component of successful leadership is labelled "consideration." This component is characterized by the leader's showing consideration for subordinates' needs, interests, wishes, welfare, and advancement. It reflects consultation with

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subordinates about goals, time-lines, strategies, etcetera. This component tends to be associated with a feminine stereotype (Haslett, et al, 1992, p. 140).

Laboratory studies examining the relationship of these components to gender and leadership produced conflicting results with studies done "in the field". In contrast to the laboratory studies, field studies involving male and female leaders, found no differences between the effective male and female leaders and the use of initiating structure and consideration behaviours. Successful leaders were generally high in both components (Dobbins & Platz, 1986; Donnell & Hall, 1980; Powell, 1988; Stogdill, 1974).

A third approach holds that it is not differences in gender-role socialization and lived experience that impacts women's leadership, but issues of control and access to power. In terms of the enactment of leadership, this approach argues that strong perceptual biases about who has access to power and how it can be used, exist between the sexes (Caffarella & Barnett, 1993; Nieva & Gutek, 1981). This approach also argues that a perceptual bias exists that associates leadership characteristics with masculinity. This perceptual bias, it is argued, is maintained in the organizations by male-dominated power structures, and the expectations for leaders to engage in gender appropriate behaviour (Birnbaum, 1992; Brass, 1985; Brenner, 1989; Deaux

research. Som believe to be style of leade analysis of to was not centra Many studies h {e.g., at univ limited experi have been cond informants, th studies tend t the laboratory show no differ Cann & Si stating that " influenced in judgements bas of others (p. inherent weakr. She stated tha categorie the attri

& Major, 1988; 1992; Konrad, In an eff leadership, ma Siegfried (198 & Major, 1988; Epstein, 1988; Gay, 1993; Haslett, et al, 1992; Konrad, 1990; Perry, 1992; Segal and Zellner, 1992).

In an effort to investigate the impact of gender on leadership, many studies have been conducted. Cann & Siegfried (1987) have identified some biases in this research. Some studies have used study tools that others believe to be biased toward the traditional, male-dominated style of leadership. Other biases have come from the analysis of tools in which the assessed for characteristic was not central to the successful enactment of leadership. Many studies have been conducted in "laboratory settings" (e.g., at universities with students who may have had limited experience in working with women leaders). Others have been conducted "in the field" with leadership informants, their superiors and subordinates. Field studies tend to produce results that conflict with those of the laboratory studies. Those done in the field tend to show no difference in leadership style.

Cann & Siegfried (1987) explained these results by stating that "in contrived situations, subordinates are not influenced in important ways by the leader, and may make judgements based upon stereotypes about leaders as managers of others" (p.406). Cynthia Epstein (1988) addressed the inherent weaknesses in categorizations based on differences. She stated that

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grouped...Particulars are denied or overlooked in each categorization. To believe that all men are brothers, one must overlook their differences; to believe they are competitors, one must ignore their similarities and common interests. The extent to which people attribute qualities and capacities to the two sexes is an example of how the concepts of 'male' and 'female' cause the sorting and skewing of perceptions of reality by a focus on differences rather than similarities. Often these distinctions are based on very slim evidence (Epstein, 1988, p. 12).

Cann & Siegfried (1987) also discussed the impact of the relationship of the respondent to the leader as an important factor influencing the evaluation of leadership behaviour. They found that the respondents in their study had different expectations of effective leadership behaviour depending on their perspective as a supervisor versus that of a subordinate (1987, p. 402).

Several authors argued that gender-role expectations do influence women's leadership behaviour (Astin & Lelande, 1991; Capozzoli, 1989; Gay, 1993; Gardner, 1988; Jensen, 1987; Kruger, 1993; Macauley & Gonzalez, 1993; Miller, 1987; Rosener, 1990; Schaef, 1992; Shakeshaft, 1989). This was also true for a women leader's selection and use of influencing strategies or power (Hare-Mustin & Marecek, 1990; Linimon, Barron & Falbo, 1984; Nieva & Gutek, 1981). Women may tend to limit their use of influencing strategies to those which are congruent with gender-role expectations.

Other authors have reported no difference in leadership style between male and female leaders (Birnbaum, 1992; Bolman & Deal, 1992; Donnell & Hall, 1980; Jones, 1986;

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Osborn & Vicars, 1976; Powell, 1988; Roueche, Baker & Rose, 1989; Wheeler & Tack, 1989). Birnbaum (1992) has commented that even though empirical studies have shown no differences in leadership style between men and women, the perception that women are different still persists.

Epstein (1988) stated:

changing historical circumstances require different peoples to become ever more dependent on one another. Such conditions demand that leaders and intellectuals possess the ability to appreciate complexity and ambiguity, and to reason in terms of ranges and dimensions of theory rather than discrete qualities (p. 15)

In summary, to be effective, both men and women leaders must engage in similar behaviours associated with leadership positions. However, it seems that when women engage in these behaviours, they often contravene society's concept of socially acceptable female behaviour. All members of the organization seem to prefer gender appropriate behaviour in their leaders compared to gender-inappropriate behaviour.

Women who initially entered leadership positions were always in a "double-bind" or "no-win" situation. They were told to "be like a man," but evaluated negatively when they did. This situation created a work environment that was confusing, ambiguous and stressful for the female leader. It tends to constrain the enactment of leadership by women. This constraint creates a "narrow band" of acceptable behaviour for female leaders compared to the much wider

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range of behaviour available to male colleagues. For this reason, it is argued that women's leadership continues to be perceived as different from that of men. This difference is not one of "effect" or "outcome," but one of enactment of the process of leadership given the constraints imposed by her gender.

This researcher believed that the "doing" of leadership is influenced by one's cognitive perspectives, values, beliefs and assumptions. In her book entitled Deceptive
Distinctions: Sex, Gender, & Social Order, Epstein (1988)
cited mounting empirical evidence that makes it increasingly difficult to obscure the overwhelming similarities between men and women. The studies cited in her book "bring to light the processes by which the powerful contrive to create, emphasize, and maintain gender differences" (p. 240). For women in North American society, the "doing" of leadership may be constrained by perceptual biases held by self and others in the workplace. The "doing" may also be constrained by altered access to, or selection of, influence strategies that are perceived to be gender inappropriate for women leaders.

Relationship Between the Gender-Ratio Composition in Referent Groups and Women's Leadership Behaviours

Kanter (1977), in her book <u>Men and Women of the</u>

Corporation, spoke to the powerful impact that sex ratios

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had on the dynamics of work relationships among the group's members. She defined the sex-ratio of a group as the ratio of men to women or vice versa. She identified that the sex-ratio of the group was an important situational factor that affects whether gender stereotyping occurred. Kanter (1977) identified four types of groups, of varying sex ratios, that can exist in work settings. These she labelled: (a) uniform groups composed of only one gender group. At the opposite pole, Kanter identified (b) the balanced group which contained approximately equal proportions of males and females. In this group, Kanter stated that attributes of the individual other than gender would influence how the individual was interacted with. Between these two poles, Kanter identified two other groups. One she labelled (c) skewed.

In skewed groups the ratio of men to women or women to men is 85:15 to 100%. The dominant gender group controlled both the group and its culture. The minority gender group was referred to as "tokens" and tended to be treated by the dominant group as representatives of their gender group rather than as individuals. Kanter (1977) believed that the dynamics of the skewed group applied to many of the interactions that occur between men and women in management. For "tokens" these dynamics included coping with additional performance pressures, coping with boundary heightening activities of dominant group members, and coping with role

encapsulation Some dominant labelled as " behaviours re increasing th: current posit in the re-rele stated that i: since the pub sources of suf men and women middle and lo commal status conflict with different must faced include behaviours of ^{characterized} embers. Thes their peer gra comfort. Add: $^{ ext{dsSerting}}$ beh $_{ ilde{c}}$ and problems o ¹¹⁹⁹³, p. 315.

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encapsulation activities enforced by dominant group members. Some dominant group members engaged in behavioral dynamics labelled as "backlash" and "discriminatory". behaviours reflected the dominant group's realization of the increasing threat of more minority group members to their current position of dominance. In Kanter's (1993) afterword in the re-release of Men and Women of the Corporation, she stated that in the nearly twenty years that have lapsed since the publication of the first edition, changes in sources of support and power have made it more likely that men and women will be working side-by-side as peers in the middle and lower ranks of organizations with equivalent formal status. But this phenomenon also forces daily conflict with problems that occur when people who are different must collaborate. The dilemmas that are now being faced include periods of transition unease, comfort seeking behaviours of senior managers who work in roles characterized by ambiguity and high needs for trust among These members seek homogeneity among members of members. their peer group as a means of increasing both trust and comfort. Additional problems related to the dominant asserting behaviour of some majority gender group members, and problems of peer attraction/romance in the workplace (1993, p. 315-318).

Kanter's (1977) last sex-ratio group was labelled

(d) tilted. 65:35 to 85:1 minority memb had the abili minority stat dominant grou Powell (a powerful ef among group m that are diff colleagues. among men and of work group studies that Male and fematended to dis individuals t ^{(p. 165}). Bot that the only and women may with the imba anagement le perceptions a women. Deaux & theory of gen

(d) tilted. This group had a gender ratio ranging from 65:35 to 85:15 male:female or female:male. In this group, minority members tended not to be treated as "tokens." They had the ability to be seen as individuals within their minority status, but were also seen as different from the dominant group.

Powell (1988) concluded that sex ratio of the group had a powerful effect on the dynamics of work relationships among group members. Tokens faced a set of work conditions that are different from those of their numerically dominant colleagues. This had importance in terms of interactions among men and women in management ranks and in other types of work groups (p. 115). Powell (1988) cited a number of studies that found that once subordinates worked with both male and female leaders, the effects of gender stereotyping tended to disappear and leaders were treated more as individuals than as representatives of their gender group (p. 165). Both Powell (1988) and Kanter (1993) concluded that the only meaningful difference between managerial men and women may be in the environments in which they operate with the imbalance in sex ratios, particularly at the top management levels, contributing to stereotype-driven perceptions and unrealistic expectations for managerial women.

Deaux & Major (1987) articulated a social interactive theory of gender behaviour, grounded in expectancy theory,

as a framewor This model em behaviour was dependent (p. demonstrated, behaviour. I: that have ten concept, thes explained the and use of ge grounded in s expectation o converge (Dea conceptualize in which "per negotiated th. the interacti Major, 1987 (a) a "perceibeliefs about (b) a "target gerder-relate (c) a contex ^{it ™ade} gende; Pe₁ group of me: as a framework to examine the impact of gender on behaviour. This model emphasized the degree to which gender-related behaviour was variable, proximally caused, and context dependent (p. 369). Their model focused on the behaviour demonstrated, rather than on the acquisition of the behaviour. In contrast to traditional psychological models that have tended to assume the stability of gender selfconcept, these authors presented an alternative model that explained the flexibility and variability in one's selection and use of gender appropriate behaviour. Their model was grounded in social expectation theory in which the expectation of others and the goals of the individual converge (Deaux & Major, 1987, p. 384). These authors conceptualized gender as a component of ongoing interactions in which "perceivers" emited expectancies, "targets" negotiated their own identities, and the "context" in which the interaction occurs shaped the resultant behaviour (Deaux & Major, 1987, p. 369). The model had three main elements: (a) a "perceiver" who entered the interaction with a set of beliefs about gender and with personal interaction goals; (b) a "target" who entered the interaction with her own gender-related self-conceptions and interaction goals; and (c) a "context" which may be varied in the degree to which it made gender-related issues salient (Deaux & Major, 1987, p. 371). "Perceivers" interacting with the only women among a group of men might be particularly likely to activate

expectancies might result expectancies workplace. A increased, or working with groups might context would behavioral ste related groups Hudson wa at least three (p. 84). This the importance orientations, Galligan (198 settings shou age, education in both type d This stud selected wome: the perceived composition(s

expectancies with respect to the target's gender. This might result in a spillover effect in which gender-based expectancies for behaviour were carried over into the workplace. As the number of "targets" in the group increased, or as the "perceivers" gained experience in working with "targets", mixed gender behaviour in work groups might become more typical. This aspect of the context would decrease the influence of gender-based behavioral stereotypes on expectancies of behaviour in work-related groups.

Hudson was cited in Kruger (1993) as stating "you need at least three women at a meeting before change can occur" (p. 84). This citation referred to Hudson's beliefs about the importance of other women as peers in allowing women's orientations, styles and influence to be visible. Rigor & Galligan (1980) identified that sex differences in work settings should begin to disappear when the influence of age, educational level, and experience were controlled for in both type of organization and at organizational level.

This study sought to investigate the perceptions of the selected women leaders in Ontario's community colleges about the perceived relationship between work place gender composition(s) and their cognitive orientation(s).

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Gender Differences in Leadership Behaviour/Style

Statham (1987) stated that women managers are equally effective in accomplishing desired ends, hence they look similar to men on specific behavioral indices. Yet, she identified that women appeared to use somewhat different styles to accomplish those ends (p.411). Characteristics of the ways in which women enact leadership, as identified in the literature, have been summarized by this researcher under the following categories: issues addressing the centrality of women's relationship with others, issues of power, issues of task, issues of process, issues in decision-making, and issues of values. For purposes of this classification, issues addressing the centrality of relationships refers to aspects of nurturing, connectedness and interdependence. Issues of power refer to how power is accessed and used. Issues of task refer to task completion, i.e., focus on wholeness, detail, hands-on, what are perceived and valued as the actual tasks of the leader. Issues of process refers to the use to time, space, structure, and the communication processes used to facilitate task completion. Issues of decision-making refer to the process of how decisions tend to get made. Issues of values refer to quiding principles, beliefs, or assumptions that affect one's choices in life and work.

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Caffarella & Barnett, (1993), Schaef (1992), Josselson (1990), Gevedon (1992), Shakeshaft (1989), Loden (1985) Noddings (1984) and Gilligan (1982) addressed the centrality of relationships to women's leadership style. Gay (1993) stated that women tended to be relationship oriented. Women wanted to interconnect with those around them. Josselson (1990) stated that life stage development theory for women was not a theory of separateness and autonomy, but one of connection to others and relationship. She stated that the watershed issues for women tended to be social and religious, not political or occupational. Josselson (1990) further identified that the anchors for women tended to be security that is found in relationships, not in the work itself. Work is something to do, not be. Success is determined by relationships and not by achievements (Josselson, 1990). Rosener (1990) spoke to women's concerns with enhancing the self-worth of others and their ability to energize others. Gillett-Karam (1988) and Helgesen (1990) found that women leaders tended to spend more time with their subordinates than male counterparts. Bennis (1989) cited a female informant who spoke of women's tendency to continue their caretaking roles in the workplace.

In terms of issues of task, Macauley & Gonzales (1993) and Helgesen (1990) stated that women tended to see things to completion. Other authors spoke of women's focus on the production of quality output over winning, an increased

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focus on performance standards, and a tendency to "pitch-in" when help was needed to get the task done (Taylor, 1992; Loden, 1985). Helgesen (1990) found that women leaders tended to build more breaks into their scheduling of time to deal with the unexpected and for personal reflection. Helgesen (1990) reported that women leaders in her study viewed interruptions in their work differently than did men. Gillett-Karam (1988) found that women leaders spent more time at the job itself than male counterparts.

In terms of issues of process, the surveyed literature emphasized women's tendency to resolve differences and problems in the group through strategies aimed at collaboration and accommodation versus competition. avoidance or compromise (Loden, 1985; Macauley & Gonzales, 1993). The literature described women's preference for a web or team structure that placed the leader at the centre versus the hierarchial command and control approach (Loden, 1985). Helgesen (1990) found that how women obtained and systematized information, and how they organized people and their time differed from that of male leaders. She discussed the ability of women to take on multiple roles and play parts, their ability to integrate home and work without compartmentalizing these aspects of self, and their preference for using "voice" not "vision" metaphors as being different for women. In addition, Helgesen (1990) found that how women leaders structured relationships vis-a-vis

communication, the use of meeting time, space, authority and control of information made their process of enacting leadership different from that of men as well. Gay (1993) and Helgesen (1990) highlighted a women's view of the world as being multidimensional, i.e., women tended to consider issues as they related to the company as a whole versus being target oriented. Shavlik & Touchton (1988) discussed women's ability to promote effectiveness of the group through interaction and cooperation, and through attention to each person's unique contribution to the whole. Women. they found, cultivated relationships to establish common interest, loyalty, trust and pride in the accomplishment of the whole. Loden (1985) also spoke to women's use of special interpersonal skills related to sensing, listening, management of feelings, intimacy, and the provision of feedback as skills that characterized how women leaders facilitated task completion. Miller (1987) talked about how women used meetings as both communication and management tools.

In terms of issues of power, Loden (1985) reported that women tended to use low control strategies versus high control. She described this use of power as contextual versus the direct power that was more available to men. She spoke to the tendency of women to empower others through the sharing of knowledge versus the withholding of knowledge as a strategy of control. Bennis (1989) stated that women

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perceive power in a different way than men. Miller (1987) discussed a woman leader's tendency to recognize employee achievements more than male colleagues.

Women's decision-making style may also be an area of difference in the enactment of leadership between men and women. Loden (1985) found that women tended to use an intuitive-rational style of decision-making versus the rational style preferred by men. Taylor reported that she found women to be more able to "see the unsaid" and to be more creative in their approaches to problem-solving versus being linear, analytic thinkers and objective problem-solvers (cited in Gay, 1993).

In term of values that appear to guide women's enactment of leadership, the literature spoke to women's beliefs about the importance of caring, to the fact that work is part of life not separate from it, and that one must take responsibility for others and the world seriously as important values that guide women leaders actions (Helgesen, 1990). Kruger (1993) found that women are kinder, gentler, more flexible and less ego-invested than men. Shavlik & Touchton described "fostering, nourishing, caring relationships, intuition and empathy as being values of female leadership styles" (1988, p. 107-8).

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Summary

Although male and female leaders showed no difference on many measures of leadership behaviour and effectiveness, the literature indicated that women leaders tended to be rated with less influence (Brass, 1985). In Western society, acting as a leader is a characteristic which tends to be associated with maleness. When a woman violates gender-role expectations for behaviour in relation to enacting leadership, she may arouse in her referent groups (i.e., peers, subordinates and superiors) a perception that her leadership style is inappropriate even though the behaviour would be appropriate if done by a male (Linimon, Barron & Falbo, 1984; Nieva & Gutek, 1981).

Birnbaum (1992) stated that if leadership were an invented social construct, and if women, in fact, experienced a different socialization pattern and work experience than men, there may be an important relationship not yet visible between gender and leadership. An examination of the cognitive orientations of women leaders and the inherent values, beliefs and assumptions that inform these cognitive orientation(s) to leadership may shed light on this relationship.

Swoboda & Vanderbash (1983) used Virginia Woolf's analogy of a "society of outsiders" from her 1938 novel

Three Guineas as a framework to help identify and describe

the changing ! Swoboda & Var. entered manag considered " to "fit in," dissonance b organization leadership. management, exist that wo submerge valu Masculine def hypothesized perspective, women had fac creating a cc $^{ ext{appropriaten}}_{ ext{e}}$ the task, the task, and the In the 1 of women lead of women have clustered in addition, maj the academic / ways organiza the changing relationships between women and leadership. Swoboda & Vanderbash (1983) stated that when women first entered management ranks in the 1970s and 1980s they were considered "anomalies" in the corporate culture. In order to "fit in." the woman leader tried to decrease the dissonance between her gender and her status in the organization by conforming to a male model or style of leadership. As more women entered the ranks of corporate management, it was believed that a "critical mass" would exist that would result in women no longer needing to submerge valued feminine aspects in order to adapt to a masculine defined image of leadership. Swoboda & Vanderbash hypothesized that a "women centred paradigm" (model, perspective, map or vantage point) could replace the dilemma women had faced of "fitting in" or "not fitting in" by creating a code of behaviour more in keeping with the appropriateness of women's own needs, the requirements of the task, the means available to her for completing the task, and the goals of the corporation (1983, p. 2).

In the 1990s there now appears to be a "critical mass" of women leaders in the corporation. Although the numbers of women have increased overall, their positions tend to be clustered in the lower and middle levels of management. In addition, major external forces are having an impact on both the academic and the corporate business world, affecting the ways organizations compete, manage, and do business

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(Epstein, 1988; Morrison, 1992; Webber, 1993). Webber (1993) argued that these forces required not just changes in programs, but changes in mind sets. These changes in the ways organizations must do business to survive seem to favour inclusion of leadership orientations, perspectives, and behaviours that have previously been associated with undervalued or unrecognized feminine characteristics.

If this is true, one might hypothesize that a womencentred perspective of leadership should now be visible in the lower and middle ranks of management where these economic and social forces have merged with the presence of a large group or critical mass of women. One could also hypothesize that women in senior management positions, because of their isolation in a male-dominated culture, would continue to enact leadership behaviours more similar to those of their male colleagues. This study attempted to examine the relationship between a woman leader's level in the organizational hierarchy and her cognitive orientation(s).

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Chapter III

Interpretive Framework for Assessing Cognitive Orientations to Leadership

Quinn's (1988) Competing Values Model of Organizations and Leadership

There are a variety of reasons for the lack of agreement among organizational theorists about what criteria to use in defining and assessing both organizational and leader effectiveness. Quinn & Rohrbaugh (1981) suggested that this inability to articulate a widely shared definition of effectiveness has resulted from the implicit values, beliefs, and assumptions that have served to shape and define several competing theoretical views of organizations. The theoretical views were labelled as "competing" because the underlying values, beliefs and assumptions that shaped these theoretical views tended to assign dominance to one set of values, beliefs and assumptions over the contrasting set.

Gouldner (1959) identified two of these views as the rational system model and the natural system model. Scott

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(1992) distilled a third theoretical view that he labelled the open system model.

According to Scott, the emphasis of the rational system model, due to its mechanistic, instrumental bias, is on the number of units produced in a given time (productivity) and the number of units produced for a given number of inputs (efficiency). The natural system (or human relations) approach considers not only the production function but also the activities required for the unit to maintain itself. From this organic view, attention is focused on such properties as morale and cohesion. The open system model includes system-elaborating as well as system-maintaining functions. This model emphasizes adaptability and resource acquisition (cited in Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1981, p. 123-4).

Quinn (1988) used the concept of competing values to develop a new, complex, and more holistic model to integrate the competing views or cognitive perspectives contained in the theoretical views of the rational model, human relations model, and open system model.

Cognitive Understructure of the Competing Values Model

Quinn's (1988) model was developed on the assumption that individuals generally prefer one of two dominant orientations in making sense of their world. He labelled one "purposive" and described this orientation as being "analytic, sequential, rational, time-oriented, discontinuous and verbal" (Quinn, 1988, p. 79). The alternative orientation is labelled "holistic" and is characterized as being "holistic, synthetic, visuospatial,

intuitive, t p. 79). Qui these two was biological e the structure brain thinki sociopsychol is condition. infancy" (Qu these two ma Quinn develo: competing se versus flexi: (c) means/pro labelled co: external foc: values model flexibility" internal-ex: to the model. to long time time lines (s represent wha or widely ac

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intuitive, timeless, diffuse and non-verbal" (Quinn, 1988, p. 79). Quinn (1984) proposed two possible explanations of these two ways of viewing the world. "The first is a biological explanation concerning information processing and the structure of the brain (i.e., left brain versus right brain thinking). The second explanation is more sociopsychological and suggests that one's perceptual system is conditioned to differentiate along these axes from early infancy" (Quinn, 1984, p. 12). Within the framework of these two main orientations to understanding the world, Quinn developed his model. His model utilizes three competing sets of values which he labelled (a) control versus flexibility; (b) internal versus external focus; and (c) means/processes versus ends/outcomes.

Quinn used the two sets of competing values labelled "control versus flexibility" and "internal versus external focus" to create the two axes of his competing values model. The vertical axis was labelled the "control-flexibility" axis and the horizontal axis was labelled the "internal-external" focus. He then added a time dimension to the model. The left side of the framework was oriented to long time lines while the right side is oriented to short time lines (see Figure 1). The polar ends of these axes represent what Quinn defined as competing values paradigms, or "widely accepted world views, or basic perceptual outlooks that are widely shared and difficult to alter"

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(Quinn, 1984, p. 13). The control end of the vertical axis suggested a world view in which there is a strong preference for control, objectivity, and certainty with a tendency to search for logical direction and to advocate for perpetuation, entrenchment and the status quo. In this world view both the security and mastery motives are important and their related values of routinization, safety, consolidation, industry, mastery and achievement are espoused.

The flexibility pole of the vertical axis suggested a world view in which there is a strong preference for flexibility and an increased tolerance for subjectivity and uncertainty. There is a tendency to search for variety, opportunity and change while advocating consideration, support and concern. Here the attachment and cognitive motives are both important and their related values of love, affiliation, nurturance, creativity, risk and growth are espoused.

The two paradigms at opposite ends of the horizontal axis represented perspectives, values and beliefs that were differentiated along an internal-external focus. Quinn (1984) described the paradigm to the left as the internal focus or passive orientation that tended to be concerned with inner searching within the individual, or with the People of the organization at the organizational level of

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Competing Values Model

(FLEXIBILITY)

HUMAN RELATIONS MODEL	OPEN SYSTEM MODEL
Means: cohesion; morale	Means: flexibility readiness
Ends: human resource development	Ends: resource acquisition growth
PEOPLE	ORGANIZATION
(INTERNAL)	(EXTERNAL)
Means:	Means:
information management	planning
Communication	goal setting
Ends: Stability Control INTERNAL PROCESS MODEL	Ends: productivity efficiency RATIONAL GOAL MODEL
(Control)	

(Adapted from Quinn & Rohrbaugh, 1981)

Figure 1: The Competing Values Model

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analysis. In this paradigm, there was a tendency to seek harmony, cohesion and cooperation while also seeking homogeneity, regularity and standardization. The dominant values were directed towards withdrawal, rest, reflection and serenity (Quinn, 1984, p. 14). The paradigm to the right of this axis was externally focused and tended to be action oriented. In this paradigm, there was a tendency to advocate the initiation of planned action and to engage in competitive acquisition. The dominant values tended towards engagement, tension, impact and conflict (Quinn, 1984, p.

Quinn (1984) stated that "this internal-external focus

of only paralleled the inner-outer distinctions of a number

scholars, but they were also at the core of the

ference in Eastern and Western philosophy. On the left

the Eastern view which suggests oneness with nature,

cepting things as they are, and the taking of no

cepting things as they are, and the Western view which

gests the imposition of order onto nature and the

namipulation of things in order to bring about desired ends

outcomes" (p. 14).

Quinn's (1988) model then was based on two primary ways
thinking about the world, i.e., the purposive versus the
istic view. He also stated that people have biases in
way they process information. People tend to be very

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predisposed to one dominant orientation and to use alternate orientations less frequently or not at all.

Within these two broad orientations to the world are the quadrants of the competing values framework, and here too people are predisposed to the assumptions of one quadrant over another. Particular ways of organizing and leading are seen as morally right or wrong. People tend to have difficulty perceiving the strengths and the weaknesses in each of the quadrants or in each of the two frames (Quinn, 1988, p. 162).

Four Models in the Competing Values Framework

Quinn (1988) stated that his four models (quadrants)

"are representations of four competing moralities or ways of

seeing the world that people hold implicitly and about which

they feel intensely. They represent the values that precede

the assumptions that people make about what is good and what

is bad, the unseen values for whose sake people, programs,

policies, and organizations live and die" (p. 42). One

frame or model is not better than another; they are simply

different ways of viewing the world.

The four models are aligned along two axes. The

vertical axis is polarized by descriptions of "flexibility

and spontaneity" at the top half, and by "order and

predictability" on the lower pole. The horizontal axis is

or i ented towards an "internal focus and long time lines" on

the left side of the vertical axis, and by an "external

focus and short time lines" on the right side. The models

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are labelled in a clockwise fashion starting at the upper left quadrant: Human Relations Model, Open Systems Model, Rational Goal Model and Internal Process Model. Each model contains within it implicit assumptions about valued processes and outcomes, and about those traits, behaviours, influence patterns and change strategies that contribute to socially constructed definitions of effective leadership within that model/orientation(see Figure 2).

Human Relations Model

Quinn (1988) described the culture of the human relations model as being directed toward the development of human resources. This model reflects the human relations movement in organizational theory. It places great emphasis on information sharing and participative decision making. People are seen as cooperating members of a common social system with a common stake in what happens. The glue that holes them together is a sense of affiliation and belonging. The human relations model places a great deal of emphasis on People and flexibility and would stress the effectiveness cri teria of cohesion and morale (as means) and human resource development (as ends). The assumptions or beliefs about what constitutes good leadership inherent in this are that leaders should exhibit a concerned and Supportive style. Leaders in this quadrant/model are

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labelled "facilitators" and "mentors". The focus for leaders in this quadrant is on human relations skills and the use of relational power.

"Facilitators" are expected to foster collective effort, to build cohesion and teamwork, and to manage interpersonal conflict. In terms of leader traits, they are expected to be process oriented, diplomatic and tactful.

They facilitate interaction and utilize involvement as their main way of influencing others. They tend to identity decisions as their main change strategy.

"Mentors" are expected to engage in the development of

People through a caring, empathetic orientation. Effective

mentors show consideration in their leader behaviour and

seek to influence others through mutual dependence. Their

main strategy for creating or facilitating change involves

the use of informal expectations. Quinn (1988) labelled the

Culture of this model "The Team" (p.41)

The Open Systems Model

Quinn (1988) described the culture of the open systems

MOCOL 1 as "The Adhocracy." This model emphasizes innovation

and creativity. It is oriented toward expansion and

transformation. In this model, a leader does not control

FLEXIBILITY

Human Relations Model

Focus: Human Resource Skills

Power: Relational

MENTOR ROLE

caring, empathetic (T) shows consideration (B)

mutual dependence (IP)

informal expectations (CS)

GROUP FACILITATOR ROLE

process oriented (T)

diplomatic, tactful (T) facilitates interaction (B)

involvement (IP)

decision identification (CS)

Open Systems Model

Boundary-Spanning Focus:

Power: Reward

INNOVATOR ROLE

creative, clever (T)

envisions change (B)

anticipates better future (IP)

generates hope (CS)

BROKER ROLE

resource oriented (T)

politically astute (T)

acquires resources (B) resource control (IP)

instrumental compliance (CS)

INTERNAL FOCUS -

-EXTERNAL FOCUS

MON ITOR ROLE

technically expert (T)

well-prepared (T)

Provides information (B)

in formation access (IP)

in formation control (CS) (CS)

COORDINATOR ROLE

dependable, reliable (T) maintains structure (B)

workflow (IP)

situational engineering (CS)

Coordinating Skills

Power:

Expert

INTERNAL PROCESS MODEL

PRODUCER ROLE

task oriented (T)

work focused (T)

initiates action (B) accomplishment (IP)

rational persuasian

DIRECTOR ROLE

decisive, directive (T)

provides structure (B)

formal position (IP)

legitimate request (CS)

Focus: Directing

Legitimate Power:

RATIONAL GOAL MODEL

CONTROL

(Adapted from Quinn, 1984)

Page 2: Competing Values Framework of Leader Traits (T), Belling values : Competing values : Land Change aviours (B), Influence Patterns (IP) and Change

Stategies (CS)

people but People feel function be is no great places a gr flexibility flexibility acquisition leaders, in 'brokers." spanning sk The : and change environment conceptuali relies on i effective 1 ways and co ^{desirable}. others and better futu The "t external le ^{leader} is e influential | gle Aglned

people but inspires them. Motivation is seldom an issue.

People feel fully committed and challenged. Adhocracies function best when the task is not well understood and there is no great urgency in completing it. The open system model places a great deal of emphasis on organization and flexibility and would stress the effectiveness criteria of flexibility and readiness (as means) and growth, resource acquisition, and external support (as ends). Effective leaders, in this model, are viewed as "innovators" and "brokers." Effective leaders focus on the use of boundary-spanning skills and the use of reward power (Quinn, 1984).

and change by absorbing uncertainly in the external environment, identifying important trends, and conceptualizing and projecting needed changes. This leader relies on induction, ideas, and intuitive insights. The effective leader can create a vision, package it in inviting ways and convince others this vision is both necessary and desirable. The leader as innovator seeks to influence others and to facilitate change by creating a vision of a better future and generating hope in others (Quinn, 1984).

The "broker" role is concerned with maintaining

external legitimacy and obtaining external resources. This

leader is expected to be politically astute, persuasive,

in 1 luential and powerful. Image, appearance and reputation

valued (Quinn, 1988, p. 40-1). The broker attempts to

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Quinn to describe model is or Major empha assumes tha action. Ta is taken. a decisive they perfor short time deal of emp stress the setting (as ends). Eff 'director" leadership

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influence others through resource control and facilitates change through instrumental compliance (Quinn, 1984).

The Rational Goal Model

Quinn (1988) chose the descriptive term of "The Firm" to describe the culture of the rational goal model. This model is oriented toward the maximization of output. The major emphasis is on profit and the bottom line. This model assumes that goal clarification results in productive action. Tasks are clarified, objectives are set, and action is taken. People, in this model, are clearly instructed by a decisive authority figure and are rewarded financially if they perform well. This model assumes task clarity and short time lines. The rational goal model places a great deal of emphasis on organization and control and would stress the effectiveness criteria of planning and goal setting (as means) and productivity and efficiency (as ends). Effective leaders in this model perform the roles of "di rector" and "producer." Criteria for effective leadership focuses on directing skills and the use of legitimate power.

The leader as "director" is expected to clarify

Cartesian through processes such as planning and goal

Sections. This leader defines problems, selects

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tasks, generates rules and policies, evaluates performance, and gives instructions. This leader engages in behaviours directed towards providing structure. The effective director utilizes her/his formal position as the main way of influencing others and facilitates change through the use of legitimate requests.

The "producer" role is expected to be task oriented and work focused. This leader has high motivation, energy, and personal drive. This leader accepts responsibility, completes assignments, and maintains high personal productivity. The leader as an effective "producer" is expected to motivate others to increase their productivity and to accomplish stated goals (Quinn, 1988, p. 39-40).

Their main strategy for influencing others is the use of rational persuasion (Quinn, 1984).

The Internal Process Model

Quinn (1988) labelled the culture of this model "The Hierarchy." This model is oriented toward consolidation and the maintenance of equilibrium. The hierarchy provides stability and predictability. The emphasis is on we surement, documentation, and information management.

Roles are well defined and people are expected to follow the constitutes the major reward. This model of organizations functions well when tasks are well

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1988, b.39

understood and time is not an important factor. The internal process model places a great deal of emphasis on people and control and would stress information management and communication (as means) and stability and control (as ends) in the assessment of effectiveness (Quinn, 1984).

Managers, in this model, are expected to play two primary roles. They are expected to "monitor" and "coordinate."

Effective leaders in this model are expected to possess good coordinating skills and to influence others through expert power (Quinn, 1984).

In the role of "monitor," the leader is expected to know what is going on in the unit, to determine if people are complying with the rules, and to see if the unit is meeting its quotas. Behaviours associated with this role include handling paper work, reviewing and responding to routine information, and carrying out inspections, tours, and reviews of printouts and reports. The leader in the role of coordinator is expected to maintain the structure and flow of the system. This person is expected to be dependable, reliable, well-prepared and technically expert. This leader is also expected to use work facilitation be haviours such as scheduling, organizing, coordinating staff efforts, handling crises, and attending to the chnological, logistical, and housekeeping issues (Quinn, logistical, logistical, and housekeeping issues (Quinn, logistical, in the role of monitor influences

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others primarily through control of access to information (Quinn, 1984).

Quinn (1988) stated "that effective managers must continually change and balance opposites and must have a complex and dynamic theory of behaviour. To pursue some single set of values, as implied in existing theories of leadership, is both unrealistic and potentially dangerous" (p.78). The "master leader" in this model, is someone who is able to transcend style. This person would have higher scores in all eight of Quinn's leader roles thus demonstrating cognitive complexity in their ability to recognize and espouse values in their dominant quadrant as well as in the adjacent quadrants. Quinn also reported that the "master" category contained a high representation of women in his studies.

Positive and Negative Zones

Quinn (1988) enclosed the four quadrants of his model
within three concentric circles. The circle closest to the
centre of the quadrants he called a "negative zone." This
zone is characterized by what Quinn called unclear values or
counteractive values. The next zone he calls the "positive
zone." This zone is characterized by participation,
conness, discussion, commitment, morale, and human
development in the human resource quadrant; by innovation,

adaptation and growth accomplish planning in control, co documentat: The or this zone single way characteri; discussion individual: responsive expediency quadrant; undiscernin quadrant; procedural systems qu Within Quinn (198) trouble. "eam" in t Country Cli of the Open The Tumul adaptation, change, external support, resource acquisition and growth in the open systems quadrant; by productivity, accomplishment, impact, direction, goal clarity, and planning in the rational goal quadrant; and by stability, control, continuity, information management, and documentation in the internal systems quadrant.

The outer circle Quinn called the "negative zone." In this zone of each quadrant the leader becomes fixed on a single way of seeing, thinking, and believing. This zone is characterized by inappropriate participation, unproductive discussion, extreme permissiveness, and uncontrolled individualism in the human resource quadrant; by premature responsiveness, disastrous experimentation, political expediency and unprincipled opportunism in the open systems quadrant; by perpetual exertion, human exhaustion, undiscerning regulation and blind dogma in the rational goal quadrant; and by habitual perpetuation, ironbound tradition, procedural sterility, and trivial rigor in the internal systems quadrant (Quinn, 1988, p. 61-69).

Within the outer limits of each quadrant in this zone,
Quinn (1988) described organizational cultures that are in
trouble. The Human Relations quadrant that is labelled "The
Team" in the positive zone is called "The Irresponsible
Country Club" in the negative zone range. "The Adhocracy"
Of the Open System quadrant evolves into what is labelled
"The Tumultuous Anarchy." "The Firm" of the Rational Goal

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Model evolves into a culture Quinn calls "The Oppressive Sweat Shop"; and "The Hierarchy" becomes "The Frozen Bureaucracy" in the Internal Systems Model. The horizontal axis is "chaotic" at the upper limit of the negative zone, while the lower pole is labelled as "rigid." The horizontal axis is characterized as "apathetic and indifferent" on the left pole and "belligerent and hostile" on the right pole.

Summary

Quinn (1988) argued that moving beyond rational management means either having, or developing, the ability to use both the purposive and holistic frames. Both frames are equally valued. It requires of the effective leader the ability to recognize the polarities inherent in each quadrant, and in diagonally opposite leader roles. It requires the ability to see the strengths and weaknesses in each of the quadrants/models and to not become attached to only one perspective. Finally, it requires leaders to be cognitively complex, to be able to use what he calls "transformative logic" i.e. the simultaneous use of integration and differentiation strategies in thinking (Quinn, 1988, p. 165).

Quinn (1984) suggested that leaders, as individuals, have a tendency to conceive of and to employ only three of the four sets of competing cognitive models (p.14). In

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terms of levels of cognitive complexity, some leaders use only one dominant model in the ways they make sense of and respond to their world. Cognitively complex individuals on the other hand, may have one strong quadrant of values, beliefs and assumptions, but they tend to recognize and espouse the values of the adjoining quadrants or models in this framework. Quinn (1988) reported that individuals and their organizations tend to deny, diminish, devalue and discount those values, beliefs and assumptions that are reflected in the quadrant or model diagonally opposite to their dominant quadrant in this framework. In terms of the "means-ends" value dimension, "means" in one quadrant produce conflict in terms of achieving "ends" in the diagonally opposite quadrant.

Quinn also stated that there is a general cultural bias favouring assertiveness and conflict (external oriented values) over passiveness and harmony (internal focused values) in Western culture. This bias, he stated, "permeates the entire literature on leadership" (Quinn, 1984, p.16). The inference is that this cultural bias in Western society's theoretical views of organizations and leadership has tended to devalue, discount, diminish or to deny the values inherent in the internally focused quadrants (human relations quadrant and the internal processes Quadrant).

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Ferguson (1984) suggested that women were located chiefly in the first and second levels of management because, as "outsiders" to the dominant male value system recognized by organizations in Western society, they were perceived to require control through the use of rules, regulations, procedures, and routinized work that requires little independent judgement.

Since the late 1970's a number of researchers have examined gender differences related to various dimensions of leadership. As reported in the literature review for this study, the results of these many studies are ambiguous and mixed. Birnbaum (1992) concluded from studies in the Institutional Leadership Project that although women were found to be no less effective than men as presidents, women continue to be seen as different. Many researchers have concluded that although there may not be statistically significant differences in the effectiveness (ends) of male and female leaders, there do appear to be perceived differences in the processes used to achieve these ends (Astin & Lelande, 1991; Bennis, 1989; Capozzoli, 1989; Gardner, 1988; Gillett-Karam, 1988; Helgeson, 1990; Jensen, 1987; Kruger, 1993; Loden, 1985; Macauley & Gonzalez, 1993; Miller, 1987; Rosener, 1990; Schaef, 1992; Shakeshaft, 1989; Shavlik & Touchton, 1988). Other researchers have Proposed alternate hypotheses to explain the findings of no difference between male and female leaders. These

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explanations may serve to identify mediating variables that can influence changes in one's way of making sense of a situation. Quinn (1988) spoke to the influence of one's level in the organizational hierarchy as being a contextual variable that may affect one's cognitive orientation or process of sense making. Bolman & Deal (1988) spoke to the impact of one's organizational culture or group culture as another contextual variable that might influence one's process of sense making. Wheeler & Tack (1989) identified time in position and years of administrative experience as variables that might explain differences in cognitive orientation. Powell (1988), building on the work of Kanter (1977), suggested that imbalances in the gender-ratios at work might be yet another variable that contributes to one's process of sense making. Finally, there might, in fact, be no differences in either biological or sociopsychological gender socialization patterns that influenced how one developed cognitive orientations.

Quinn (1984) stated that studies of leadership dimensions and leadership effectiveness could also be organized along the three value dichotomies which were reflected in his model. He cited Bass's (1981) Handbook of Leadership as devoting five chapters to the study of leadership along the following value dichotomies: democratic versus authoritarian; participative versus directive; relations oriented versus task oriented;

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consideration versus initiation; and laissez-faire versus motivation to manage (Quinn, 1984, p. 14). One of the weaknesses of many of these studies was the tendency to seek differences along polarized dimensions, values or perspectives.

Lyons (1983), Gilligan & Attanucci (1988) and Quinn (1988) offeed an explanation that might help to explain the difficulty in finding statistically significant gender differences among leadership dimensions/concepts. Lyons (1983) and Gilligan & Attanucci (1988) stated that men and women each use both moral perspectives (justice and care) in their approach to making moral decisions even though one perspective appears to be preferred by each gender. Quinn (1984, 1988) stated that leaders in his studies also tended to use one dominant moral quadrant or model in making sense of their world, but they also tended to recognize and use boundary-spanning values from the two quadrants adjacent to their quadrant. Therefore, one's use of boundary-spanning values, traits or behaviours might serve to mediate against findings of statistically significant differences in relation to dominant quadrant orientations. This researcher hopes that Quinn's (1988) Competing Values Model of Organizations and Leadership will make visible a more COmplex and holistic woman-centred orientation to leadership because it is designed around three sets of competing values rather than being dualistic in approach.

In an attempt to examine the utility of Quinn's model in making visible gender-related differences as identified or described by other researchers, this researcher reviewed the published works of several others. She compared the qender differences found in areas of traits, behaviours, influence patterns and/or change strategies to those identified by Quinn (1984, 1988) for each of his four quadrants. The studies examined included Ferguson, 1984; Loden, 1985; Blackmore, 1987; Melia & Lyttle, 1987; Miller, 1987; Desjardins, 1989; Bensimon, 1989b; Shakeshaft, 1989; Shavlik & Touchton, 1988; Helgeson, 1990; Josselson, 1990; Schaef, 1992; and Heim with Golant, 1992. In the majority of these studies, the leaders occupied senior administrative positions in their organizations. In classifying the traits, values, behaviours, influencing patterns and/or change strategies cited by these authors for both men and women, the vast majority of the characteristics associated with women leaders fell into Quinn's Human Relations quadrant with a sprinkling of characteristics found also in both the Open Systems quadrant and the Internal Process quadrant. In contrast, the vast majority of characteristics associated with male leaders in these studies fell into Quinn's (1988) Rational Goal quadrant with a sprinkling of Characteristics in each of the Open System and Internal Process quadrants. These results would appear to support both Lyons (1983), Gilligan & Antanucci, (1987) and Quinn's

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(1988) positions that individuals tend to use one dominant orientation/model in making sense of their world. However, the cognitive orientation of the dominant model can be mediated by the individual's ability to recognize and use values, beliefs and assumptions of the adjoining quadrants. This cursory analysis also provided findings that support Quinn's view that individuals tend to use only three of the four models of his framework. The values, traits, behaviours, influence patterns and change strategies located in the model or quadrant that was diagonally opposite to the individual's dominant quadrant tended to be ignored, devalued, or not addressed.

To reiterate, the purpose of this study was to identify, using Quinn's competing values model, the cognitive orientations and underlying value systems espoused by selected women leaders at various organizational levels of the Ontario community college system. The study attempted to describe, compare and contrast how these women developed their cognitive orientations from their perspective. Within the framework of the Competing Values Model, the study attempted to describe whether these women are cognitively complex. The study also examined selected factors as identified in the literature which may produce variability in the development of cognitive orientations (socialization patterns, educational level and work

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<u>Strengths of the Competing Values Model in Examining Women's</u> Cognitive Orientations to Leadership

The competing values framework integrates the three theoretical perspectives (rational, human relations and open system) by identifying two dominant underlying value dimensions which they differentially reflect. The model also identifies a third value dimension (time horizons) which the other three perspectives have tended to ignore. This integrated framework allows for a more comprehensive/holistic and balanced view of both organizational and leader effectiveness (Quinn. 1981).

Instead of attempting to resolve the problem of conflicting criteria for evaluating effectiveness, the framework highlights the conflicts. It suggests that the source of the conflicts is based on essential, competing value dimensions which are premised on both nature and nurture arguments. Because the competing values framework identifies value dimensions for which the effectiveness criteria vary, hypotheses about the relationships between criteria can be formulated and investigated (Quinn, 1981).

Because the competing values framework is founded on the concept of competing values, it is more in line with the view that organizations are interpersonal market places that

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evolve and change in response to shifting internal and external constraints (Quinn, 1981). It is also in line with the view that individuals are complex, evolving organisms which change and adapt to shifting internal and external stimuli. This fact recognizes the ability of individuals to both influence and change the organization and to be affected and changed by it.

Another strength of the framework lies in the fact that differences are not scaled from dominant to inferior or better to worse. Differences reflect competing values, beliefs and assumptions which influence how one makes sense of the world. Values can be changed through education, i.e. exposure to, and awareness and understanding of opposing value orientations.

Quinn's (1988) finding that women have a strong representation in his "master category" may indeed reflect the degree of flexibility, the ability to play roles, the contextual thinking and the centrality of relationships that other researchers and scholars have described as reflective of women's socialization and lived experience.

It is believed that the discovery, articulation, description and valuing of women's cognitive orientations to leadership is important to:

 women who are motivated to be leaders but who are leaving management positions in droves, or failing to enter, because of the stress of coping

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on a daily basis with work situations that may produce significant value conflicts. An understanding of the source of these conflicts may enable both women and men in the organization to utilize alternate coping strategies to lessen this stress. An understanding of the source of conflicting values may also enable organizations to create better work environments that foster job satisfaction and an improved quality of work life for all its participants.

2. organizations by increasing the range of acceptable and effective leader orientations available for managers. Various authors have argued that this recognition and appreciation of diversity will be required for organizational survival. Diversity can be achieved through educational programs directed at recognizing, developing, and using traits, values, behaviours, influence patterns and change strategies in quadrants adjacent to one's dominant quadrant. Educational programs could also be directed towards helping leaders become aware of their tendency to ignore or discount cognitive orientations in the quadrant that is diagonally opposite to theirs.

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3. men in organizations who may be as uncomfortable as some women are with the restrictions on their behaviour imposed by the dominant traditional male orientation to leadership in Western society.

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Chapter 1V

Methodology

General Approach

The purpose of this study was to identify, using Quinn's (1988) Competing Values Model, the cognitive orientations and underlying value systems espoused by selected women leaders in Ontario's community college system. The study attempted to describe, compare and contrast how these women developed their cognitive models or orientations from their own perspective. Within the framework of the Competing Values Model, the study attempted to describe what makes these women cognitively complex. The study also examined selected factors, identified in the reviewed literature, that may explain some of the variability in cognitive orientations (i.e., socialization patterns, educational level and work experience, gender mix in referent groups, and level in the organizational hierarchy).

For this researcher, this study represented a beginning attempt to answer the larger question: Is there a woman-

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centred paradigm, or cognitive perspective of leadership that is valued by women, normative to women, and that is shaped by life experiences and value orientation(s) that are common among women who seek leadership positions?

The design of this study used a combination of both qualitative and quantitative elements. Data were analyzed using an interpretive framework derived from Quinn's (1988) Competing Values Model. This model was chosen as the interpretive framework for this study because it includes concepts that have come to be associated with normative differences (as described by Carol Gilligan) in how men and women come to know and understand their world, and as the basis for moral judgements that affect their choice of actions in given situations. The Competing Values Model argues that effective leaders need to recognize their own dominant cognitive model, and to seek balance by knowing about and utilizing alternative models. The Competing Values Model assumes that no one model or orientation is better or more dominant than another. The models of the framework simply reflect the use of different value systems in how one makes sense of the world.

This researcher hoped that an analysis of the similarities and differences in the cognitive orientations of the women leaders in this study would shed light on the larger issue of identifying, describing and valuing a cognitive, woman-centred paradigm to leadership.

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instrument?

Research Questions

The study questions were chosen to reflect key components of cognitive theories of leadership as identified by Birnbaum (1992), Quinn (1988), and by Kanter (1977). These components included: the implicit theories of leadership held by the respondent; the cognitive models that shape these women's understandings of their work context; the strategies and roles used in performing their jobs; and the relationship between their level in the organization and the gender-ratio composition of their work setting on their leadership behaviours. The specific study questions were:

- 1. What did being a leader mean to these women?
- 2. What people and experiences did these women describe as being influential in shaping their values, beliefs, and assumptions about what constitutes good leadership practice.
- 3. What did these women leaders believe to be the essential characteristics of a good academic leader?
- 4. What motivated these women to be good leaders?
- 5. What did these women leaders describe as being their primary satisfiers in their current positions?
- 6. What did these women leaders describe as being their primary dissatisfiers in their current positions?
- 7. What cognitive models or vantage points were revealed within their narratives, and in the scores on the Prism 1 instrument?

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- 8. What leadership roles of preference were revealed by these women in their descriptions of their preferred mode(s) of getting things done, and by their Prism 1 self-assessment scores?
- 10. Is there a relationship between the work place gender composition of these women leaders and their cognitive orientations?
- 11. Was there a relationship between their level in the organizational hierarchy and their cognitive orientations?

Context of the Study

Ontario's Colleges of Applied Arts and Technology

In 1967, the Ontario Progressive Conservative government under William Davis established a new level of post-secondary education in Ontario entitled Colleges of Applied Arts and Technology (CAATS). These colleges were established as non-transfer institutions designed to "prepare individuals to enter the workforce, with training of both quality and relevance, to contribute to the economic progress of the province" (Dennison & Gallagher, 1986, p. 95). That mandate continues to remain of primary importance. The government of the day had developed an educational vision for the province. The implementation of this vision was driven by the large numbers of students

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entering the secondary school system. The secondary school system had been revised so that students could complete high school in one of three academic streams: advanced (required for university entrance), basic, and technical. This resulted in large numbers of graduates who would be unable, academically, to enter the university system. This new flood of learners occurred at the same time that society and its leaders espoused the belief that the strength of our economy would depend on how well we developed the skills of the province's people. The federal government was prepared to make large sums of money available to the provinces to assist in the educational development of its peoples. Hence, with more and more students graduating from the secondary school system, and the universities unable to accommodate their learning needs, the provincial government established a non-university, post-secondary alternative that would provide the well-prepared workforce required to drive the provincial economy; provide an arena where adults could upgrade their education if they were unable to complete high school; and provide a focal point in communities where individual community needs could be addressed through the development of community service programs tailored to their needs. Only 22 colleges were originally established in the province. In the 25 years since their inception, "Ontario has been able to develop a coherent system of colleges. It has become a system with

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stability and a widely recognized sense of purpose which contributes to its positive profile in the educational and economic structures of the province" (Dennison & Gallagher, 1986, p. 95).

A tripartite approach to governance was established in the enabling legislation. The parties were identified to be the Ministry of Colleges and Universities (MCU) and the Minister, a Council of Regents who were responsible for assisting and advising the Minister in planning, establishing and coordinating the programs of instruction and services for the colleges, and a local Board of Governors appointed by the Council of Regents. Successful governance depended on cooperation among the three partners based on an understanding of, and respect for, the roles of each body.

The Act and its regulations said nothing about the governance relationship between the Board of Governors and the staff and students of the college. Therefore, a great deal of variety developed in terms of internal governance processes at each college (Jackson, et al., 1980, p. 10-11). The most common structure used for internal governance at each college tended to be bureaucratic. In some colleges, the presidents engaged in a consultative relationship with faculty and students through the establishment of advisory committees which he/she chaired, i.e., Student Advisory Council, Academic Council. In other colleges, faculty and

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student advice was not sought or valued, and confrontational relationships tended to develop over time.

The environmental context in which governance of the community colleges takes place has changed significantly in the last decade. Money to fund the system has substantially decreased. Business and industry have increased their demands on the province to revitalize the economy through support of advanced technological training and retraining initiatives that address workforce needs. This also provided a marketing vehicle that could attract new businesses to Ontario. There have been increased demands on the government to meet the needs of special interest groups, i.e., women, francophones, native Canadians, the disabled, and new Canadians from other cultures. Business and industry are demanding an increased competence of college graduates in so called generic skills in addition to highly technological skills. College programs are trying to cope with the decreased literacy and numeracy skills of students now entering college. These deficiencies require extensive remediation programs for which the college is not sufficiently funded. Our student population is increasingly represented by the older adult who has family and work responsibilities, and who attends college on a part-time basis. In addition, there are more private competitors in the educational arena offering various programs to meet the needs of Ontario's life-long learner. Finally, labour

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Faculty

relations have become more difficult in the past few years within the college sector. Faculty have engaged in two strike actions since 1984. Both strikes, according to the faculty association, were based on "quality of teaching" issues.

At the system level, we are seeing a move to more central control of the individual colleges in the form of the newly formed provincial College Standards and Accreditation Council. In place of the diversity valued in the late sixties and early seventies, we now see a trend for programs of studies at various colleges to be more similar in content and outcomes (a demand from business and industry). The system is becoming more and more sophisticated politically as various interest groups begin to lobby the Minister directly in order to have their interests and values addressed. These interest groups (both at the system level and within each individual college) will be powerful shapers of governance in the future. The system appears to be moving from the participatory model of governance of the early days to a sophisticated, more centralized and homogeneous political model of governance for the future.

At individual college levels, attempts to administer some individual colleges according to bureaucratic models of governance have lead to some conflict-ridden institutions.

Faculty and students are actively demanding both a voice and

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vote in the decision and policy making processes at their institutions. Several years of severe economic constraints have resulted in significant financial burdens at the individual college level. These continued financial restraints are resulting in the need to restructure and "down size" faculty, administration and support staff groups and to rationalize college programs. Finally, individual college faculty and administration have remained virtually unchanged in the 25 year history of the system. The replacement of some retiring faculty and administrators is also effecting changes in the culture of the individual colleges.

Status of Women in the Ontario CAAT System

In 1975, the Ontario Government first required that Ontario's Colleges of Applied Arts and Technology establish an affirmative action plan for their women employees. In 1986, the College Advisory Committee on Affirmative Action (renamed the College Committee on Equity in Education and Employment [CCEEE] in 1987) recommended to the Committee of Presidents that a study be undertaken. In accordance with the terms of reference, the study was to include descriptive and historical information on the development of equity issues in the colleges, a discussion of the status of equity issues accomplished during the past decade, and to suggest

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why some equity strategies succeeded and why others did not (CCEEE, June, 1989). The thrust of the guidelines was to explicitly articulate the need for an active approach to correcting the under-utilization of womens' skills (CCEEE, 1989, p. 1). According to the study report, employment initiatives in the decade 1976-1987 included "special recruiting measures, job sharing and internship programs". Education initiatives included "bridging programs, womens' studies programs, womens' centres, publications, films, conferences, as well as guidelines for gender neutral language and learning resources. Most colleges had also developed policies for sexual harassment" (CCEEE, 1989, p. vi).

Statistically, the report states,

...improvements in employment equity have been minimal. In 1975, women represented 43.1% of the full-time academic, support and administrative staff in the Ontario college system. In 1988, they represented 48.4% of the total, a 5.3% increase. When the figures were analyzed for the three employee groups, women in the colleges were and are found in stereotypical occupations. In 1975, full-time women comprised 36% of the faculty; in 1986, they represented 35%, and by 1988 the figure had increased to 41% (CCEEE, 1989, P.vi).

(This 1988 period also coincided with changes in the faculty union collective agreement that brought nursing faculty workloads in line with those of other college programs.

This resulted in a significant hiring of new faculty for college nursing programs.)

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compar adminis while s they as According to the 1988 data, 41% of the women in colleges are clerical staff while only 6% of men are found in this classification. While women have made progress in obtaining administrative positions in 1988, less than 1% of women in the college system held positions at the upper level of management (positions rated higher than 900 Hay points)." Women students, according to the report, "comprise over half of the full-time student body, however, a stereotypical picture emerges when enrolment patterns are examined. Women students are predominant in the health sciences and are under-represented in technology. While there have been some fluctuations in female enrolment, there has not been an appreciable increase from 1974 (CCEEE, 1989, p.vi).

The report concludes that "the commitment to equity has varied among the colleges and that there is evident tension between the need to implement equity initiatives and current fiscal pressures" (CCEEE, 1989, p. vi).

The Changing the Odds report stated "the progress of affirmative action within the individual colleges appears to be correlated with factors such as philosophical commitment by senior management, size and location of the college, and the extent of prior involvement in women's issues. In 1975, the MCU liaison to the College Committee on Equity and Education (CCEEE) reported directly to the Deputy Minister of MCU. In 1988, this position reported to a position three levels down from the Deputy Minister" (CCEEE, 1989, p. 9).

In terms of administrative staff, the <u>Changing the</u>

Odds report stated that

.....in 1988, 514 women were in administration compared to 1017 men. The breakdown of administrative staff by Hay points indicated that while women may be classified as administrators, they are clustered at the bottom of the Hay point

range. In 1986, only one of 22 presidents was female, only 5 of 22 vice-presidents, academic were female, only 4 of 22 senior personnel officers were female, and there were no women in the position of vice-president, administration. The report cites a Stevenson, Kellogg, Ernst & Whinney report that commented that women in senior management were very much a minority in the CAAT system. In terms of treatment at salary review time, women do not receive similar treatment to men, even when factors such as time in job, time in college, and age are taken into account (CCEEE, 1989, p.15).

Population and Sample

The study population included 24 women administrators at the president, vice-president, full-time program academic dean and full-time program academic chair positions within the Ontario community college system (N=23 colleges). The women leaders in the study sample were chosen from 13 of the 23 colleges that make up the system. The study population was distributed among the hierarchial organizational levels. Eight (8) women were selected from senior management positions. These women held positions of president, vice-president, academic; vice-president, student services; vice-president, community services; and vice-president, administration and finance or equivalent. Three (3) of these senior women or 37.5% of this group held positions of vice-president, academic.

Seven (7) women were selected from middle management positions. To be identified as a middle management position, one of the study's inclusion criteria was that

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another layer of administration must report directly to these positions. These positions typically held titles within the system of "Dean" or "Director".

Nine (9) women were selected from first line academic management positions.

All women in the study population had to have held their current position for a minimum of one year.

In order to examine the relationship of gender on women's cognitive orientations to leadership, this first line management group was chosen to reflect three different subordinate group gender ratios as described by Kanter (1977). For purposes of this study, the subordinate group was defined as all persons reporting directly to these positions. The three gender ratio groups were: (a) a gender ratio in the subordinate group that was equal to, or exceeded, being 85% male; (b) a gender ratio in the subordinate group that was equal to, or exceeded, being 85% female; and (c) a gender ratio in the subordinate group that was between 65% and 85% male or female dominant. In terms of this study, the latter group reflected subordinate groups that were between 65% and 85% male in composition. Three first line women administrators were selected into each of these three groups to form a total sub-sample of nine (9) first line managers.

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Data Collection Tools

Data were collected in two formats. A structured interview (see Appendix A for Interview Guide) was selected as the primary mode of data collection because it is viewed by naturalistic inquirers as providing the most accurate source of information. The interview data were collected by the researcher in single interview format using an audio tape recorder. Each interview lasted approximately two (2) hours. The interview questions were designed to help the researcher identify and describe the cognitive models (i.e. beliefs, values and assumptions) the woman leader held about leadership. They were also designed to help the researcher uncover how the woman leader came to hold these beliefs, values and assumptions, and how they influence her approach to doing her job.

Data were also collected using Quinn's (1992) Prism 1
Competing Values Self-Assessment instrument (Appendix B).
This instrument was designed to help managers identify the managerial roles they favour and avoid based on ratings of how frequently they engage in a selected list of managerial behaviours. The tool assesses the eight managerial roles that are described in Quinn's (1988) model. Two managerial roles are identified for each of the four quadrants. The Prism 1 instrument consists of 32 questions against which the respondent rates one's perception about one's own

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present level of performance, and about how they perceive they should be performing. The questions relate to four broadly described managerial behaviours for each role. The Prism 1 instrument is designed so that the respondent must rate their performance on all eight roles identified in the Competing Values Model. This instrument provides a mean score for each of the leader roles in the Competing Values Model in contrast to the interview format in which the study participant may choose to discuss only a few roles, that she perceives to be relevant, during the course of the interview.

Scores from the <u>Prism 1</u> instrument were used, in conjunction with the interview data, to identify the leader roles, the cognitive orientations and cognitive models that the respondents utilized.

Denison, Hooijberg, and Quinn (1993) reported that this instrument has been tested on large samples of managers using multidimensional scaling techniques, and the results have shown good support for the quadrant model and leadership roles within those quadrants. These authors reported that reordering the roles on the left side of the model produced an acceptable fit (K=1.78) to the circumplex model for high effectiveness managers. Quinn (1992) stated that "this instrument has been shown to have high internal reliability, discriminate reliability, and nomological validity" (p. 12).

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Evidence

The study evidence was composed of the values, beliefs, and perceptions of these women leaders as revealed in their interview narratives. In addition, mean scores were calculated using the Prism 1 assessment instrument. These scores were utilized to help identify the preferred cognitive models (i.e., Human Relations Model, Open System Model, Rational Goal Model and Internal Process Model), overall cognitive perspectives or orientations (i.e., flexibility versus control, and an internal focus or an external focus) used by these women, and the leader roles (i.e., Innovator, Broker, Producer, Director, Coordinator, Monitor, Faciliatator, and Mentor) they employ.

Analysis

Data for this study were analyzed utilizing content analysis techniques based on Quinn's (1988) Competing Values Model. Where possible, the descriptors used to label each category of data were the terms used by at least one of the respondents. Quotation marks enclosed the names of categories in which the words of a study respondent(s) were used as the descriptor. The cognitive values, traits, behaviours, influencing patterns and change strategies described by the study respondents were compared to, and

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contrasted with, the values, traits, behaviours, influencing patterns and change strategies described by Quinn (1992, 1990, 1988) for each of the leader roles in his framework.

A tool to assist with the content analysis process (Appendix F) was developed by the researcher based on cognitive values, traits, behaviours, influencing patterns and change strategies described by Quinn (1992, 1990, 1988).

Following the interviews, all audio tapes were transcribed by the researcher for use in data analysis. The transcripts were then analyzed by the researcher, and data were tabulated by frequency counts in relation to the specific variable of interest. The dominant categories for comparative purposes were: the total sample population (N=24), a sub-group of senior level women leaders (N=8), a sub-group of middle level women leaders (N=7), and a sub-group of first level women leaders (N=9).

In order to examine the relationship between work place gender composition and cognitive orientation, the first level group of leaders (N=9) was subdivided into three groups each reflecting differing gender-ratios in these women's subordinate groups. The three gender-ratio subgroups were: (a) greater than 85% male in composition (Male Skewed Group), (b) greater than 85% female in composition (Female Skewed Group), and (c) between 65% and 85% male in composition (Male Tilted Group). Frequencies were counted

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for each variable in the analysis, and proportions were calculated.

Study findings, for the interview data, were reported as percentages. A decision rule, that at least 50% of the women in each group must have reported the value, belief, attitude, influencing behaviour or change strategy, was applied in deciding whether the variable under consideration would be reported as a study finding that would be considered normative to the group in question. The Prism 1 data were reported in the form of mean scores.

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) were calculated to compare the average Prism 1 score and the interview score for the different hierarchical levels of management, and for the first level group that was further divided according to various gender ratios in the subordinate group. The model scores were calculated using the means for the appropriate role scores (i.e. Rational Goal = [Director + Producer]/2). Similarly, the overall cognitive perspectives were calculated using the means for the cognitive model scores (i.e. control = [Rational Goal + Internal Process]/2. For the interview data, the role score was the proportion of the items endorsed in that role. The cognitive model and overall cognitive perspective were then calculated in the same way as for the Prism 1 tool. ANOVAs were done using proc GLM in SAS. The dependent variables were the outcomes of the Prism 1 and interview tools for each of the four

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cognitive models and four cognitive perspectives of the Competing Values Model.

Data Collection Plan

The Vice-President, Academic position, was contacted by facsimile at each college to obtain the names and positions of all female administrators at the presidential, vice-presidential, full-time program academic dean or equivalent level, and full-time program academic chair or equivalent level at their respective college. Nineteen (19) of the 23 colleges in the system responded to this request. One (1) college was reluctant to release the names and positions of their women administrators without their prior permission. It was agreed that information that would normally be sent directly to the women administrators requesting their participation in this study would be sent to an identified individual in the Human Resources Division at this college for distribution.

An introductory letter was then sent to selected women administrators at each college (see Appendix D). This letter provided a brief summary of the purpose of study and a review of data collection methods. The respondents were assured that neither their name, nor that of their institution would be used in the reporting process.

Agreement to participate in this study was then asked for in

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this letter. If the respondent agreed to participate in the study, she was asked to return the consent form to the researcher in the enclosed self-addressed, stamped envelope. The women leader was asked to respond to the following questions on the consent form: length of time in position, gender-ratio composition of her peer referent group, and gender-ratio composition of those people who report directly to her position. These data were then used to select the actual 24 respondents who were interviewed, and to whom the Prism 1 assessment instrument was given. The gender ratios, in the peer groups of these women leaders, were reported to be greater than 50% male at all levels of the organizational hierarchy. Gender ratios in the subordinate groups of first line managers were used to select the first line managers who were included in the study population.

The response rate to the letters, requesting participation in the study, that were mailed directly to the respondent was 70%. The overall response rate was 65%.

As the consent forms arrived, the individual respondents were selected into the study in each of the three major categories defined by level in the organizational hierarchy. There was an excellent response rate from the senior management group, and the researcher selected the study participants for this group by attempting to balance the number of respondents with the variety of position titles in this category. Only 7 middle managers

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responded to the request to participate letter, and all were included in the study population. Respondents in the first line management positions were selected into the study population based on the gender ratios reported in the subordinate groups, as described in the study protocol.

Interviews with the study participants were set up by the researcher via a telephone call to their offices, and the interviews were conducted in the May to mid-August period of 1994. Once the interview date and time were confirmed with the respondent, the researcher mailed a copy of the Prism 1 instrument, a summary copy of the Interview Guideline, and a letter confirming the date and time of the interview to each participant. The respondent was asked to complete the Prism 1 instrument prior to the interview, and was told that the Prism 1 answer sheet would be picked up by the researcher at the time of the interview.

The interviews were tape recorded and lasted approximately 2 hours. In all but three cases, the interview took place in the respondent's office. In two cases, the interview took place in a small conference room located close to the respondent's office. One interview took place in a respondent's home at her request. The completed Prism 1 instrument was collected by the researcher either before the interview started, or at its conclusion. These Prism 1 results were not reviewed by the researcher prior to the interview being conducted.

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Finally, thank you letters were sent to each study participant following their interview. In addition, thank you letters were sent to each woman who agreed to participate in the study but who was not selected into the final sample. This letter thanked them for their agreement to participate in the study.

All study respondents requested either a copy of the study abstract or an executive summary of the study results, following completion of the dissertation. The researcher has agreed to send either a copy of the abstract, or an executive summary report, to each study participant.

Ethical Considerations

A letter of agreement to participate in the study was obtained from each study informant (see Appendix D). All data were reported in collapsed categories so that individual identities and the identities of their colleges would be protected.

The interview tapes were transcribed solely by the researcher and coded by her in terms of the respondent's level in the organization, length of time in her current position, proportion of women to men in her peer group at work, and proportion of women to men in the subordinate group which reports directly to this position. Once coding was completed, all tapes and information that might identify

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the respondent's name or college affiliation, were secured by the researcher in a locked file. Only the coded, written transcripts were used in data analysis.

Copyright permission had been sought and received for use of the Quinn (1992) instrument (see Appendix C).

Limitations of the Study

Several limitations were involved in this study. first was that the study was based on single respondent perspectives as articulated to the researcher in a single interview format. The evidence used in this study reflected the perspective of the respondent only. This perspective might reflect the respondent's actual perspective, beliefs and values. It might reflect a perspective or image that the respondent thinks the researcher would like to hear, or an image that the respondent wants to portray. The perspective might reflect some variation of all these vantage points. Additionally, corroboration from work associates, about the women leader's frame(s) and leader behaviour, was not sought. This created a limitation of actual versus espoused portrayals of cognitive models, perspectives and roles. However, this study's focus was solely concerned with the interpretations and sense-making cognitive strategies of these women leaders. Bensimon (1989) commented that "even though espoused theories may not

ac ar of (p fa ۷O ıe st (1 us ₫e[,] the in de a 1 Pi: В to guj int арţ Pri the hel accurately represent what these leaders actually do, they are likely to influence the expectations these leaders have of themselves as leaders as well as their behaviour" (p.109).

The small number of respondents in the sample and the fact that this was a convenience sample of respondents who volunteered to participate in the study produced a lack of representivity, which was the second limitation of the study.

Methodologically, as discussed by Guba and Lincoln (1988), there was the possibility of interviewer bias when using qualitative techniques. This bias might occur in the development of the questions, presentation of questions to the respondents, or to the non-verbal reactions of the interviewer to the respondents answers. In an attempt to decrease bias, the Interview Guide (Appendix A) was used in a trial case prior to the start of data collection. pilot case was intended to provide feedback on the questions as well as the interviewer's style and non-verbal reactions to responses. Some questions in the original interview quide were re-ordered following feedback from the pilot In addition, a decision was made to send an interview. abbreviated copy of the Interview Guide to the participants prior to the interview. It was felt by the respondent in the pilot case that the abbreviated interview guide might help the respondent prepare for the types of questions to be

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asked in the interview. Open-ended questions such as those in the interview guide of this study are supposed to be more likely to decrease interviewer bias by allowing the respondents to elaborate on their own perceptions. Finally, member checks (checking with the participants about interpretations during the interview) increased the researcher's comprehension of their comments.

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Chapter V

Results

The results of this study will be reported under several headings. These will include a section that addresses the background characteristics of these women leaders; a section that summarizes these womens' beliefs about what being a leader means to them and about how they have come to hold these beliefs. The next section will report those factors that these women leaders described as being their primary motivators to engage in leadership as well as their perceived job satisfiers and dissatisfiers. In addition, the types of critical incidents these women reported as being most problematic for them in terms of their personal value systems will be reviewed. This will be followed by a section that summarizes the leader roles, cognitive models and cognitive perspectives of these women leaders as viewed through the interpretive framework of Quinn's (1988) Competing Values Model. The last two sections will report on the perceived impact of their level in the organizational hierarchy and of the gender ratio in referent

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work groups on these leaders' preferred cognitive models and cognitive perspectives.

In order to begin to address the overarching issue of identifying, defining and describing a women's perspective, style, or approach to leadership that is normative among women, valued by them and reflective of their lived experience as women the report of the study results will conclude with a composite description of a woman leader based on descriptors reported by at least 50% of the women who participated in this study.

Background Factors

McCall, Lombardo & Morrison (1988) asked the question,
"Are leaders born or made?" They concluded:

... that while research can never be definitive, sufficient evidence exists to conclude that neither the nature nor the nurture explanation is adequate. There is no longer any question that some predisposing factors, such as basic intellectual capacity, are either primarily genetic or developed so early in life that they cannot be changed much in later years. Another chunk of predisposing characteristics, if not genetic, seems to be the product of growing up-the socialization of the pre-work years. The lessons of life's experiences begin early, with the influence of family, peers, education and other events of childhood and young adulthood shaping the leader to be (McCall, Lombardo & Morrison, 1988, p.3).

Table 1 presents a composite of the background characteristics of the 24 women in the study.

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Age

The women leaders in this study were, on average, 45.6 years of age. They ranged in age from 37 years to 54 years. The first line managers tended to be younger than either the middle or senior level managers. The average age of the first line group of women (N=9) was 43.8 years, compared to 46.4 years for the middle management group (N=7), and 46.9 years for the senior management group (N=8) [see Table 1).

Marital Status and Presence of Children

Nineteen (19) of the 24 women in this study reported being married at the time of the study. Sixteen (16) of the study participants stated they had children; 13 reported that they still had children living at home (see Table 1).

Birth Place in Family of Origin

In terms of birth position in their family of origin, the women who participated in this study were fairly evenly divided among being the eldest or only child (N=8), being a middle child (N=9), or the youngest in their family (N=7) [see Table 1].

Parents' Occupations

Six (6) of the 24 women in this study reported that their fathers worked in professional occupations while they were growing up. Another 6 said that their fathers owned their own business, while 8 women reported that their fathers had been involved in technical or labour occupations. Four of the study participants did not indicate their father's occupation while they were growing up (see Table 1).

Three of the respondents did not report their mother's occupation either. However 11 of the participants reported that their mothers had been engaged in paid work while they were growing up. Three of these mothers were engaged in professional disciplines and three were reported to be self-employed. Ten of the mothers were described as being primarily homemakers while these women were growing up (see Table 1).

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Table 1
Demographic Profile of Participants

Category	Total Grp	Senior Grp	Middle Grp	First
	N=24	N=8	N=7	Line N=9
Ave. Age	45.6	46.9	46.4	43.8
S.D.	4.3 yrs	4.7 yrs	3.2 yrs	4.5 yrs
Range	37-54	44-54	42-51	30-50
Marital Status Married Single	19 5	6 2	5 2	8 1
Children Yes At Home	16 13	6 4	4 4	6 5
Birth Position Eldest Middle Young.	8	5	3	2
	9	0	3	5
	7	3	1	2
Father Job Prof. Tech/Lab Own Bus. Unknown	6 8 6 4	4 1 2 1	0 2 3 2	2 5 1 1
Mother Job Homemaker Prof. Own Bus. Sec./Lab. Unknown	10 3 5 3 3	4 2 1 0 1	1 1 2 2 1	5 0 2 1 1
Highest Education Ph.D. M.Ed. M.Sc.N. M.A. M.S.W. B.A./B.Ed B.Com. B.App.Sc. Diploma	2	2	0	0
	10	2	4	4
	1	1	0	0
	4	2	2	0
	1	0	1	0
	3	1	0	2
	1	0	0	1
	1	0	0	1

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Highest Level of Formal Education

Sixteen (16) of these women reported holding graduate degrees at the masters level. The majority of these were Master of Education degrees (N=10). Two (2) of the senior level women held doctoral degrees in education. Five (5) of these 24 women held baccalaureate degrees in education, commerce or applied science fields. One women had not attended university; however, she had earned a professional diploma (e.g. Diploma Nursing, Certified Management Accountant) following completion of secondary school (see Table 1).

Career Path

Consistent with Caffarella & Barnett's (1993) conclusions that women do not tend to follow a linear path in their development, 13 of the 24 women in this study said that they never really planned their career. When opportunities presented themselves or were suggested by others, this group of women leaders tended to evaluate career move options against their current life commitments and values. In spite of not really planning their careers, 18 of these women leaders reported following a linear or traditional academic career path that included being a faculty member and/or coordinator, moving to a first line

management position, then progressing to middle management "Dean" position or equivalent. Thirteen (13) of these women who reported progressing along a linear academic career line did so within the same college. In contrast, only 6 of these women leaders entered academic management positions in the community college setting directly from business or industry (see Table 2).

The average length of time that these women reported being in their current positions was 4.7 years. The first line managers reported being in their current positions the longest time, on average, compared to the senior level women leaders who had occupied their current positions for shortest period of time on average (see "Other" in Table 2).

Career Goals

Eighteen (18) of the 24 women leaders who participated in this study said they would be interested in continuing to seek leadership opportunities in either educational or business settings. The remaining 6 women reported that they planned to either retire or start their own businesses (see Table 2).

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Category	Total Grp. N=24	Senior Grp N=8	Middle Grp N=7	First Line N=9
Time in Position Range	4.7 yrs. 1 - 8 yrs	3.9 yrs. 1 - 7 yrs	4.9 yrs. 2 - 7 yrs	5.2 yrs. 3-8 yrs.
Career Path Trad. Other	18 6	5 3	5 2	8 1
Career Goals Leader Role Retire/ Own Bus.	18 6	6 2	6 1	6 3

Perception of Conflict Between Home and Work

The women leaders were asked about the amount of conflict they experienced between their work and home commitments. It was interesting to note that 17 of these 24 women reported no conflict between their work and home lives. Many of the women in this study (N=24) described their tendency to balance the "busyness" of their work lives with more solitary types of activities in their off-work time (N=19). These solitary activities included reading, gardening, needle or craft work, going to the movies and watching television. Some sample comments included:

I need to find space and solitude to deal with what is happening around me...My time for solitude is between 6:00 a.m. and 7:30 a.m...I walk regardless of the weather and I read in the morning while I drink my tea. That is how I keep my sanity.

Senior Level Women # 6

I'm a movie freak...When I'm very stressed, I get a good movie...I walk and swim...I need it for my physical self and for the solitude...I also clean the house. As much as I hate it, it is hands-on, and its usually done alone.

Senior Level women # 2

I am happy with the balance in my life. My family always takes priority. I tend to say "no" when things begin to encroach on my personal time. I refill myself through reading, walking the dog, and having quiet time.

First Line Women # 3

Fifteen (15) of these women talked about the support of family and/or friends as being important influences in balancing their lives. Sample comments included:

I've taught my kids and husband to be very independent...my husband generally gets home from work ahead of me. He looks after getting supper and the kids out to things. When I get home, we are able to get together as a family. I refuse to take work home.

First Line Woman Leader # 6

Spending time both on my own and with my extended family renews me...It has to do with companionship...I also have a good support system. My mother looks after the children that are at home and prepares dinner for my family at night.

First Line Woman Leader # 8

Without my husband, I don't know how I would cope!
First Line Woman Leader # 5

I go to church on Sunday and meet with a particular group regularly. I stick to this group religiously. It keeps me grounded and helps keep things in perspective. I trust the people in the

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group for honest feedback...I also make sure my husband and I have time together.

Middle Level Woman Leader # 7

Eight (8) of the women described the use of regular physical exercise as a way of seeking balance. Seven (7) of these women sought to balance their lives by compartmentalizing paid work activities from those associated with their home or private life. These women made statements such as:

When I am at work, I'm at work. I stay at work until I get the work that needs to be done, done. When I go home, I do not take my work with me.

First Line Woman Leader # 5

I replenish myself by keeping the weekends precious...These times are rejuvenating...the days are free. I can garden, golf, play tennis, just hang out with coffee. I've no particular regime. I just crash. I just call this time 'The Weekend' and I need the rest.

Senior Woman Leader # 1

I try not to go out more than one night per week. The evenings are for family.

Middle Level Woman Leader # 3

Five (5) of these women noted the value of vacations as a means of seeking balance in their lives.

Basic Personality Beliefs, Traits and Values

In the interviews, these women were asked to describe their personalities in their growing up years and at present. In terms of identifying their basic personality traits, beliefs and values, the researcher created a category for each new trait, belief or value that was encountered in the content analysis of the interview

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transcripts. The wording used by the respondent formed the category. If another respondent used the same or a similar term to describe herself, the item was counted in the same category. If the trait, value or belief was essentially different from the other categories, it was added as a new category. Where possible, the following results were reported using the words of the respondent who formed the various categories. This use of respondents' words will be indicated, in the text, by the use of quotation marks.

More than 18 of these women described themselves as being "results oriented" individuals who valued achievement. They described themselves as being "independent" and as being honest. They did not like "having games played on them" and tried not to be devious in their relations with others. They frequently cited their valuing of "clear, upfront communication among people." These women spoke about their admiration of "responsibility" and "accountability" in self and others. They described themselves as individuals who "like challenges" and "taking risks." They described themselves as being "good listeners."

In terms of beliefs and values held, more than 18 women leaders in this group cited the importance of modelling desired behaviour or "walking the talk" as being important to them. They spoke of their appreciation of the dignity and worth of others, and of "recognizing and valuing the cognitive and behaviour diversity in others." The majority

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of these women believed that directive or authoritative power was ultimately ineffective as a change strategy because it failed to get the "buy-in" or commitment of one's followers. Two respondents offered the following comments:

Fundamentally, I just don't think it is necessary to use autocratic power strategies. There are other ways of dealing with conflict that address the situation and preserve the individual.

Middle Level Woman Leader # 2

I just don't believe authoritarian or directive power works in the long-term. You may get short-term results, but you don't get buy-in, and that is important.

Senior Level Woman Leader # 1

These women leaders tended to believe that selling, coaching, teaching, helping, modelling and providing justification and rationale for decisions or planned actions to be more effective change strategies. The following comment is reflective of this belief:

Adults don't want to be relegated to 'do what I say'. They want to participate. Adults expect you to provide a rationale for doing, or not doing, something. They have to know why.

First Line Woman Leader # 6

These women reported believing that no one is perfect, including themselves. Therefore, they spoke of the importance of "learning from the mistakes one makes" as a significant lesson in life. Finally, 22 of these women affirmed "clear expectations, goals, outcomes, boundaries and limits" as being necessary for the creation of work environments that promote independence for themselves and others.

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Between 12 and 18 of the study participants reported these additional traits as being characteristic of them.

They described themselves as "always being leader" at play and in school. They described themselves as being "determined," "ambitious," "committed," "self-starters" who tended to get "bored easily" and who "actively sought variety in their lives."

In terms of beliefs and values, these women reported believing that "conflict should be dealt with up-front" and not allowed to fester. In terms of self-evaluation activities, they tended to prefer to use their own internal values as their criteria or standards for evaluation over using external criteria. They spoke of the importance of appreciating and using "the expertise of others," and of employing "effective interpersonal skills." In decision making situations, they exhibited a strong appreciation for "the good of the whole (i.e. family, organization, students, division, department) over the good of some individual or parts."

Implicitly Held Beliefs about Leadership

The study tried to uncover and describe the implicitly held beliefs, values and assumptions these women leaders held regarding what constitutes good leadership. In attempting to explore this issue, the women leaders were

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asked to describe what being a leader meant to them. In addition, they were asked how they had come to hold their values, beliefs and assumptions about good leadership practice. Finally, they were asked their perceptions of the essential characteristics required by a good academic leader. The content analysis for this section proceeded in the same manner as described previously for the identification of personality traits, values and beliefs. As the transcripts were reviewed for these questions, a category was created for each new idea. Where possible, the researcher utilized the words of the respondents to name these categories. Sixty-five (65) different categories of traits, values, beliefs, assumptions and behaviours were described in these womens' reports about what "a good leader" means to them. Once again, the use of quotation marks delineates categories defined in a respondent's words.

More than 18 of these women leaders reported the following characteristics as being important to good leadership. A leader is someone who is "committed to the development of others" and to "helping them be the best they can be" (N=23). In addition, a leader is someone who "recognizes the competence and expertise of followers and encourages their participation in the decision making processes" (N=22). An effective leader is someone who is "able to get others to buy-in to her vision," who "recognizes there are multiple solutions to problems," and

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someone who is able to establish the organizational structures and processes that "make things happen" (N=20). An effective leader is someone who can function in an unclear or ambiguous environment (N=19). An effective leader is someone who "has a vision" and who is able to communicate that vision clearly to all stakeholders (N=18). Finally, a leader is someone who has "integrity," who is "decisive," "reliable," "consistent and predictable in their behavioral enactment of leadership" (N=18).

The majority of the respondents reported these additional traits, values, beliefs, assumptions and behaviours to be associated, in their minds, with effective leadership. An effective leader is someone who "can establish clear expectations, outcomes, priorities, boundaries and limits" (N=17) within which others can work. A leader "recognizes that she does not have all the answers" (N=17). An effective leader is someone who is a "role model, " someone who "walks their talk" (N=16). An effective leader is someone who "generally treats people well," who is "a risk taker," who is "honest and up-front" in her interactions with others, and is someone who "empowers others by delegating responsibility and accountability with tasks/projects" (N=15). Finally, an effective leader is someone who is "able to get people with different values and perspectives to work together toward a common goal" (N=14), someone who "can be unpopular if required" (N=13), someone

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who "accepts change as a fact of life" (N=12), who has "good interpersonal skills" (N=12), who is "able to motivate others" (N=12), and who is able to "make a difference" (N=14). Sample comments about what being a leader means to you included:

A leader has the strength to lead an organization into a future with directions that may seemingly make very little sense to the present members of the organization.

Senior Level Leader # 1

Leadership is working within those different realities, knowing how things should be, when enough is enough, and how does one shift.

Senior Level Leader # 8

Leadership is about having or creating a shared vision while also creating the structures and identity that encourages other people to buy into this vision.

Senior Level Leader # 8

Leadership isn't about technical know-how, but how you deal with people.

Senior Level Leader # 4

A poor leader is very controlling. It is alright to have control, but you don't have to be controlling about it.

First Line Leader # 7

Leadership is about two things...moving the organization so that we get appropriate outcomes, but also getting people within the organization to participate in that process.

Middle Level Leader # 6

I think a leader has to be someone who is willing to make a decision, who is willing to be unpopular ...willing to take an unpopular stand if it is the right stand. I guess having some moral fibre that provides the background for some of the decisions that one makes.

First Line Leader # 8

How These Women Came to Hold These Beliefs

Kotter (1982) concluded that it takes ten to twenty years to "grow a general manager." It was the thesis of his book entitled <u>The General Managers</u> "that development during that time depends not just on raw talent but also on the experiences one has and what one does with them" (cited in McCall, Lombardo & Morrison, 1988, p. 5).

To try and understand how these women came to hold their beliefs, values and assumptions about leadership, the women leaders were asked to describe those people and experiences in their lives that they believed had influenced their thinking about leadership. Once again a content analysis method was utilized to identify categories of people and experiences. An attempt was also made to identify common themes of influence within the identified categories.

A diverse range of people and experiences was described by these 24 women leaders. The categories of people who influenced their thinking and the frequency with which these individuals were cited were: current or previous bosses (N=16), fathers (N=10), mothers (N=8), peers or colleagues (N=7), grandmothers (N=6) and spouses (N=5). The identification of thematic categories related to the influence of "experiences" as described by these women was more problematic. On the whole, these women leaders'

descriptions about experiences that affected their thinking about leadership lacked the clarity and specificity found in their descriptions about the people who influenced them. The thematic categories for "experiences" described by these 24 women leaders were: trial and error-observation and reflection experiences in the context of work (N=24), leadership experiences on community boards and/or in professional associations (N=10), graduate studies and/or continuing education experiences (N=8), experiences with special assignments/projects (N=6), and experiences related to work in professional health or human service disciplines (N=6). I will describe the influence of people and experiences separately. In order to provide the reader with a flavour of the range of influences described by these women within these categories I will use direct quotes from their narratives. To ensure anonymity of respondents identifiers will not be used in reporting these results.

People Who Have Influenced Their Beliefs

(A) Bosses

Current and former bosses or supervisors formed the largest category of people these women leaders cited as influencing their thinking about leadership. Bosses influenced these women leaders in a variety of ways ranging from choosing experiences for them, to teaching necessary

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skills for effective leadership, to creating "safe" environments in which these women could develop the knowledge, skills and confidence required for enacting leadership roles. A selection of some of their comments about the creation of safe environments included:

I have been fortunate to have had bosses who have always allowed me a lot of freedom in my job but also a sense of direction...my first boss was a woman who was one of those empowering sort of people who just gave you all the freedom you needed and spoke to you about your mistakes in terms of 'maybe you should try this or that'. I never felt threatened in any of my positions starting with this one.

A former boss identified a number of women that he felt were strong and he was very supportive of us. He created an environment that would not tolerate the sabotaging of the women leaders to deliberately produce failure. Women advanced or regressed on the backs of their skills and competencies as leaders.

One of my bosses was a mentor of mine. He began to move me around the organization to get experience. He tests me out by giving me experiences. He believes people need experience to learn. If they make a mistake, that's okay. He tells people that this (making mistakes) may happen. He provides the supportive culture and creates a setting in which women can feel safe in testing out their skills.

Sample comments about bosses who influenced by providing experiences or who taught needed skills for leadership included:

One boss was someone I really respected. He had enormous integrity. He trained me, moulded me in the sense that he taught me budgets, how to manage money well and to be accountable for results. At the same time he trusted me and let me do things. He encouraged me to be very autonomous, very participative. He had a wonderful sense of humour. He just really cared about me.

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One supervisor (a woman) was outstanding. essentially showed me by doing. If you went to her and asked why she did things the way she did, she could explain it. She let people tackle tasks and work towards objectives in their own way. created structures that allowed people to do things. She talked with people. She resolved conflict by bringing the parties together to hack it out toward consensus. She taught me to verify the facts from both parties in conflict. Where there is disagreement, perception can be false and you need to see the whole picture. She had committees that were well run. People had agendas and it was expected that one would contribute. She readily admitted mistakes and that there were areas about which she knew little. I really respected her.

I had one woman boss who influenced me most positively by choosing experiences that advanced me. She encouraged me to get involved. She helped me develop my written presentation skills...She showed me how to work with people toward conflict resolution.

I had one boss who was very influential in framing my beliefs about what leadership should be. He taught me the need for self-confidence and self-esteem. He taught me to not be afraid. It's fine to be wrong in making decisions. You don't always have to be right. It is important to give those who look to you for leadership the impression that you know what you are about. It is important to be seen as capable of making decisions....He gave me a whole bunch of programs that I knew nothing about. He taught me that leadership isn't about technical know-how but about how you deal with people.

Bosses did not always influence by being good role models.

Some sample comments were:

I believe that sometimes you learn most from a bad boss than from a good one. I've had immediate supervisors who have caused me to say to myself 'there has got to be a better way'. I've found these leaders to be obstructionists or whiners.

I did not have many bosses who inspired me. I tended to think more like 'I hope I never do things that way'.

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I have had a whole lot of rotten bosses. They may have been effective but you sure learn what not to do if given the opportunity from the experience of working with/for them.

(B) The Influence of Fathers

Ten of these women leaders cited their father as a source of influence on their thinking about leadership.

Generally, these fathers influenced by being role models and by encouraging their daughters to do whatever they wanted to do in life. Sample comments were:

My father was a major shaper of my beliefs. He always allowed me to do what I wanted to do. He always gave me that opportunity. He was very involved in the community. I followed my dad around when he was involved in his community work. This helped to instill confidence in me and a better understanding of society....I think my experiences with my father have resulted in my never being a social or business situation in which I feel intimidated by anyone.

My father was very assertive, gregarious, talked to everybody, was a leader in the community. I saw him as my role model and I've tried to be like him.

My father always believed in me. His perspective was 'sweetheart, whatever it is you want to do, you can do it'. I grew up never thinking that there were obstacles in my way. If I want to learn something, then I learned it. He taught me tenacity. He is always there, always supportive of me.

My father always encouraged things I did well in his eyes. He encouraged me to take risks.

(C) Influence of Mothers

From their mothers, eleven of whom where engaged in paid work while their daughters were growing up, these women learned that women could be leaders and that they could be

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successful in the business world. They acquired the knowledge that "one is judged on one's contribution to the community or an organization." They learned the importance of taking risks, being willing to make mistakes and to learn from them, and the importance of being clear, direct, focused and organized. Some sample comments included:

From my mother I learned that if you want something done well and you don't have a lot of time, there are certain selective things you have to do yourself. She was one of those ladies who had nine balls in the air all at once. I watched her. If it was really important, she did it and she didn't worry about one of the balls falling down. She didn't have to have all the pieces together. She would go with the essence of it and worry about all the details later.

I have a mother that has contributed a lot to what I believe about leadership. My mother was a working mother when a lot of her peer group were not working women. She had natural leadership skills and she always ended up taking on the role of manager. She got a lot of respect from her employers and the people she worked with. They respected that she could make decisions and do the extra that had to be done. She was also someone who has always been very involved in school and church activities. The respect she earned reflected on the family. She always made us get involved in things with her. We were not allowed to sit back. If she didn't know some aspect of a job, she got someone to show her how to do it. learned from her the willingness to even try things even if I didn't think I could do them...She taught me organizing skills and that by doing the best job you can things usually come out well. Don't be afraid to take things on.

My mother was a career person and obviously she was very influential in my life. She taught me that it isn't always easy. You need to be different, to stand out and to stand up for yourself. You should never be allergic to hard work...there is nothing you can't achieve if you want it. I watched her do this.

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My mother was the 'fire' in our family. She was always a homemaker, but she participated actively in the community. She was very persistent. I learned my risk-taking skills from my mother.

(D) Influence of Friends and Colleagues

Seven of the women leaders cited the influence of colleagues or friends. From these individuals they developed an awareness of the importance of strategy, and of how to influence others. Some sample comments included:

One colleague was very good at getting people to do things. He would suggest to me that 'if we really stroke these people... we could get change.' So I tried out some of his suggestions when I would have been more rigid and inflexible. I figured out that this did work...you try things out and find out what makes people sort of grab hold, decide to change, make some moves, work hard for you.

One particular friend is a CEO in a large organization. I would ask him a lot of questions about people and what the meaning was in situations. He became a mentor for me around understanding processes and people...He intrigued me...He loved people and his organization....His style was very fluid.

I have some very good friends and colleagues who are innovative men in executive positions. We talk a lot about organizations. I've learned a lot this way. Our conversations often revolve around our jobs, our organizations, the context in which we conduct our businesses, and the major issues facing us. I am fascinated by these conversations. It is a composite of many different views, life experiences and values.

From a colleague I learned that men and women do things differently. He always used the analogy of a football game or 'good cop-bad cop' in his discussions. He always, always had a strategy and I was not good at having a strategy. I learned from him the role of strategy and always having a fall-back plan. There are different ways to get

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places. I learned from him as well that you don't always have to be direct...you could influence in other ways without being very direct. He probably is the person who softened my approach more than other people I've worked with. He could be direct himself, but when I was direct, people responded differently. He suggested alternate ways for me to get the message across less directly. Not only did I watch him, but we spent lots of time in discussion.

(E) Influence of Grandmothers

Grandmothers were cited as being influential in reinforcing "the importance of a good education and a career for both women and men." From their grandmothers, they learned that "success in life is achieved through persistence and discipline." To their grandmothers they attributed their sense of the importance of "valuing other people". It was from their grandmothers that several women learned that "to work effectively with other people, one must know them as individuals and be known to them."

(F) Influence of Spouses

Spouses were reported to be influential for some of these women by fulfilling the role of an admired expert with whom they could discuss issues at work and explore alternative solutions or have an alternate perspective.

Spouses also demonstrated pride and confidence in their wife's abilities as a leader and this helped some of these women leaders to persist in leadership endeavors. Several spouses were also cited as either sharing equally in home and child care or of assuming responsibility for the home

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and/or children while these women worked. Sample comments included:

My husband is very important. My relationship with him is very equal in terms of sharing responsibility for home and children. He is also an executive. We talk about our roles at work, our problems, and we seek advice from each other. He advises me about the best way to interact with my male colleagues.

My husband is also an executive and I'm very competitive with him. I want to achieve the same things and to have the same sort of positions of authority and scope that he has. I would like people to recognize me for that.

My husband is very involved in my work. He is interested, knows the issues and players, and is very supportive of me. He also assumes primary responsibility for looking after our home and child(ren).

My husband is my greatest fan. He is a real believer that I can do it. He is very encouraging and he is very successful in his own right.

Experiences that Influenced Beliefs about Leadership

(A) The Influence of Work Experience Generally

These women leaders described a tremendous range of work experiences that generally served to shape their values, beliefs and assumptions about leadership. Distinct patterns of similar experiences were not apparent however in the reports of these 24 women leaders. What was prominent in their descriptions of the influence of work generally was the importance of learning by trial and error and by observing at a distance how others did things and then

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reflecting on the consequences of these behaviours to both followers and the organization. McCall, Lombardo & Morrison (1988) described this learning process as being "a more cognitive and reflective kind of learning that resulted from these women first observing, then interpreting, followed by incorporating and then modelling the 'right way' or avoiding the 'unacceptable way' of enacting leadership" (p.134). Sample comments included:

From trial and error experience I've learned that I've only got so much energy. I need to choose my battles well. If something is non-negotiable there is no use wasting time complaining about it or fighting it. Get on with doing it with the least negative impact.

I learn by trial and error...some things work with some people and not with others. What has assisted me in my various roles is watching what works and doesn't work with various people.

I have worked with a number of different bosses who had different styles. I looked at their styles in terms of what I thought worked and didn't work for them. You experiment to some extent with various behaviours in given contexts. If something really works or really bombs, you step back and ask why did it work or not?

I tend to spend a lot of time watching other people to see what works and what doesn't work for them. I'm always willing to do new things and to take risks. I often go out on a limb and try things. When they don't work, I learn and adapt my strategies accordingly.

I've learned a lot from my experience of things that worked and don't work. You watch people and you learn. Once in the position yourself, it's like trial and error...but more calculated by assessments of what has worked for me in the past and what has worked for others that I have observed.

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The totality of observing and thinking, picking up bits from here and there, has been a major influence for me. I've also had good experiences reinforce that behaviour in me.

I typically learn by observing and reflecting on what I have seen.

(B) Influence of Experience on Community Boards or Professional Organizations

From experiences in leadership positions on community boards and in professional associations these women learned:

...how to establish and maintain effective relationships with people from various backgrounds, and with various levels of commitment. They learned that if change is to occur, a leader must attend to the process, and the behind the scenes work (i.e., issues of creating structures and processes for doing the work, issues of coordinating, and issues related to monitoring work output towards goal achievement).

They reported learning about:

...the range of diversity of styles in people who hold leadership positions, and that one is accepted as a leader based on the quality of one's ideas, suggestions, level of competence and expertise.

Finally, they reported learning that once you are a leader and succeed, once you experience the sense of "making a difference," these experiences reinforce your desire for further leadership experiences.

(C) Influence of Graduate Education and Workshops

From graduate education, professional reading associated with leadership practice, and from workshops (i.e., the Management Development Institute), these women talked about "gaining an awareness of various theories that

helped to explain their perceptions about leadership styles, and the context of leadership." They reported finding in these sources "alternative strategies that helped them achieve desired goals in the context of their own leadership practice."

(D) Influence of Professional Practice in a Human or Health Sciences Field

From work in their professional practice disciplines, several of these women leaders developed their knowledge and understanding about people in general. They learned that "people can grow and develop"; that "positive reinforcement can be very effective in producing change"; that "people have good and bad days, therefore, one must be flexible in working with them and make an effort to get to know them." They talked about learning that one must "personally model desired behaviour" as a change strategy. They learned the importance of "balancing intimacy with objectivity in the nurturing and developing of others." Finally, they discussed "learning the intuitive ability of reading an individual or group situation, and trusting one's hunches or gut."

(E) Influence of Experiences with Assignments to Special Projects

It was intriguing to note that only 6 of these 24 women leaders spoke about an assignment to a special project or task as being an influence that shaped their beliefs about leadership. Those who did have these experiences reported

0 g(ac fı ро le le ent kno org unde developing "a better understanding of the political process and how to be politically astute", "the importance of visibility in one's community to one's career", "the need to verify one's data so that one does not badly misread a situation through naivete or error", and that "change takes time."

Essential Characteristics of Good Academic Leaders

The participants in this study were asked if they believed that the essential characteristics (i.e. knowledge, skills and abilities) of an effective academic leader were different from those of effective business leaders. The women leaders in this study believed that the essential knowledge, skills and abilities were the same for both types of leaders (100%). However, they tended to believe that an academic leader must be able to operate in the context of an academic culture that differed in some very significant ways from a corporate business culture (N=15 or 63%). They did not believe that just because one was an effective business leader that one would automatically be an effective academic leader. Effective academic leadership, to these women, entailed one's having a very sound understanding and knowledge of the environmental context in which educational organizations operate. This required knowledge and understanding of the interdependent relationships between

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the various levels of education (i.e., elementary education, secondary school education, and college and university education), the influence of the provincial Ministry of Education on both curriculum and finance, and the training and educational needs of business and industry.

Being an effective academic leader required a knowledge and understanding of what it means to influence institutions staffed predominately by professionals, who tend to function independently and whose activity was difficult to monitor vis-a-vis learning outcomes. According to the majority of these women leaders, professional educators value the importance of "many voices," "debate" and "words" as important processes in any decision making strategy. Change, they believe, takes a longer time to effect. In addition, the effectiveness of professional faculty in the performance of their jobs does not tend to be linked to salary decisions in academic communities once probationary periods have passed. These women believed that leaders need to learn how to use change strategies and influencing patterns that motivate professionals to "buy-in," versus the use of directive, authoritative or coercive power strategies that may be more relevant in business contexts. Finally, these women expressed the belief that academic leaders must be comfortable working in a climate of ambiguity about what the educational outputs really are, what the organization's product lines really are, and even who the consumer is

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because these variables are often ambiguous. Two sample comments were:

In business settings the outcome is much clearer. There is a product, a market, criteria for competitiveness. Nobody can control the quality of an educational program except the faculty who directly teach that content. We are a professional bureaucracy and we have only limited control over the professionals. They control the product.

Senior Level Leader # 4

I think that many of the essential characteristics are the same...qualities associated with the people skills and knowing how to interact with people, and how to be a good manager.... I think the academic environment is very, very different from a business environment. Business is very profit and product oriented. That is the kind of language you use. Managers have a lot of control over things. In education, we have less control. We are a more bureaucratic environment. We like to talk about things. We like to have committees. We like to consult. This behaviour is reflective of the academic climate....Many teachers are focused only in their own areas of specialization and their own classrooms. It is a very internal focus, and business can't afford to do that. First Line Leader # 7

Motivation to be a Leader

During the interview, each participant was asked:
"What motivates you to be a leader?"

A total of 19 different motivators were cited by the 24 women leaders in this study. These women (N=24) ranked the following items as being their main motivators to be leaders (see Table 3). In rank order of importance, the motivators were: getting results or achievement (N=18), having their

abilities valued by others (N=17), the recognition of others (N=14), the challenge and scope of the position (N=12), and the sense of variety associated with the position (N=12).

The group of senior level managers cited: having their abilities valued (N=6), the challenge and scope of the position (N=5), getting results or the achievement of goals (N=5), and recognition of others (N=4) as being their primary motivators in leadership. This group cited the least number of motivators overall (see Table 3).

The group of middle management women leaders cited the challenge and scope of the position (N=7), getting results or achievement (N=7), the sense of variety in the position (N=7); recognition of others (N=5); and the perception that they were making a meaningful contribution to society (N=5), and the sense of having influence (N=4); as being their primary motivators. In contrast to the senior level group and the first level group of women leaders, the middle management group also cited their "liking for the people they worked with" (N=5), and the increased visibility in their internal and external communities (N=4) as being among their list of motivators.

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Table 3
Summary of Job Motivators

Category	Total Grp N=24	Senior Grp N=8	Middle Grp N=7	First Line N=9
Getting Results	18	5	7	6
Abilities Valued	17	6	4	7
Recog. of Others	14	4	5	5
Scope/ Challenge	12	5	7	0
Variety	12	0	7	5
Having an Influence	11	0	4	7
Liking the People	5	0	5	0
Developing Others	5	0	0	5
Contrib. to Society	5	0	5	0
Increased Visibility	4	0	4	0

The group of first line management leaders cited "having their abilities valued" (N=7), having "a sense of influence" (N=7), getting "results" or the achievement of goals (N=6), "the recognition of others" (N=5), and the sense of "variety in the position" (N=5) as being their primary motivators to be leaders. In contrast to the senior level and middle level group of managers these women also cited a sense of "contributing to the development of others"

(N=5) as being a motivator. None of the first line women managers however, cited "the challenge and scope" associated with leadership positions nor "making a contribution to society" as being motivators (see Table 3).

In terms of the subgroups of first line women managers, based on the gender-ratios in their reporting groups, greater than 50% of the women in all three subgroups reported "having their abilities valued," the "achievement of results," and "perceiving that they had influence" as being motivators. However, greater than 50% of the women leaders in the Male Skewed Group and the Male Tilted Group also reported the "ability to develop others" and "the sense of variety found in their roles" to be motivators. In contrast, the majority of women leaders in the Female Skewed Groups cited "recognition by others" and the "increased visibility in their communities" as being motivators in leadership for them.

In summary, the 24 women in this study were motivated to be leaders by criteria associated with achievement that results in increased visibility, a sense of being valued, and a sense of having influence internal and/or external to their organization. The criteria of challenge, scope, and variety in the job were primarily internal, or personal, motivators to engage in leadership positions for the majority of these women leaders.

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Primary Job Satisfiers

During the interview, the participants were asked what their primary satisfiers were in their current position.

The results for the total sample (N=24) were the "achievement of results" (N=23), the perception that they were "making a difference" (N=16), the "scope and challenge" of the position (N=15), and the "recognition of others" (N=14) as being their primary job satisfiers (see Table 4).

The senior level group of women leaders (N=8) also cited their liking of the "freedom and autonomy" associated with their position (N=5), and "an appreciation for the people they worked with" (N=4). In contrast to the middle and first level leaders, the senior level women did not cite the "development of others" as being a primary satisfier.

The middle level group of women leaders cited the "sense of autonomy or freedom" associated with their position (N=5) and the perceived "ability to develop others" (N=5) to be primary job satisfiers. In contrast to the senior level leaders and first line women leaders, this group also cited the "sense of variety" found in their positions to be a satisfier (N=6).

In contrast to the other two groups, the first line women managers did not cite a "sense of autonomy and freedom" to be a job satisfier; and less than 50% cited "the recognition of others" as being a satisfier. However, only

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the first line group of women leaders said "having influence" (N=5) was a job satisfier (see Table 4).

Table 4
Summary of Job Satisfiers

Category	Total Grp. N=24	Senior Grp N=8	Middle Grp N=7	First Line N=9
Achievement	23	8	6	9
Make a Difference	16	5	6	5
Scope & Challenge	15	5	5	5
Recognition of Others	14	4	6	4
Developing Others	11	0	5	6
Autonomy	10	5	5	0
Variety	6	0	6	0
Sense of Influence	5	0	0	5
Like the People	4	4	0	0

In terms of the first line group that was subdivided by gender-ratio in the subordinate group, the majority of women leaders of the Female Skewed Groups (N=3) and the Male Tilted Groups (N=3) cited the sense of "making a difference" and the "scope and variety" of the position as satisfiers. These two satisfiers were not dominant in the reports of the Male Skewed Group Leaders (N=3). In contrast, the women

leaders of the Male Skewed Groups and the Male Tilted Groups said that a sense of "contributing to the development of others" and a sense of "having influence" were job satisfiers. These were not cited as dominant satisfiers among the leaders of the Female Skewed Groups.

Consistent with the theories of Herzberg (1966) and Hackman and Oldham (1975) these women leaders appear to place a high value on meeting higher order needs (i.e., Herzberg's motivators of job challenge, autonomy and responsibility) than on lower order needs (i.e., Herzberg's hygiene factors related to pay, job content, security, benefits). Hackman and Oldham (1975) reported:

when core job dimensions of skill variety, task identity and task significance are maximized the employee experiences the critical psychological state of meaningful work. When autonomy is maximized the individual experiences a sense of responsibility for the work outcome. When feedback is increased the person has knowledge of work activities. The theory predicts that the combination of these three critical psychological states results in high productivity and job satisfaction in the individual (cited in Dienemann, 1990, p.332/3).

These findings are consistent with those aspects of their leadership roles that would appear to satisfy the higher order needs of these women leaders.

Job Dissatisfiers

The women leaders were also asked, in the interview, to describe their primary job dissatisfiers. No single item

was described as a job dissatisfier by the majority of the total study sample (N=24). This finding supports the statements made by many of these women about experiencing a high level of satisfaction in the enactment of their positions (see Table 5).

Table 5
Summary of Job Dissatisfiers

Category	Total Grp N=24	Senior Grp N=8	Middle Grp N=7	First Line N=9
Disrespect for Others	10	0	5	5
Lack of Time	9	0	4	5
Things don't Happen	5	5	0	0
Workload	4	4	0	0

In terms of level in the organizational hierarchy, the senior group of women leaders (N=8) cited two dissatisfiers that seemed to be specific to their level in the organization. These were a sense of frustration when events did not unfold as anticipated (N=5) and the "heavy workloads" (N=4). In contrast, 5 of the mid-level women leaders and 5 of the first line leaders, reported that having to deal with the disrespect some individuals

demonstrated to others was their primary job dissatisfier (see Table 5).

In terms of the sub-groups divided by gender-ratio in the reporting group, the majority of the leaders of the Female Skewed Groups cited "lack of time" as a job dissatisfier, while the majority of women leaders of the Male Tilted Groups reported "disrespect for others" as one of their job dissatisfiers. Similar to the findings of the total sample, no single dissatisfier was reported by greater than 50% of the respondents in this sub-group (N=3).

Moral Orientation Critical Incident Reports

In the course of the interview, each participant was asked to describe a critical incident that, to her, reflected a typical type of conflict situation encountered in her position, and that, from the perspective of her value system, she found difficult to deal with. Three main types of conflict situations were described. These three types of conflict were evenly distributed among the participants.

One type of conflict focused on problems of trying to create changes in their unit or organization versus the group's need for the security or control associated with a state of no change. This type of conflict was described in the critical incident reports of 8 of the leaders. This type of conflict is reflective of tensions associated with

cognitive perspectives oriented towards flexibility and adaptation versus those oriented towards stability, control and order. An example of a critical incident described in this context was:

The collective agreements, peoples' unwillingness to change and grow, and how much you can do in terms of professional development is very problematic for me personally. The faculty are often very technically competent people. At the same time, the curriculum needs to change in some areas. They resist. You plan professional development activities for them, but they are unwilling to change. I can't find the "button" to effect change in that person for the benefit of the program.

First Line Leader # 2

A second type of conflict situation described in the critical incident reports involved a lack of respect shown for the dignity and worth of some faculty and students by other faculty and students. This type of conflict situation was cited by 5 out 9 first line women leaders, and tended to be especially troublesome for the women leaders of Male Tilted Groups (N=3). This type of conflict situation focuses on conflicts involving the values, beliefs and assumptions associated primarily with a Human Relations Model cognitive orientation. An example of a critical incident that reflects this type of conflict was:

The problem involves a full-time faculty member who was angry about her workload and unwilling to speak to me about it. She dealt with the issue by publicly attacking one of the sessional (part-time) employees. The other faculty seemed to be embarrassed by the direct attack, and they expected me to deal with it. I'm already very concerned that the sessional staff perceive that their opinions don't count in this unit. This

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type of inter-group conflict is becoming more common given the tensions, stress and unhappiness in the full-time group. The conflict, for me, centres on people not dealing with their anger and feelings in an appropriate manner.

First Level Leader # 6

The third type of conflict situation focused on issues associated with valuing the good of the whole over the good of some individual parts. This type of conflict situation was cited by 50% of the senior management level women leaders (N=8) in this study. This type of conflict also reflects disagreement with the values, beliefs and assumptions concerning consensual decision making practices that are reflective of the Human Relations Model. A typical type of critical incident that was described during the interview was:

The type of conflict situation that I find personally difficult to deal with centres on the needs of a group of people (one group of faculty) who seem to be internally focused on their own needs (i.e. teach content in same way to very different groups of students with very different learning needs). The students and the programs this division serves tend to be the big losers.

Middle Level Leader # 2

Cognitive Frames, Perspectives and Leader Roles

In this section of the study, the researcher attempted to identify the cognitive frames or models of preference, preferred cognitive perspectives or dominant ways of viewing the world, and the leader roles of preference utilized by these women leaders. The researcher attempted to identify

li le and describe these models, perspectives and roles through
interview questions directed at:

- * how these women leaders organized their department, division or organization to get things done:
- * what strategies they used as their predominant way(s) of influencing others to do what they perceived needed to be done; and
- * how they negotiated for, and secured, resources for their unit/organization.

In order to assist in the process of content analysis, of the interview data related to the identification of Quinn's (1988) eight leader roles, the researcher developed a Data Analysis Tool for Interview Content Analysis (Appendix F) based upon descriptions of the traits, values, beliefs and behaviours that were examples of these eight roles, as described in the Competing Values Model literature reviewed for this study. If a woman leader described behaviour that was consistent with the variable listed under a leader category, then she was counted among the group of women who demonstrated that variable. Data were reported as the number of women who described behaviour, beliefs and values consistent with each descriptor listed under each role category i.e. The Director Role has four descriptors listed beneath it (see Appendix F). In order to obtain a leader role average score, the number of role descriptors,

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under each role category were summed, and this number was divided by the total number of descriptors in that category (e.g., in the description of how the leader enacted her role, she described herself as being decisive and as being someone who tends to clarify the unit's purpose to followers. She did not talk about clarifying expectations or about setting limits, nor about communicating the plan/vision to others. Her score for The Director Role would be 2 descriptors divided by the four descriptors in the category. This would give her an overall Director Role score of 0.5 or 50%) [see Appendix G].

In several cases, the women in this study reported behaviours that were not clearly captured by Quinn's (1988, 1990, 1992) role descriptors. These behaviours were collated separately and later incorporated into the analysis tool (see categories with a star [*] preceding them on the tool). These descriptors included items such as "a willingness to get hands dirty or to actually do part of the work" listed under the Producer Role, "the informal assessment by walking around, observing and talking with others in their offices, the lounges and in the corridors" listed under the Monitor Role, and the "valuing of the good of the whole over parts" listed under the Facilitator Role. Each respondent's leader role score is reported as a proportion (percent) of the number of possible responses per role divided by the number of descriptors for that role as

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identified in Appendix F. To calculate the leader role score for the population (N=24), the percent score of each woman leader for each role was summed and divided by 24.

Scores from the <u>Prism 1 Self-Assessment</u> instrument, which utilized much broader descriptors for each role, were also used to help identify the cognitive models, cognitive perspectives, and leader roles utilized by these women.

The results will be reported in a series of tables and figures. The tables (Tables 6 through 16) display, in rank order of preference, the leader roles, cognitive models and cognitive perspectives for the total sample of 24 women leaders and for each sub-group, (i.e., senior level, middle level, first line, male skewed, female skewed and male titled). Average scores were computed for each woman leader, in each leader role, for each of the two data collection methods, (i.e., Data Analysis Tool [Appendix F] and the Prism 1 instrument). The scores for each role were then averaged over the entire sample (see Appendix G) or subgroup and reported as a average percent for the interview data and as an average group score for the Prism 1 data. The possible scores in the Prism 1 data ranged from 1 (almost never) to 7 (almost always).

Each table is followed by a figure (Figures 3 through 9). The figures display the traits, values, beliefs and practices cited by greater than 50% of the sample or subgroup being reported. The number within the bracket ()

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cha of following the descriptor represents the number of women in the sample who reported that trait, value, belief or behaviour. These characteristics are displayed within the quadrant models of the Competing Values Model listed under the leader roles to which they relate as described in the Competing Values Model literature (Quinn, 1988, 1992; Quinn, et al, 1990).

Results for Total Study Sample Population of Women Leaders (N=24)

An analysis of the interview data and <u>Prism 1</u> scores revealed 11 different patterns of cognitive models. The dominate preferences for leader roles, cognitive models, and overall cognitive perspectives for the total group of women leaders (N=24) is shown in Table 6.

Figure 3 displays the traits, values, beliefs and practices cited by greater than 50% of these 24 women leaders in their descriptions about how they organize their units to get work done, how they seek to influence others, and how they negotiate for needed resources. These characteristics are displayed within the quadrants (models) of the CVM to which they relate.

Table 6

Leader Roles, Cognitive Models & Cognitive Perspectives
Total Study Population (N=24)

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Category	Interview Data (average of percent scores calculated for each role of each respondent)	Prism 1 Scores (average of instrument score calculated for each role of each respondent (range 1.0- 7.0))
Leader Roles	Director (77%) Mentor (72%) Broker (66%) Facilitator (59%) Producer (53%) Monitor (43%) Innovator (31%) Coordinator (13%)	Mentor (6.1) Innovator (5.8) Broker (5.73) Producer (5.73) Coordinator (5.5) Facilitator (5.5) Director (5.4) Monitor (5.3)
Cognitive Models	Human Relations (66%) Rational Goal (66%) Open System (48%) Internal Proc. (28%)	Human Rel. (5.79) Open System (5.76) Rational Goal (5.6) Internal Proc. (5.4)
Cognitive Perspectives	Flexibility (57%) > Control (47%) External (57%) > Internal (47%)	Flexibility (5.8) > Control (5.5) Internal (5.7) > External (5.6)

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HUMAN RELATIONS MODEL OPEN SYSTEMS MODEL The Mentor The Innovator Tolerance for Diversity (23) Identifies Trends & Belief in Participatory Opportunities (13) Decision Making Delegate Task & Resp. (21) Open & Sharing Environment (21) Importance of Modelling and Teaching (20) Seek Diversity of Opinion (20) Empower Others (17) Concern for Others (17) Influence by "Selling" (17) Know and Be Known (14) Importance of Recognition of Others (13) Importance of Listening (12) The Broker The Facilitator Share information up-front (23) Tends to be politically Decision making by Consensus astute (21) (22)Resource Oriented (18) Identify decisions, clarify Presents Ideas in Writing (17) roles and tasks (20) Networks Externally (16) Making Meeting more effective Express views and value whole over part (18) Resolve conflict by collaboration (16) The Monitor The Director Use of 1:1 meetings for review Gives clear directions, and feedback (14) expectations & limits (22) Use of Regular Meetings (12) Clarifies unit's purpose (20) Communicates plan in meaningful way (20) Is decisive (12) The Coordinator The Producer Is task oriented (19) Climate of Productive Achievement (15) Use of rational persuasion (14)Gets hands dirty (13)

Figure 3: Summary of Dominant Traits, Beliefs & Behaviours, Interview Data, Total Group (N=24)

INTERNAL PROCESS MODEL

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RATIONAL GOAL MODEL

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Results for the Senior Management Group of Women Leaders (N=8)

An analysis of the interview data and the Prism 1
scores for the senior management group of women leaders is summarized in Table 7.

Table 7

Leader Roles, Cognitive Models, & Cognitive Perspectives
Senior Management Group (N=8)

Category	Interview Data (average of percent scores calculated for each role of each respondent)	Prism 1 Scores (average of instrument scores calculated for each role of each respondent (range 1.0- 7.0])
Leader Roles	Director (63%) Producer (59%) Mentor (59%) Broker (54%) Facilitator (50%) Monitor (38%) Coordinator (25%) Innovator (13%)	Broker (6.2) Mentor (5.9) Innovator (5.8) Producer (5.63) Director (5.56) Facilitator (5.3) Coordinator (5.19) Monitor (5.16)
Cognitive Models	Rational Goal (61%) Human Relations (58%) Open System (34%) Internal Proc. (31%)	Open System (6.0) Human Relations (5.7) Rational Goal (5.6) Internal Proc. (5.2)
Cognitive Perspectives	Flexibility (46%) = Control (46%) External (48%) > Internal (45%)	Flexibility (5.8) > Control (5.3) External (5.7) > Internal (5.5)

Figure 4 displays a summary of the dominant traits, beliefs & behaviours reported by more than half of this senior management group visually displayed within the framework of the CVM to which they relate.

HUMAN RELATIONS MODEL	OPEN SYSTEMS MODEL
The Mentor	The Innovator
Belief in participatory	
decision making (7)	
<pre>Import. of Modelling/Teaching (7)</pre>	
Delegate task & responsibility (7)	
Seek diversity of opinion (7)	
Create open environment (6)	
Concern for others (5)	
The Facilitator	<u>The Broker</u>
Decision making by consensus (7)	Is politically astute (6)
Express views (7)	Is resource oriented (6)
Value of whole over part (7)	Networks internally (5)
Share information up-front (7)	Presents ideas in writing (4)
Conflict resolution by	
<pre>collaboration (5) Identify decision, clarify tasks</pre>	
& roles (4)	
Meetings more effective (4)	
	Mha Duadhaan
The Monitor Use of 1:1 meetings for review &	The Producer Climate of productive
feedback (4)	achievement (6)
rocasach (1)	Is task oriented (5)
	Use of rational persuasion (5)
	Getting results (4)
	Doing work/getting hands dirty
	(4)
The Coordinator	<u>The Director</u>
	Use of clear expectations &
	limits (7)
	Clarify purpose of unit (6)
	Communicate plan in meaningful way (5)
INTERNAL PROCESS MODEL	RATIONAL GOAL MODEL

Figure 4: Summary of Dominant Traits, Beliefs & Behaviours, Interview Data, Senior Level Group (N=8)

Results for the Middle Management Level Women Leaders (N=7)

An analysis of the interview data and the $\underline{\text{Prism 1}}$ scores for the middle management group of leaders (N=7) is summarized in Table 8.

Table 8

Leader Roles, Cognitive Models & Cognitive Perspectives
Middle Management Group (N=7)

Category	Interview Data (average of percent acores calculated for each role of each respondent)	Prism 1 Scores (average of instrument scores calculated for each role of each respondent [range 1.0- 7.0])
Leader Roles	Director (83%) Broker (76%) Mentor (74%) Facilitator (66%) Producer (54%) Innovator (49%) Monitor (36%) Coordinator (0%)	Mentor (6.1) Facilitator (6.0) Innovator (5.96) Broker (5.86) Producer (5.79) Monitor (5.5) Coordinator (5.3) Director (5.2)
Cognitive Models	Human Relations (70%) Rational Goal (69%) Open System (63%) Internal Proc. (20%)	Human Relations (6.1) Open System (5.9) Rational Goal (5.6) Internal Proc. (5.4)
Cognitive Perspectives	Flexibility (67%) > Control (45%) External (66%) > Internal (45%)	Flexibility (6.0) > Control (5.5) Internal (5.75) > External (5.73)

A summary of the dominant traits, beliefs, and behaviours reported by more than half of the middle level group of leaders is shown in Figure 5 visually displayed within the CVM framework.

HUMAN RELATIONS MODEL OPEN SYSTEMS MODEL The Mentor The Innovator Tolerance for diversity (7) Identifies trends & Concern for others (7) opportunities (6) Influence by "selling" (7) Envisions change (4) Seek Diversity of opinion (6) Plant seeds & nurture (4) Importance of modelling & teaching (6) Belief in participatory decision making (6) Empowerment of others (5) Delegate task & responsibility (5) The Broker The Facilitator Identify decisions & clarify Is politically astute (6) Presents ideas in writing (6) roles and tasks (7) Structure meetings for Presents ideas orally (5) effectiveness (7) Is resource oriented (5) Share information up-front (7) Networks externally (6) Decisions based on consensus (6) Values expression of views (6) Resolve conflict by collaboration (6) Good of whole over parts (6) The Monitor The Producer Use of 1:1 meetings for review Climate of productive (6) accomplishment (5) Use of rational persuasion (5) Task oriented (4) Achievement oriented (4) The Coordinator The Director Clarifies expectations, sets limits (6) Clarifies purpose of unit (6) Communicates plan well (6) Is decisive (5) INTERNAL PROCESS MODEL RATIONAL GOAL MODEL

Figure 5: Summary of Dominant Traits, Beliefs & Behaviours, Interview Data, Middle Management Group (N=7).

First Level Management Group Leader Results (N=9)

An analysis of the interview data and the Prism 1 scores for preferences in leader roles, cognitive models and overall cognitive perspective is shown in Table 9.

Table 9

Leader Roles, Cognitive Models, & Cognitive Perspectives
First Level Group of Women Leaders (N=9)

Category	Interview Data (average of percent scores calculated for each role of each respondent)	Prism 1 Scores (average of instrument scores calculated for each role of each respondent (range 1.0- 7.01)
Leader Roles	Director (87%) Mentor (83%) Broker (67%) Facilitator (63%) Coordinator (50%) Monitor (50%) Producer (46%) Innovator (31%)	Innovator (5.57) Coord. (5.55) Mentor (5.54) Producer (5.52) Monitor (5.52) Director (5.5) Facilitator (5.5) Broker (5.48)
Cognitive Models	Human Relations (73%) Rational Goal (67%) Internal Proc. (50%) Open System (49%)	Human Rel. (5.55) Rational Goal (5.55) Open System (5.55) Internal Proc. (5.55)
Cognitive Perspectives	Flexibility (61%) > Control (59%) Internal (62%) > External (58%)	Control (5.59) > Flexibility (5.56) Internal (5.7) > External (5.5)

A summary of the dominant traits, beliefs, and behaviours described by more than 50% of this group of first line women leaders (N=9) is shown in Figure 6.

Fig Int

HUMAN RELATIONS MODEL The Mentor Empowerment of others (9)	OPEN SYSTEMS MODEL The Innovator Identifies trends &
Delegate task & responsibility (9) Create an open environment (9) Tolerance for diversity (9) Belief in participatory decision making (8) Seek diverse opinions (8) Know and be known to others (8) Influence by "selling" (8) Change through modelling & teaching (7) Importance of giving recognition (7) Importance of listening (7) Concern for others (7)	opportunities (6)
The Facilitator Identify decisions, clarify roles & tasks (9) Decision making by consensus (9) Share information up-front (9) Structure meetings for effectiveness (8) Resolve conflict by collaboration (5)	The Broker Is politically astute (8) Is resource oriented (7) Networks externally (7) Presents ideas in writing (6)
The Monitor Use of regular meetings (6) Monitoring by walking about (5)	The Producer Is task oriented (6) Does work/hands dirty (6) Is achievement oriented (5)
<u>The Coordinator</u>	The Director Clarifies expectations/limits (9) Communicates plan well (9) Clarifies purpose of unit (8) Is decisive (5)
INTERNAL PROCESS MODEL	RATIONAL GOAL MODEL

Figure 6: Summary of Dominant Traits, Beliefs & Behaviours, Interview Data, First Level Group (N=9).

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Relationship of Level in the Organizational Hierarchy to Cognitive Models and Perspectives

An analysis of the interview data (ANOVA p=.05) indicated that the middle level women managers selected, at a statistically significant level, behaviours associated with the cognitive perspective oriented towards flexibility more frequently (Mean=0.67) than did the first line women leaders (Mean=0.61), or the group of senior women leaders (Mean=0.44) [see Table 10].

In addition, the middle level group of women leaders chose behaviours associated with the Open System Model more frequently (Mean=0.64) than did the women leaders at the first line level (Mean=0.49) or the senior level (Mean=0.35) [see Table 11].

Finally, the data indicated that the first line women leaders chose more frequently, at a statistically significant level, behaviours associated with the Human Relations Model (Mean=0.73) than did the middle line women leaders (Mean=0.69) or the senior women leaders (Mean=0.54) [see Table 12]. No other areas of statistically significant difference were found among the women leaders by level of the organizational hierarchy.

The ANOVA done with the <u>Prism 1</u> scores indicated no areas of statistically significant differences among the women leaders by level in the organizational hierarchy.

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Table 10

ANOVA of Interview Scores for Flexibility and Level in the Organization

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F
Among Within	2 21	0.20391443 0.21709164	0.10195721 0.01033770	9.86
Total	23	0.42100607		

Table 11

ANOVA of Interview Scores for Open System Model and Level in the Organization

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F
Among Within	2 21	0.31914021 0.62692460	0.15957011 0.02985355	5.35
Total	23	0.94606481		

Table 12

ANOVA of Interview Scores for Human Relations Model and Level in Organization

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F
Among Within	2 21	0.15992137 0.22624559	0.07996069 0.01077360	7.42
Total	23	0.38616696		

In terms of behaviours that were reported by greater than 50% of respondents in each group, the behaviour titled: "creating an open environment" was valued more by the first line women leaders (N=9) and senior level leaders (N=6) than by middle level women leaders of which less than 50% of this

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group reported the use of this behaviour. In addition, the first line women leaders, in contrast to the middle and senior level leaders, cited the following behaviours as being important to them in the enactment of their role: knowing others and being known to them (N=8), giving recognition (N=7), and listening (N=7). This may reflect the more intimate and interdependent nature of working relationships between first line leaders and the people they work with and could account for the selecting of behaviours from the Human Relations Model more frequently than the other two groups.

In terms of influencing strategy, the senior management group (N=8) indicated that the use of rational persuasion (N=5) was their strategy of choice. The middle level management leaders (N=7) used both "selling" strategies (N=7) and rational persuasion techniques (N=5) to influence others. The first level group (N=9) reported the use of "selling" strategies (N=8) as their influence pattern of choice. This choice of influencing strategy might also reflect differences in the degree of intimacy or closeness among people who work together at the various levels in the organization as well as the degree of intimacy shared between superiors and the first level group of managers. The selling strategy, to be effective, requires a good knowledge of the needs and interests of the person/group to be influenced. As one moves up the hierarchy, the intimacy

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and interdependence between the leader and the front line worker tends to decrease. Middle level managers tend to perform a spanning role between the top and lower levels of the organizational hierarchy. They may need to become comfortable with using influencing strategies associated with closer work relationships between first and middle level managers, as well as using more formal strategies (i.e. rational persuasion) that are more usual in influencing higher levels of management, and/or those outside the college. Many of the middle level leaders were extensively involved with their community vis-a-vis acquiring resources (i.e. use of equipment, field placements for students, access to new technology and procedures). This may account for their increased focus on behaviours associated with the Open System Model.

A difference was also noted among the three groups in terms of how they presented ideas. The senior level women (N=8) and the first line women leaders (N=9) reported presenting ideas predominantly in writing, whereas the middle line leaders (N=7) reported presenting ideas both in writing and orally. Again this might reflect differences in levels of intimacy, and hence the formality required between levels of the organizational hierarchy, as well as between the organizational leaders and leaders in the external community. In these situations, a traditional (i.e.male)

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preference for the presentation of ideas in a more formal, objective format may be the accepted standard for operating.

In terms of the Monitor role and how the leader keeps track of what is going on in the unit/organization, the senior level women leaders (N=8) and the middle level leaders (N=7) tended to rely more on one-to-one meetings and reviews (i.e. 4/5 in the senior group, and 6/7 in the middle management group). In contrast, the first line women leaders (N=9) demonstrated a marked preference for regular meetings (N=6) and walking about visiting and talking with those who report to them (N=5). Again this finding might reflect the level of intimacy between first line leaders and the people who work with them, or it might reflect a gender issue related to the valuing of intimacy with those with whom one works.

In terms of the behaviour entitled "networking" which is concerned with building bases of support, the middle level women leaders and the first line women leaders reported being externally oriented (i.e., 6/7 middle level leaders, 7/8 first level leaders), compared to the senior level women leaders who reported being more internally oriented in terms of forming networks and bases of support. This might reflect different ways among levels in the organization of obtaining needed resources to meet the unit/organization goals and objectives. The middle and first line managers generally reported being more externally

oriented regarding the securing of needed resources from individuals both higher up in the organizational hierarchy, and externally in the community. Senior level leaders, in the interviews, spoke more often about behaviours influencing the internal organization's people towards the achievement of the organization's vision.

<u>Cognitive Models and Perspectives related to</u> Gender-Ratio in the Subordinate Group (First Level Leaders)

In order to examine the impact of gender on women's cognitive orientations to leadership, the sample of first line women leaders (N=9) was divided into three equal groups of three women each based on the different gender ratios in their subordinate groups. One group of first line women leaders had a subordinate group that was greater than 85% male (Male Skewed Group). These women leaders were drawn from the business and technology academic divisions.

Another group of first line leaders had a subordinate group that was greater than 85% female (Female Skewed Group). This group was drawn completely from the health science academic division. The third group of women leaders had a subordinate group that was between 65% and 85% male (Tilted Male Group). This group of women leaders was drawn from the applied arts and business academic divisions.

Once again an ANOVA was completed for each the two data collection methods. The dependent variables were the

outcomes (mean scores) as they were computed for each tool. The analysis of variance of the Prism 1 data did not indicate any areas of statistically significant differences among the gender groups in terms of choice of preference in cognitive model (i.e., Human Relations, Rational Goal, Open System and Internal Process), nor on the overall cognitive perspectives (i.e., flexibility, control, an internal focus, or an external focus). However, the ANOVA for the interview data indicated that the women leaders in the Male Skewed Group tended to describe behaviours associated with the Rational Goal Model (Mean=0.83) more frequently (at a statistically significant level) than did women leaders in the Male Tilted Group (Mean=0.75) or the Female Skewed Group (Mean=0.40) [see Table 13].

ANOVA of Interview Scores for Rational Goal Model and Gender Ratio in Subordinate Groups

Source	Degrees of Freedom	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F
Among Within	2 6	0.31288580 0.08796296	0.15644290 0.01466049	10.67
Total	8	0.40084877		

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Male Skewed Group Results (N=3)

An analysis of the interview data and the <u>Prism 1</u> scores for preferences in leader roles, cognitive models and overall cognitive perspectives as expressed by the leaders of the Male Skewed Groups is shown in Table 14.

Table 14

Leader Roles, Cognitive Models & Cognitive Perspectives

Male Skewed Group (N=3)

Category	Interview Data (average of percent scores calculated for each role of each respondent)	Prism 1 Scores (average of instrument scores calculated for each role of each respondent [range 1.0- 7.0])
Leader Roles	Director (100%) Mentor (77%) Producer (66%) Facilitator (63%) Broker (57%) Monitor (50%) Innovator (33%) Coordinator (0%)	Mentor (6.4) Coordinator (6.3) Producer (6.2) Innovator (6.1) Broker (6.0) Facilitator (5.7) Director (5.6) Monitor (5.3)
Cognitive Models	Rational Goal (83%) Human Relations (70%) Open System (47%) Internal Proc. (25%)	Human Relations (6.1) Open System (6.0) Rational Goal (5.9) Internal Proc. (5.8)
Cognitive Perspectives	Flexibility (59%) > Control (54%) External (65%) > Internal (48%)	Flexibility (6.0) > Control (5.9) Internal (6.0) > External (5.8)

A summary of the dominant traits, beliefs and behaviours indicated in the narratives of these three women leaders is summarized on Figure 7. These characteristics have been displayed within the CVM quadrants under the respective leader roles as defined by Quinn (1988, 1990, 1992).

Figu Inte

HUMAN RELATIONS MODEL OPEN SYSTEMS MODEL The Mentor The Innovator Identifies trends & Belief in participatory opportunities (2) decision making (3) Empowerment of others (3) Trust intuition & hunches (2) Delegate task & responsibility Seek diversity of opinions (3) Tolerance for diversity (3) Know and be known (3) Change through modelling & teaching (2) Create open environment (2) Importance of listening (2) Influence by "selling" (2) The Facilitator The Broker Identify decisions, clarify Is resource oriented (3) Networks externally (3) roles & tasks (3) Decision making by consensus Presents ideas in writing (2) Is politically astute (2) (3) Share information up-front (3) Values good of whole over part Resolves conflict by compromise Structures meetings for effectiveness 2) The Monitor The Producer Uses 1:1 meetings for review & Is task oriented (3) feedback (2) Influences by rational Uses regular meetings for persuasion (3) review & feedback (2) Is achievement oriented (2) Actually does work (2) Climate of productive achievement (2) The Coordinator The Director Is decisive (3) Clarifies expectations/limits (3) Clarifies unit's purpose (3) Communicates plans well (3) INTERNAL PROCESS MODEL RATIONAL GOAL MODEL

Figure 7: Summary of Dominant Traits, Beliefs & Behaviours, Interview Data, Male Skewed Group (N=3).

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Results for the Women Leaders of Female Skewed Groups (N=3)

An analysis of the interview data and the <u>Prism 1</u> scores for preferred leader roles, cognitive models, and cognitive perspectives for this group of three women is shown in Table 15.

Table 15

Leader Roles, Cognitive Models & Cognitive Perspectives
Women Leaders of Female Skewed Groups (N=3)

Category	Interview Data (average of percent scores calculated for each role of each respondent)	Prism 1 Scores (average of instrument scores calculated for each role of each respondent [range 1.0- 7.0])
Leader Roles	Mentor (93%) Director (75%) Broker (73%) Monitor (58%) Facilitator (57%) Director (47%) Producer (11%) Coordinator (0%)	Mentor (6.3) Coordinator (5.8) Monitor (5.4) Innovator (5.33) Producer (5.33) Director (5.33) Facilitator (4.9) Broker (4.3)
Cognitive Models	Human Relations (77%) Open System (60%) Rational Goal (42%) Internal Proc. (29%)	Human Rel. (5.63) Internal Proc. (5.63) Open System (4.8) Rational Goal (3.7)
Cognitive Perspectives	Flexibility (69%) > Control (36%) Internal (53%) > External (52%)	Control (5.5) > Flexibility (5.2) Internal (5.6) > External (5.1)

A summary of the dominant traits, beliefs, and behaviours that were described by this group of women is shown in Figure 8.

HUMAN RELATIONS MODEL OPEN SYSTEMS MODEL The Mentor The Innovator Belief in participatory Identifies trends & decision making (3) opportunities (3) Delegate task & responsibility Envisions change (2) Trusts intuition & hunches (2) (3) Empowerment of others (3) Seek diversity of input (3) Importance of recognition of others (3) Importance of good I.P.R. skills (3) Tolerance for diversity (3) Importance of listening (3) Change by modelling & teaching Create an open environment (3) Influence by "selling" (3) Concern for others (3) Know and be known (2) The Facilitator The Broker Identify decisions & clarify Is politically astute (3) roles and tasks (3) Networks externally (3) Make meetings more effective (3) Presents ideas in writing (3) Decision making by consensus (3) Is resource oriented (2) Resolve conflict by collaboration (3) Values good of whole over parts (3) Shares information up-front (3) The Monitor The Producer Use of regular meetings for Does work/gets hands dirty (2) review & feedback (3) Use of trusted others for feedback (2) Monitoring by walking about (2) The Coordinator The Director Clarifies expectation/limits Communicates plan well (3) Clarifies purpose of unit (2) RATIONAL GOAL MODEL INTERNAL PROCESS MODEL

Figure 8: Summary of Dominant Traits, Beliefs & Behaviours, Interview Data, Female Skewed Groups (N=3).

Results for the Tilted Male Group (N=3)

An analysis of the interview data and the <u>Prism 1</u> scores indicated the following preferences for leader roles, cognitive models and overall cognitive perspectives in this group of three women as shown in Table 16.

Table 16

Leader Roles, Cognitive Models & Cognitive Perspectives

Male Tilted Groups (N=3)

Category	Interview Data (average of percent scores calculated for each role of each respondent)	Prism 1 Scores (average of instrument scores calculated for each role of each respondent (range 1.0- 7.0])
Leader Roles	Director (83%) Mentor (80%) Facilitator (70%) Producer (61%) Broker (57%) Coordinator (50%) Monitor (41%) Innovator (13%)	Coordinator (5.9) Producer (5.8) Mentor (5.5) Innovator (5.5) Broker (5.4) Facilitator (5.3) Director (5.1) Monitor (4.8)
Cognitive Models	Human Relations (77%) Rational Goal (72%) Internal Proc. (46%) Open System (37%)	Open System (5.46) Rational Goal (5.46) Human Rel. (5.38) Internal Proc. (5.38)
Cognitive Perspectives	Flexibility (57%) > Control (49%) Internal (62%) > External 54%)	Flexibility (5.42) = Control (5.42) External (5.5) > Internal (5.4)

A summary of the dominant traits, beliefs and behaviours described by this group of women in their interview narratives is shown in Figure 9 displayed within the CVM framework.

HUMAN RELATIONS MODEL OPEN SYSTEMS MODEL The Innovator The Mentor Empowerment of others (3) Change through modelling & teaching (3) Delegate task & responsibility Importance of giving recognition (3) Create open environment (3) Tolerance for diversity (3) Know and be known (3) Influence by "selling" (3) Belief in participative decision making (2) Seek diverse opinions (2) Importance of listening (2) The Broker The Facilitator Identifies decisions, clarifies Is politically astute (3) roles & tasks (3) Networks internally (2) Makes meetings more effective (3) Decision making by consensus (3) Share information up-front (3) Resolve conflict by compromise (2) & accommodation (2) Values good of whole over parts (2) The Producer The Monitor Is task oriented (3) Uses 1:1 meetings for review and Is achievement oriented (2) feedback (2) Does work/gets hands dirty (2) Monitors by walking about (2) Climate of productive achievement (2) The Director The Coordinator Clarifies expectations/limits Clarifies unit's purpose (3) Communicates plans well (3) INTERNAL PROCESS MODEL RATIONAL GOAL MODEL

Figure 9: Summary of Dominant Traits, Beliefs & Behaviours, Interview Data, Male Tilted Group (N=3).

The women leaders of the Female Skewed Groups did not seem to stress their Producer role (i.e., focus on task and qoal achievement and the creation of a climate of productive accomplishment) within their work units. In spite of this, these women demonstrated the highest scores for behaviours related to the facilitation of group work and the development of individuals. This might be accounted for by the fact that these leaders supervised health and human service departments that had very high ratios of health care professionals who themselves may be more accustomed to working both independently and within groups. The women leaders of the Female Skewed Groups favoured collaborative strategies for conflict resolution (N=3), whereas the leaders of numerically male dominated subordinate groups tended to favour strategies aimed at compromise (N=2 for each group).

In terms of the monitoring of activities in the work unit, the leaders of the Female Skewed Groups tended to favour the use of regular meetings (N=3), feedback from trusted others (N=2), and collecting information by walking around (N=2). The Male Skewed Groups' leaders tended to prefer one-to-one meetings (N=2), and the women leaders of the Male Tilted Groups tended to monitor using both the one-to-one meeting strategies (N=2) preferred by women leaders of Male Skewed Groups and the walking around strategy (N=2) used by the leaders of the Female Skewed Groups.

In terms of how these women leaders chose to influence others, the leaders of the Female Skewed Groups and the Male Tilted Groups tended to favour strategies related to selling (both N=3). The leaders of the Male Skewed Groups favoured rational persuasion (N=3) primarily and the use of selling (N=2) strategies to a much lesser extent.

In terms of networking and building bases of support, the leaders of the Male Tilted Groups and Female Skewed Groups chose an internal orientation compared to an external one chosen by leaders of the Male Skewed Groups.

The three gender-ratio groups differed in their preferences for "presenting ideas" for securing resources for their units. The women leaders of the Male Tilted Groups did not comment in this area. The women leaders of the Male Skewed Groups used both written (N=2) and verbal (N=2) formats for presenting ideas, while the women leaders of the Female Skewed Groups relied exclusively on the written proposal format (N=3).

Finally, gender-ratio groups that were dominantly populated by males compared to female skewed groups seemed to differ primarily in the use of conflict resolution strategies, in how they went about monitoring the work in their units, and in their preference for influencing strategies. As the number of women increased in one's subordinate groups, there seemed to be a shift towards "selling" as an influence strategy, and towards the habit of

"walking about talking to people in their offices, lounges and corridors." This might reflect a more intimate and interdependent relationship between a leader working in an environment with increasing ratios of women than in one dominated by men. This finding might also help to explain the statistically significant finding that women leaders in Male Skewed Groups chose behaviours in the Rational Goal Model more frequently than behaviours from the Human Relations Model or the Open System Model.

<u>Perceived Influence on the Woman Leader's Behaviour of Various Gender Ratios in her Referent Groups</u>

In the interview, the woman leader was asked: "Do you perceive a relationship between the work place gender compositions in your referent groups and your use of leader behaviours?" Sixteen of the 24 women in this study reported that they did not perceive that various gender ratios in their referent groups at work had an impact on their leadership behaviour. Many of their comments, though, indicated an awareness of differences in the way they "do business" compared with male colleagues. Some of their perceptions resulted in behaviourial change or modifications. However, none of the women believed that she had "changed her spots" as one women leader described her response to the stereotype that women leaders must become male-like to succeed in leadership.

A number of the women leaders did talk about some observations and assumptions they held about the impact of gender on leadership practice in general.

Fifteen of these women commented that they perceived women to be more relaxed and more open to how others feel. They perceived that women valued the exploration of ideas and suggestions, and the critical analysis of these, within the context of discussion by working teams. They thought that women favoured a more collaborative decision making style than men, and that women preferred a more interactive and "hands-on" style of leadership compared to the more directive, controlling style traditionally associated with male leaders. Some sample comments included:

Women are more people managers. They tend to be more sensitive to other people. Women tend to be more interactive managers.

Middle Level Leader # 4

Women work on a much more participative basis engaging all staff, whereas men work more with sub-leaders of the group only.

Senior Level Leader # 1

My style is very different from some of my colleagues...My style is very collaborative and risky...My colleagues need to get all the pieces together before they talk about it.

Middle Level Leader # 2

Some other employees in other divisions have commented that there is not a lot of communication between them and their boss. Quite often they are working in isolation until dictates come down from above. Then they just do it. There is not a lot of discussion. There are times when I tell my male colleagues that we are coming from two different spaces. The men want to come in and step on everyone's head...'we're going to come in and take charge'. I don't suggest that we not

take a strong stand, but we could at least provide room for collaboration...'Look, here are the guidelines and limitations on what we have to do. How can we do this together?' The men want to go in and say: "This is the way we are going to do it!

Middle Level Leader # 1

Thirteen of these women leaders believed that women needed to develop some specific skills to increase their comfort and effectiveness in working in a dominantly male culture. They spoke of a need for women to become more skilled at "getting and holding air time" in meetings dominated by a male presence. They also reported that "women need to learn how to be more logical, clear and concise in the presentation of ideas or points of view when at meetings dominated by men." They said that women "tended to want to talk more than men about the issue under discussion". A sample comment was:

I've learned that to be part of the male team, you have to fight right back....call the behaviour. If you've got a bully in the group, hiding in the corner is only asking for more of the same.

Middle Level Leader # 6

Finally, 50% of the study respondents indicated that they really didn't believe that the directive, authoritative, "do it because I tell you to" style of influencing others was effective for either men or women leaders in the long run. They believed that a collaborative decision making style, in which the people affected participated in the decision making process, was superior in terms of increasing commitment of followers, as well as

producing more effective decisions. They also thought that the use of a directive, authoritative style was less well tolerated by either male or female followers when used by women leaders whereas men could get away with it.

Three other observations related to perceived gender differences were reported by more than 25% of the women in this study, and may be worthy of further follow-up in later research. Seven women perceived that women, more so than men, spend more time and effort in getting to know the "whole" person with whom they interact in the context of work. A sample comment was:

Seven women leaders perceived that "women in leadership positions tended to recognize the achievements of others more so than men did." Several women spoke about sending acknowledgements to followers via personal notes or use of electronic mail. One talked about her once-a-semester staff get-togethers as being times for recognizing the achievements of others publicly, and for acknowledging the effectiveness of the whole group.

Seven of these women commented that women tended to think and approach problems differently from men, but that they come to the same or similar conclusions. They perceived that women often tended to move from a general "I've got a feeling" approach to the specifics, whereas men

tended to move in a more logical, linear style from the details to the general. Some sample comments include:

Men are facts and logic oriented, whereas women will say: 'I've got a feeling'. Therefore, women need to learn to get the data and facts to support their 'feeling'. If you can overcome this difference and recognize alternative views and approaches, you can work in both a collaborative and complementary way with men to get better outcomes and results.

Senior Level Leader # 8

Men think and approach problems differently from women, but come to the same conclusions. Women tend to move from the general to the specific. Men move more from the specifics to the general.

Senior Level Leader # 2

Men tend to work top-down...'here it is and here is how we are going to do it'. Women tend to provide room for collaboration. They set limits and establish guidelines. Then they plan together how to achieve it.

Middle Level Leader # 1

An interesting finding reported by 4 of the women in the study related to perceived difficulties among women with women leaders. These women spoke of feelings of concern and/or shock over what was perceived to be non-support by other women both as colleagues and as followers. They made comments related to women not liking to work for a woman boss, and women not liking to be told what to do by other women. Some thought that other women, as a group, were their worst critics. This was hurtful because they had anticipated some backlash from male subordinates and colleagues and had thought through strategies for handling these situations but they were not prepared for this lack of

support from women. This also may be an issue worthy of further study.

Women give me the most criticism about my leadership behaviour. A classmate in one of my graduate classes told me that she believed women were our own worst enemies. I can deal with the men because I recognize the behaviour and realize it exists. But the shock is you don't think that this behaviour exists among other women. But it does!

First Line Leader # 9

Exemplar Summary

In order to depict the findings in a more telling way,

I have developed a composite based on the modal values,

beliefs and practices of these women. This composite is

based on the values, beliefs and behaviours cited by greater

than 50% of these women. This composite is crafted in the

form of a woman exemplar.

This exemplar is a woman in her mid-forties. She is currently married and has children living at home. She grew up in a home with both parents and siblings present. Her mother probably worked outside the home while she was growing up. Both of her parents believed strongly in the value of education and of a career for all of their children regardless of gender. The value of contributing to the community in which one lived was also instilled in her growing up years. She attributes to her father the encouragement to do what she wanted in life. From her

mother she learned that women could be leaders and that they could be successful in the business world. She learned to be willing to take risks and to learn from mistakes. Most importantly though, she learned how to be organized, direct, clear and focused in her approach to getting things done. She also observed that her mother was admired and respected in the community as a result of her work and that this admiration spilled over to the rest of the family as well. Grandparents, especially her grandmother, also had influence in shaping her values and beliefs about effective leadership and how it should be enacted.

In terms of birth position in her family of origin, she had a fairly even chance of being either the eldest, middle or youngest child. During her growing up years, she became aware of her leadership potential. She described herself as usually being the leader among her friends and later she assumed leadership roles in school and community organizations. Frequently she grew up in a small community where she learned that if she wanted something to happen, she often had to take an active role in making it happen. Consistent with her family's belief in the value of education, she has now achieved a minimum of at least one graduate degree, usually in education.

Typically, she reports having progressed along a somewhat linear academic career path to her current position within a single college. The average length of time spent

in her current position was 4.7 years. As a general rule she reported not really planning her career. Rather, she tended to evaluate opportunities as they were presented and to make appropriate career choices in terms of her life commitments a the time of the decision. In terms of future career plans, she is interested in seeking additional leadership positions in either business, government or academic settings. As a rule, she usually does not perceive conflict between her work and home commitments. The pursuit of solitary activities, and the support of family and friends, are described as being among the main strategies she utilizes to seek balance in her life.

In terms of her personal traits and characteristics, she describes herself as someone who is a risk taker and who likes a challenge. She becomes bored easily and seeks variety in her life. In addition, she describes herself as a self-starter, who is independent, competitive, determined, ambitious, committed, honest and up-front. In fact, she often describes herself as being more competitive and ambitious than either other men or women that she knows. She is very results oriented, likes a sense of completion on tasks or projects, and views herself as a good listener. She values the expression of diverse views and opinions by others; the demonstration of good interpersonal skills; the acceptance of responsibility and accountability; and the use of clear expectations, guidelines, priorities and limits to

create work environments in which she or others can work independently. She believes strongly in recognizing and valuing the dignity and worth of individuals. In addition, she believes that the use of directive or authoritative power strategies are generally ineffective as change strategies as well as being less well tolerated by subordinates when used by women leaders. In contrast, she believes that the use of modelling, selling, teaching, explaining and helping strategies are more effective ways of achieving commitment and buy-in from others.

As a general rule, she believes that conflict should be handled in an up-front manner and not ignored or left to simmer. In terms of decision making, she believes that the good of the whole takes precedence over the good of part(s). Her descriptions about what being a leader means to her reflect her beliefs, values and assumptions cited above. In addition to lessons learned at home and at school while growing up, she states that the experience of work itself, working with both good and poor bosses, leadership experience in her professional organization or on a community agency board, and her graduate education influenced her beliefs about what constitutes good leadership.

In terms of her perceptions about how she enacts her leader role, she describes personal traits, beliefs and practices that reflect a preference for the inherent values

of Quinn's (1988) Human Relations Model equally to those of the Rational Goal Model or the Open System Model depending on the data collection method used. The values, beliefs and practices associated with the Internal Process Model were least preferred. In terms of her overall cognitive perspective or way of viewing the world, she is oriented more towards a flexible, adaptive perspective than one oriented towards control, order and stability.

Regardless of her level in the organization she typically organizes her unit/division to get work done around a small management team (coordinators, deans or vicepresidents). She usually meets with this group to decide what needs to be done and how. Once clear expectations, guidelines, priorities and limits have been established, she generally delegates the task to the team and leaves them to it. She expects ongoing reports of progress, and that she will be kept informed if a significant problem arises. Typically, she expects the group leader to come to her with the problem clearly outlined and suggestions for resolution prioritized. She perceives her role to be one of facilitation in terms of listening to help clarify problems; questioning, probing, suggesting in terms of expanding the exploration of solutions; or of acquiring needed resources. She describes her role in terms of creating an environment in which people feel comfortable and in which their ideas are valued, expected, encouraged and facilitated.

expects others to make decisions based on consensus of opinion in which the good of the whole takes precedence over the good of some individual or part(s). She believes strongly in establishing clear roles, time lines, agendas, check-points and assigned accountability as ways of facilitating task achievement. In terms of monitoring progress of task completion, as well as the climate of the unit, she relies on regular meetings with the group, one-to-one meetings with individuals that tend to be more informal, the use of trusted others, and walking about talking with staff, faculty, and students in their own environments.

This woman leader minimizes her use of positional, direct or authoritative power to get things done. She believes that the use of command and control strategies do not produce the buy-in and commitment needed for long-term change. In addition, she believes that the use of positional, directive, or authoritative strategies are less well tolerated by male and female subordinates when used by female leaders. Instead, she chooses to rely on strategies aimed at selling, explaining, sharing information up-front, teaching, coaching and persuading. She tries to really know her people and to be known to them. She believes in listening carefully to hear their concerns and perspectives. As individuals, she wants her subordinates to feel both safe and valued. She then sets clear expectations, goals, and limits, chooses the appropriate people with the requisite

knowledge and expertise, conveys confidence in their abilities to complete the task, and delegates both task, responsibility and accountability along with time lines to these individuals (or more typically groups of people).

Because she tends to be a very hands-on and interactive kind of manager, she knows that she has a tendency to monitor the task more closely than her male colleagues. This can be problematic to some colleagues and subordinates who might feel that she distrusts them or that she is taking over the task. Despite her awareness of this perception, she continues to be interested in the process by which the task is accomplished and believes she needs to have knowledge of this process for purposes of negotiating additional resources for the project or for presenting it more effectively to those outside the unit. Therefore, she struggles to find processes that provide her with needed feedback, while also providing the distance that allows others to work independently.

The main strategy she uses to negotiate for needed resources from outside her unit/division is a formal proposal. She states that she frequently discusses her unit's need informally among her peers and sometimes she "floats a trial balloon" or" plants a seed" to test reception of her plan. In the end, she presents a well researched, carefully thought out written proposal and supports her recommendation with good documentation. She

states that she usually has little difficulty getting what she needs because of her record of achievement, (i.e., always within budget limits) and her overall credibility. She is uncomfortable with back door wheeling and dealing that she perceives to be more typical of some of her male colleagues.

In comparing herself with her predominantly male peer group, she describes her style of management as different in terms of process but not outcome. She states that she is more structured than her colleagues in terms of the use of regular meetings with agendas and expectations about participation and follow-up actions. She believes she works on a more participative basis with her people engaging all staff and not just the group leaders in the process. She tends to be more "hands-on" in her style in terms of both monitoring the work and participating in the work effort itself.

When asked to describe a critical incident that to her is typical in her job and is particularly problematic in terms of her value system, she described three types of conflict with equal frequency. These involved conflicts that centred on the need for change and adaptability versus the need for security and control. Typically these conflicts focused on the need for changes in curriculum versus the faculty's desire to continue doing the same thing. A second type of conflict focused on the disrespect

for the dignity and worth of the individual. This type of conflict centred on disagreements between faculty, or between faculty and a student. The third type of conflict typically dealt with situations in which some individual or group sought preferential treatment over the good of the whole (often defined by the leader as student learning outcomes). Typically, she would deal with these conflict situations by bringing the conflict into the open. would bring together the parties to sort out the issues while attempting to protect each individual's dignity and worth. Her basic arguments focused on the good of the whole over some part, an understanding that the status quo or current behaviour was unprofessional and therefore unacceptable, and a focus on fairness, (i.e., everyone else is pulling their load. To give you preferential treatment will demoralize the rest.)

Her primary motivators to be a leader are the achievement of results; the perception that her abilities are valued by others; the perception of recognition by others; and the scope, challenge and variety of the job itself. Her primary job satisfiers include the achievement of goals or results, the perception that she is making a difference and contributing to her community, the scope and challenge of the job, and the perception of recognition of her abilities by others.

In terms of her level in the organizational hierarchy, if she is in middle management, she tends to describe more behaviours associated with the values and perspectives of the Open System Model and a flexibility perspective. If she is a first line manager she described behaviours associated with the Human Relations Model more frequently than did her middle or senior level colleagues. In terms of gender ratio in her subordinate group, if she is a leader of a Male Skewed Group, she tends to choose behaviours more frequently associated with the Rational Goal Model. As the number of males in her subordinate group decreases, she tends to increase her use of monitoring behaviours related to "walking around" and to using strategies associated with "selling" the idea based on her knowledge of group members' needs and interests.

In conclusion, the typical woman leader as revealed in this study's findings utilizes a cognitively complex approach to her thinking and practice of leadership. The study findings reveal that she utilizes behaviours associated with seven of Quinn's (1988) eight leader roles. In addition, she equally prefers and uses the values, beliefs and practices associated with at least two of Quinn's (1988) four cognitive models. This contrasts with findings reported by Quinn (1988). Typically, leaders in his studies demonstrate a preference for one cognitive model and balance this preference by using values, beliefs and

practices from the adjacent models to a lesser extent. The leaders in his studies tend to ignore, minimize or devalue the beliefs and practices associated with the diagonally opposite or competing model. In contrast, these women leaders would appear to draw on and utilize the values, beliefs and practices of the competing models in their thinking about leadership and in their practice.

There was a great deal of diversity apparent in the ways these women developed their cognitive complexity. Only six of these women leaders talked about being groomed for leadership roles by being assigned to specific projects or tasks to help them develop requisite knowledge, skills and abilities. In contrast to this pattern of learning by doing, these women spoke more about acquiring the requisite knowledge, skills and abilities for leadership through processes of observation and reflection about what worked and didn't work for current and former bosses/supervisors. They then incorporated this learning into their own behavioral repertoire usually on a trial and error basis. Their thinking about effective leadership and leaders would seem to be influenced more by significant people in their lives than by a series of work experiences designed to groom them for leadership roles.

Finally, their motivation to seek leadership positions versus being a follower, along with the aspects of leadership they report to be most satisfying, are consistent

with the personality traits and needs they utilized in describing themselves as individuals. It is in leadership roles that this group of women leaders seem to find the personal scope, challenge, variety, visibility, recognition and achievement they seek.

Chapter VI

Discussion and Recommendations

The purpose of this study was to identify and describe the cognitive orientations to leadership, of a group of women leaders chosen from community college settings. The study was also interested in determining if this cognitive orientation reflected a woman-centred paradigm, or cognitive perspective on leadership that was valued by women, normative to women, and that was shaped by their life experiences and value orientations. Quinn's (1988) Competing Values Model was used as the interpretive framework for this study because of its strength in integrating three theoretical perspectives (i.e., rational system, human relations and open system) by identifying two dominant underlying value dimensions. This provided an integrated framework that allowed for a more comprehensive/holistic and balanced view of effective leadership than more polarized either/or perspectives found in some other frameworks used in examining gender and leadership. The researcher acknowledges that the use of

this model is simply one frame or vantage point from which the researcher determined what data to examine and what sense to make of this observed data. Examined through another interpretive framework, this study's data may result in other interpretations or conclusions. For this researcher, however, the Competing Values Model provided a visually appealing map that allowed for the integration of leader roles and cognitive models which might be reflective of different values, beliefs and assumptions developed within the context of different lived realities. I also believed that the Competing Values Model would assist me to make sense of the dynamic movement between different perspectives that I believe is more consistent with the reality of leadership.

In order to explore these women's cognitive orientations to leadership, the study questions were designed to address five major themes identified in the reviewed literature as potentially influencing how a woman comes to know, understand and act in the context of being a leader. These included the implicit beliefs she holds about leadership and those people and experiences that she perceived helped to shape these beliefs. The woman leader's perceptions about the impact of her context (i.e., academic versus business setting) was also examined as part of her inherent beliefs about what being a leader means to her.

Next, the study examined what motivates these women to be

leaders, their perceived job satisfiers and dissatisfiers, and the types of critical incidents they described as being problematic as another way of identifying the values, beliefs and assumptions that frame their perceptions. Preferred leader roles, cognitive models and cognitive perspectives were examined within the framework of the Competing Values Model. Finally, the study examined the influence of gender ratios and level in the organizational hierarchy on a woman leader's preferred cognitive models and overall cognitive perspectives.

Principal Findings

Background Socialization and Personal Characteristics

The typical woman leader in this study was 45.6 years of age, married and had at least one child still living at home. Consistent with other researchers' findings (e.g., Astin & Lelande, 1991) she grew up in a home among both parents and siblings. Her birth position was not related to her becoming a leader. The importance of having a good education and a career was stressed in her home. Consistent with this valuing of formal education, she has achieved a minimum of one graduate degree, generally in education.

Nearly half of these women's mothers worked at paid jobs during the women leader's formative years. This had an

impact on her beliefs about careers and opportunities for women in general. From their mothers, these women reported lessons in how to be organized, clear, focused, direct, and about the importance of taking risks and learning from one's mistakes. Several women also spoke about the influence of grandmothers in their lives. These grandmothers either worked along with their spouses in family owned businesses or successfully took over businesses when spouses became ill or died. They learned from their grandmothers that persistence and discipline is what produces success in life's endeavors.

Heim with Golant (1992) stated "that in the final analysis, when boys and girls grow up, they play business in much the same way they played as children" (p.15). They argued that in Western culture, girls are socialized to develop values, beliefs and behaviours associated with how to get along with others, how to play fair, how to negotiate differences and keep power dead even, that everyone wins when we share and compromise, teamwork means finding a solution that meets everyone's needs, leadership is what others allow, showing power breaks the rule about keeping power dead even (Heim with Golant, 1992). In contrast, boys who grow up in a Western culture learn that competition is the name of the game, winning is everything, attacking is part of competition, it's more important to be a winner than to be liked, there is always someone above and below you and

the person on top has more privileges, power if not used is lost, other team players do not have to be likeable...they just have to be winners, to win team strategy needs to be organized before getting on the playing field, to be a leader one must give orders and make them stick, one should demonstrate dominance through aggressive displays, criticism and feedback make you a better player, and big boys don't cry or show hurt (Heim with Golant, 1992). The data in this study indicates that these women leaders learned similar lessons in their early socialization years in terms of the development of traits, values, beliefs and practices. However, they also attended to lessons directed at their brothers , male cousins and friends even though most of these women did not play competitive sports. The sources of these lessons were attributed in part to their working mothers, brothers, fathers, male cousins and other childhood friends. However, the experience of work itself, advice from male colleagues and/or bosses, and observations of effective and ineffective leadership in the workplace also contributed to the development of these traits, values, beliefs and practices. More research is required into how women come to hold their beliefs about good leadership and its enactment.

Career Path

Consistent with the reviewed literature (Caffarella & Barnett, 1993) these women leaders reported not really planning for their careers. In spite of this lack of planning, most followed a rather linear academic career path within the same college moving from teaching positions, to coordinator roles and then into administration.

Edson (1988) stated that women academic leaders often seek higher academic credentials as a way of compensating for a lack of administrative experience. These women leaders have acquired the requisite administrative experience, assuming that this is the path to senior leadership in community college settings, along with the advanced educational credentials. One troubling observation was the lack of women with the powerful (from a business perspective) administrative and financial portfolios. of the senior administrators in this study pointed out that they had either no budget assigned to their portfolio and/or no "functional" responsibility. They believed this situation allowed them more time to engage in creative endeavors on behalf of their organization and to focus on building cohesive management teams. However, for this researcher this raised two questions. Are these women leaders being disadvantaged in terms of acquiring requisite financial and institutional management skills required for

Alternatively, is the context in which academic business is conducted changing so that these skills are no longer essential for movement to more influential positions (i.e., presidential positions)? This observation becomes more significant in light of comments by several senior level respondents that women require more knowledge about fiscal management of institutions. The researcher questions if some senior level women have not inadvertently cut themselves out of the administrative pipeline to more influential positions.

The Meaning of Leadership

To the question about what being a leader means to you, these women gave responses that were consistent with current views in the literature about leadership. Their responses addressed the leader's ability to have a clear vision. They spoke about the need to have a plan for implementation that is realistic and achievable, so that followers are motivated to "buy-in." In addition, they spoke about the power of "followership" and the need to treat people well. Their descriptions of what it means to be a leader addressed concerns for ethical or principle-centred leadership and about the empowerment of others as ways of achieving organizational goals.

In response to the questions describing those people and experiences that helped to shape their beliefs about leadership, the majority of these women leaders talked about the impact of work itself and of being exposed to both good and ineffective bosses. They also discussed the impact of their mother, father, grandmothers, colleagues, education, leadership in community boards and professional associations, and work associated with special projects as being influential in shaping their beliefs about leadership.

Two observations stand out from the analysis of the interview data. First, people and relationships were crucial to the sense-making perspectives of these women. In relation to the first observation, these women rarely spoke about starting a unit or project from scratch, about being assigned to turn around a department or project that was in trouble, or about assuming responsibilities that reflected a major leap in scope of responsibility. Only 6 women out of 24 spoke about lessons learned by being assigned to special projects. Ten women cited leadership in professional associations and on community boards as being influential in shaping their beliefs. In contrast, the researcher was struck by the significance these women leaders attributed to the advice, counsel, and support of important others (bosses, colleagues) as being the source of the learning that arose within the context of specific work experiences. It seemed that the nature of the relationships

was more significant to these women's learning than the "doing" which seems to be more characteristic of men.

The second observation related to the importance of observation and reflection to these women's learning styles. This observation concerns the process of learning at a distance rather than being directly involved by observing how others did things and then reflecting on the consequences of these behaviours to both followers and the organization. McCall, Lombardo & Morrison (1988) described this learning process as being:

a more cognitive and reflective kind of learning that results from first observing, then interpreting, followed by incorporating and then modelling the 'right way' or avoiding the 'unacceptable' way of enacting leadership (p. 134).

For these women leaders, the importance of personal observation and reflection seemed to dominate their descriptions about the people and experiences that shaped their beliefs about leadership. This researcher believes that the importance of observation and reflection may have significance in terms of curriculum design and implementation strategies that address the learning needs of women. The women leaders in this study seemed to be able to compensate for a lack of planned experiences in their grooming for leadership roles by this alternate method.

More research into how women learn, utilizing representative samples, is required to address this issue.

Finally, the citing of the influence of mothers and grandmothers on women's leadership aspirations adds to the findings of other researchers (e.g., Astin & Lelande, 1991) and begins to balance the literature that spoke mainly to the influence of fathers on their daughters' leadership aspirations.

Leadership Motivators & Job Satisfiers

In the interview, the women leaders were asked to identify their primary motivators to be leaders and their primary job satisfiers and dissatisfiers. It was interesting to note that no single job dissatisfier was reported by greater than 50% of the study population. On the whole, these women leaders described themselves as being very satisfied with their leadership experience. There was also a remarkable similarity among those items they cited as being motivators to be leaders and satisfiers in their leadership roles. The researcher found it intriguing that in contrast to suggestions in the leadership literature regarding the centrality of relationships to women leaders, that issues of nurturance, connectedness and consideration were not cited among these women leaders' primary motivators to be leaders nor among their list of job satisfiers. Rather, they identified the achievement of results; the making of a difference; the scope, challenge and variety

associated with the job; and the perception of having their abilities and worth recognized by others as being their primary job motivators and satisfiers. These findings are consistent with those of Edson (1988) who stated that the growth and challenge associated with the job was the number one motivator of female administrative aspirants, followed by a belief in one's abilities and a sense of contributing and making a difference. The women in this study conveyed a sense of believing that they had the "right stuff" to be effective leaders. Their confidence in their own abilities was high. Leadership positions provided the opportunities to display these abilities to significant others and to the larger community. The visibility associated with holding leadership positions and the perception that others recognized their abilities would appear to be as important to the self-esteem of women leaders as it is for their male counterparts.

<u>Leader Roles, Cognitive Models and Cognitive Perspectives:</u> <u>Findings from the Interview Data and Prism 1 Instrument</u>

In order to determine these women's preferred leader roles, cognitive models and cognitive perspectives, the study participants were asked to discuss how they organized their units to get work done; the influence strategies they preferred to use; and about how they negotiated for, and secured, needed resources for their units. One of the

weakness of cognitive theories of leadership is that they tend to assume that one will act in accordance with one's cognition (i.e., beliefs, values and assumptions).

Interview questions directed at probing the strategy or behaviours used by these women leaders attempted to correct for this weakness. From these behaviours, the researcher utilized the Competing Values interpretive framework to identify their leader roles, cognitive models and their overall cognitive perspectives.

The <u>Prism 1</u> scores were also used to help determine preferred leader roles, cognitive models and cognitive perspectives. This instrument assessed for these characteristics in a slightly different way from the interview. Behaviours associated with each role were already identified, and the leader rated her own performance on each specified behaviour recording a score ranging from 1 (almost never) to 7 (almost always). Leader roles of preference, cognitive models and cognitive perspectives were then computed using the mean scores for each leader role that was identified in the Competing Values Model.

The results of the interview data and the <u>Prism 1</u> instrument data varied in the ranking of Quinn's (1988) leader roles. In fact, each data collection method revealed 11 different patterns of preference in the ranking of cognitive models indicating the amount of cognitive diversity within this group of 24 women leaders. In terms

of the cognitive models of preference, both data collection methods indicated the Human Relations Model was most preferred and the Internal Process Model was the least preferred. The preference for the Rational Goal Model or the Open System Model varied, depending on the data collection method used. The Rational Goal Model was preferred equally to the Human Relations Model in the analysis of the interview data while the Open System Model was equally preferred to the Human Relations Model in the Prism 1 data. Both data collection methods supported these women's preference for a cognitive perspective oriented towards flexibility in preference to one of control, order and stability.

The two data collection methods did not demonstrate agreement with regards to a preference for an internal focus over a more externally oriented way of viewing the world. Part of the discrepancy could be attributed to the differences in the data collection methods. The interview allowed the women leaders to talk about those behaviours and hence roles that seemed pertinent to them in terms of answering the posed questions. The Prism 1 instrument was designed so that each of the eight roles in the Competing Values Model would be assessed by four questions. During the course of the interviews, these women leaders usually did not discuss behaviours associated with the Coordinator Role as described in this model. The women indicated that

these functions seem to be ones that could be delegated to responsible subordinates or work groups and monitored by the leader for effectiveness. One should be cautious not to assume that because this role was not discussed prominently in the interview, that it is not valued by these women leaders. Differences in the scores used to determine leader roles, cognitive models and overall cognitive orientations probably reflect the different foci of these two methods.

An alternate explanation could be that both the model and the assessment tool are grounded more in business contexts than academic ones. This may also explain the finding that one whole cell (the Coordinator Role) was not addressed by the women leaders in their descriptions of how they organize their units to get work done. From the women leaders' descriptions about how they conduct business in the community college settings, it seems that some faculty members assume the formal role and title of coordinator as an added responsibility. The leader's role in academic contexts in which one works with independent professionals may be more that of Monitor than Coordinator.

These women demonstrated cognitive complexity by using behaviours from all four cognitive models, and all four cognitive orientations in their descriptions of their leader behaviours. The findings of this study differed in terms of preference for cognitive models or perspectives from findings cited by Quinn (1988), Gilligan & Attanucci (1988)

and Desjardins (1989). These researchers found that leaders (men and women) tended to use one dominant model or perspective in making sense of their world, but they also tended to recognize and use boundary-spanning values from the adjacent model(s) or perspective(s). They argued that it was this use of boundary-spanning values, traits or behaviours that might serve to mediate against findings of statistically significant differences in relation to dominant orientations.

In contrast, the findings in this study suggest that these women leaders use two equally dominant models or perspectives in making sense of their world. The interview data suggests they use the values, beliefs and assumptions associated with the Human Relations Model equally to those of the diagonally opposite (and therefore competing) Rational Goal Model to make sense of their work contexts. The Prism 1 data indicates that these same women use the values, beliefs and assumptions of the Human Relations Model and the adjacent Open System Model equally, and those of the Rational Goal Model and Internal Process Model to a slightly lesser extent. In fact, the Prism 1 scores indicate that these women leaders are remarkably diverse and balanced in their use of various cognitive perspectives or models in making sense of their world.

Quinn (1988) described a "master leader" as someone who is able to transcend style, who has higher scores in all

eight roles of his model, who tends to be located at higher levels of management, and who has been in their organization longer. He also reported a higher proportion of women in his "master category" (Quinn, 1988, p. 104). The results of the study data would indicate that these women were able to transcend style and to demonstrate an awareness and use of the values, beliefs and practices of alternate perspectives.

The Competing Values Model helped to clarify some of the ambiguous and conflicting results related to gender and leadership that may have resulted from studies designed along more polarized or dichotomized concepts. Rather than having to answer "either-or" questions (i.e. are women more concerned with showing consideration behaviours than with initiating structure), this interpretive model made visible the "both/and" aspects of the behavioral enactment of leadership. Using the Competing Values Model, one could observe that although the women leaders in this study demonstrated a preference for the values, beliefs and behaviours associated with the Human Relations Model, they also demonstrated an awareness and use of those associated with leader roles in the other three cognitive models. addition, the Competing Values Model also made visible leader roles and cognitive models that may be either neglected or overused by these women. The model does not address the issue of whether the neglected or overused leader role(s) or cognitive model(s) are related to gender

or to organizational context. Further research needs to be conducted to determine why certain roles and cognitive models are preferred over others.

Another question that needs to be explored using a representative sample is the "master leader" category. If the finding of a higher proportion of women in the "master" category is consistent, what are the implications for women and leadership? Do only "superwomen" make it into leadership positions? Alternatively, are women simply more cognitively complex and hence better leaders as viewed through the interpretive framework of this model?

Relationship between Gender-Ratios in the Woman Leader's Referent Groups and Her Leadership Behaviours

In the interview, each women was asked: "Do you perceive a relationship between the work place gender compositions in your referent groups and your use of leader behaviours?" Sixteen of the 24 women reported that they perceived no impact of the gender ratio, in their referent groups, on their leadership behaviour. Several women noted that they were aware of modifying some of their behaviour as they moved into management positions and/or up the hierarchical level in the organization. These modifications often related to skills in "getting and holding air time," and in "presenting an idea in a clear, concise, and direct manner." A few said that they had modified their more

assertive, direct approach to a softer style that was perceived to be more acceptable to both male and female colleagues and subordinates. Some of the younger women indicated that their age was more problematic than their gender in terms of subordinate acceptance. However, these women as a group, did not feel that they had "changed their spots" or had become masculine in their behaviour. Several described themselves as being more ambitious, aggressive and/or competitive than other men and women that they knew. Issues related to "token status" appeared to be less prevalent in the current context, although some of these women mentioned harassment behaviours directed against them at earlier times in the colleges' history.

An analysis of variance (ANOVA) conducted with the Prism 1 scores of the first line women leaders who were divided by gender ratio in their subordinate groups showed no areas of statistically significant differences among cognitive models or overall cognitive perspectives.

However, the ANOVA done with the interview data indicated that the women leaders of the Male Skewed Groups (i.e., greater than 85% male) tended to choose behaviours associated with the Rational Goal Model more frequently (p<.05) than did the other two groups.

Four other findings were interesting, if not statistically significant, and may reflect the impact of gender on a woman leader's behaviour. These related to

conflict resolution strategies, monitoring methods, influence patterns and the presentation of ideas.

Women leaders of male dominated groups preferred compromise strategies over those directed at collaboration. As the number of women increased in the subordinate group (i.e., greater than 15%), the woman leader's use of "selling" strategies and monitoring by "walking around and visiting informally" increased. Finally, women leaders of Female Skewed Groups reported using only written proposals in their efforts to secure needed resources for their units. Women leaders of Male Skewed Groups reported using both written and verbal modes. These findings may reflect the impact of gender on a woman leader's behaviour, but further studies utilizing representative samples are required to explore this issue more fully.

Relationship of Level in the Organizational Hierarchy to Cognitive Models and Perspectives

In order to determine if there was a relationship between level in the organizational hierarchy and these women's leadership behaviours, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was carried out for the interview data scores and the Prisml scores. No differences of statistical significance were found among the women's scores for the different levels in the organizational hierarchy, on the Prisml instrument. The ANOVA conducted on the interview

data scores, however, indicated that the middle level women managers were more likely, at a statistically significant level, to select behaviours associated with the cognitive perspective of flexibility (Mean score=0.67) than did the first line women leaders (Means score=0.61), or the senior women leaders (Mean score=0.44). In addition, the middle level group of women leaders chose behaviours associated with the Open System Model more frequently (Mean=0.64) than did those in the first line management (Mean=0.49), or those in the senior management group (Mean=0.54.

During the interviews, the middle level group of women described their roles in ensuring that the curricula in their programs were current with the needs of business and/or industry, and about securing needed resources by forming partnerships with business or industry. These activities might account for the higher frequency of behaviours cited in the Open System Model which is encompassed within the cognitive view of the world that is oriented towards flexibility as described in the Competing Values Model.

The ANOVA conducted on the interview scores also indicated that the first line women leaders chose behaviours associated with the Human Relations Model more frequently, statistically, than did either of the middle or senior level managers. This might reflect the closer and more intimate relationships between the first line managers and the people

they work with than would be possible in middle or senior level ranks of the organizational hierarchy.

Gender Differences in Leadership

In the literature that was reviewed for this study, gender differences in behaviour and/or style of leadership were described. Several authors highlighted the centrality of relationships to women's leadership style (Caffarella & Barnett, 1993; Gevedon, 1992; Gilligan, 1982; Josselson, 1990; Loden, 1985; Noddings, 1984; Schaef, 1992; Shakeshaft, 1989). Data from this study also indicated a strong preference on the part of these women leaders for the use of behaviours that reflected concern for the development of others, and for creating cohesion, high morale, and commitment among followers.

Loden (1985) described women leaders' preference for low control power or influence strategies. The women in this study expressed a preference for "selling" strategies over "rational persuasion", for sharing information upfront, and for believing that directive, authoritative strategies were less effective in addition to being less well tolerated by followers when used by women leaders. Selling strategies refer to those approaches that consider the values, attitudes, meanings, and habits of the individuals to be affected. Strategies aimed at selling

require the change agent to focus on how people will react, what the change means to them, and whether their needs will be adequately met by the planned change.

Macauley & Gonzales (1993) and Loden (1985) identified that women preferred conflict resolution strategies based on collaboration or accommodation. The women leaders in this study expressed a preference for conflict resolution strategies based on collaboration primarily followed by those based on compromise.

Helgesen (1990) and Miller (1987) found that women leaders tend to structure relationships via communication, the use of meeting times, and the control of space and information. The majority of the women in this study expressed a preference for establishing clear expectations, goals, priorities, time lines and limits. They talked about the importance of clarifying the unit's purpose, clarifying roles, and sharing information up-front as strategies they used to get work done. In the interview discussions the researcher sensed that although these women believed in the importance of knowing and being known to the people they worked with, these relationships were not structured around close and intimate personal friendships. Rather the relationships were structured around both a respect for the dignity and worth of the individual and the individual's potential contribution to the unit's goals.

Gay (1993) and Helgesen (1990) described women leaders' preference for the good of the whole over that of parts.

Eighteen of the 24 women in this study also expressed a preference for this value in decision making.

Shavlik & Touchton (1988) found that women demonstrated an ability to promote group effectiveness through interaction, cooperation and attention to each person's unique contribution to the whole. Loden (1985) found that women demonstrated an appreciation of listening, sensing, the management of feelings, intimacy and the provision of feedback as skills used to facilitate task completion by The majority of the women in this study also others. expressed a preference for open, sharing environments, for participative decision-making, and for valuing the diverse views and opinions of others. The women leaders in this study spoke about the importance of recognizing others, listening, collaboration, seeking consensus, and "selling" as strategies utilized in facilitating task completion or goal achievement.

These women leaders described a preference for behaviours that other researchers have indicated as being gender-related or normative to women. The findings of this study indicated that although these women demonstrated a preference for these behaviours, they also demonstrated an ability to engage in directive, more goal-oriented behaviours that are often associated with a male leadership

style (i.e., those of the Rational Goal Model). In addition, these women demonstrated behaviours associated with a boundary-spanning, inventive and risk-taking style (Open System Model) that tended not be particularly associated with either gender.

Statham (1987) stated that women managers are equally effective in accomplishing desired ends, hence they look similar to men on specific behavioral indices. Yet, she identified that women appeared to use somewhat different styles to accomplish those ends (p.411). The data from this study would seem to indicate that these women leaders were able to draw on a number of different styles, each reflective of distinct cognitive values and associated beliefs and behaviours, in enacting their leadership role. Quinn (1988) argues that it is this level of cognitive complexity that contributes to leader effectiveness rather than one's gender.

Recommendations for Further Study

This researcher found the Competing Values Model to be most useful and quite comprehensive as an interpretive framework in examining women's cognitive orientations to leadership. The integrated framework allowed for a more comprehensive, holistic and balanced view about how these women made sense of their work contexts and acted in them.

Because the model is based on the concept of competing values, it was able to make visible differing and often competing values, beliefs and behaviours used by leaders to help others in the organization adjust to shifting internal and external stimuli. This framework allows the researcher to see "both/and" cognitive perspectives as opposed to some frameworks that focus on "either/or," perspectives i.e., more dichotomized orientations.

The descriptors for each of the eight leader roles in Quinn's (1988) Competing Values Model were fairly comprehensive in that the majority of the descriptors utilized by the women in this study could be easily categorized within them. Eleven additional behavioral descriptors were identified by the women leaders in this study and incorporated into the analysis of this study's data (see starred behaviours in Appendix F).

One of the recommendations from this study, therefore, is that the Competing Values Model be utilized as the interpretive framework for a much larger study of women leaders to see if this study's findings are consistent with those in a representative population, and to see if the eleven additional behavioral descriptors are common in other women leaders' perceptions about how they enact leadership.

A second area for further research concerns the need for a greater understanding about how women have come to hold the values, beliefs and assumptions that guide them in making sense of their leadership contexts, and in how they choose to act in these roles. To this end, we need to know and understand more about the types of people and experiences that seem to be influential in shaping the values, beliefs, assumptions and behaviours women hold about leadership. Are the people, experiences and the lessons learned similar for men and women? If not, what are those differences, and how do they affect both the learning about and the doing of leadership by men and women? Can educators and trainers use this knowledge to design educational opportunities, based on alternate ways of learning, to foster the development of desired competencies in future leaders?

A third area that might be worthy of more intense study relates to some difficulties encountered by women in leadership with regards to other women. Six (N=6) women in this study initiated some discussion with the researcher concerning perceptions of other women (subordinates, colleagues and bosses) being among their worst critics. This perceived criticism and lack of support was confusing and stressful to them. They talked about their anticipation for dealing with negative biases that might be expressed by men in the work place. They had not anticipated finding similar negative biases based on gender stereotypes among women. Hence, they described some disillusionment when they did encounter these biases. They also seemed to be confused

about how to deal effectively with this type of behaviour.

Edson's (1988) women leader aspirants also cited this

concern as being problematic for them. Edson (1988)

attributed the possible causes of this behaviour to

jealously and/or perceptual bias based on negative gender

stereotypes. How prevalent is this type of experience among

women leaders? If prevalent, to what causes can it be

attributed? How can women leaders more effectively deal

with these types of behaviour?

Conclusions

This study sought to answer the question: "Is there a woman's cognitive perspective, style or approach to leadership that is normative to women, valued by them and reflective of their lived experience as women?" The answer, based on the data in this study as interpreted within the framework of the Competing Values Model, is yes. It is a cognitively complex style or approach that reflects a preference for a way of viewing the world that is oriented towards flexibility and adaptability over one oriented towards control, order and stability. The women leaders, in this study, draw on cognitively complex approaches to leadership that balance the action, results-oriented values, beliefs and practices of the Rational Goal Model with the use of interpretive strategies that address the human

resource development, cohesion, morale, and commitment values, beliefs and practices of the Human Relations Model. In addition, these women leaders utilize the adaptation, growth, resource acquisition values, beliefs and practices associated with the Open System Model in their approach to leadership enactment. This style also reflects an awareness of women's constrained access to power together with the development of alternate strategies that these women simply believe to be more effective in motivating others to achieve desired organizational outcomes.

Quinn, et al. (1990) asked: "What differentiates a master from others?" He concluded that "the answer may have to do with how leaders view their world" (p. 320). Someone who thought about the organization as a static mechanism that is designed to accomplish a single or limited purpose might have a very different perspective than someone who conceived of the world/organization as a dynamic, evolving, adaptive entity. This latter conception of the organization required, according to Quinn, et al. (1990), the ability to recognize, understand and work within a context characterized by paradox, puzzles, polarities and competing values. According to Quinn, et al. (1990):

The people who come to be masters of management do not see their work environment only in structured, analytic ways. Instead, they also have the capacity to see it as a complex, dynamic system that is constantly evolving. In order to interact effectively with it, they employ a variety of different perspectives or models. As one set of conditions arises, they focus on certain cues that

lead them to apply a very analytic and structured approach. As these cues fade, they focus on new cues of emerging importance and apply another frame, perhaps being very intuitive and flexible. At another time they may emphasize the overall task, and still another they may focus on the welfare of a single individual. (p. 320)

Quinn (1988) argued that it is this level of cognitive complexity that contributes to leader effectiveness. The Competing Values Model interpretive framework provides a vantage point that makes visible this level of complexity.

Implications for Theory Development

This study makes three theoretical contributions.

First it helps to clarify contradictory results and theories in previous research on women and leadership that tended to use more polarized or dichotomized perspectives in examining the impact of gender on leadership. Use of more comprehensive theories or interpretive frameworks such as the Competing Values Model make visible competing perspectives and responses that one might fail to see using frameworks based on a dichotomized perspective. Secondly, the study demonstrates the usefulness of Quinn's (1988) Competing Values Model as an interpretive framework for understanding and making visible how a leader's values, beliefs and attitudes shape her/his construction of meaning and choice of strategies used to adapt to the competing realities in leadership. Finally, this study extends work

on the importance of cognition as a factor that affects how individuals come to see, understand and act in the context of leadership.

Implications for Practice

Data from this study would indicate that there is already a group of women leaders in place in the Ontario community college system who possess those essential cognitive abilities required to provide effective leadership now and into the future. The results of this study should help to contribute to the elimination of barriers that may be based on old stereotypes and perceptual biases about women's fitness to lead. Secondly, the Competing Values Model provides an interpretive framework that may assist researchers to identify those leader roles that tend to be favoured, neglected or ignored. Reasons for the use of some roles rather than others can be explored within the context of differing organizational cultures and contexts. In addition, the identification of essential leader roles may allow researchers to identify those knowledge, skills and behaviours associated with the effective implementation of these roles. This will allow educators and management trainers to develop, plan and offer educational experiences that may better assist in the development of future leaders.

Swoboda & Vanderbash (1983) hypothesized that a woman centred paradigm or cognitive perspective could replace the dilemma women had faced of "fitting in" or "not fitting in" by creating a new or alternate code of behaviour. This new code of behaviour would be in keeping with the appropriateness of women's own needs and experiences, the requirements of the task, and the means available to her for completing that task. In the mid-1990's there now appears to be a "critical mass" of women leaders in Ontario's community colleges. In addition, major external forces are having an impact on academic institutions affecting the ways they compete, manage, and do business (Epstein, 1988; Morrison, 1992; Webber, 1993). Webber (1993) argued that these forces required not just changes in the programs, but changes in mind sets. These changes in the ways organizations must do business seem to favour the inclusion of leadership orientations or models that have previously been associated with undervalued feminine characteristics.

The women leaders in this study bring to their leadership roles a level of cognitive complexity that enables them to recognize, value and work within the competing demands of leadership. They would appear to have developed their cognitive approaches to leadership by drawing on a wide range of diverse experiences not traditionally associated with the grooming process for leadership. These alternate paths to leadership have

contributed to the development of particular strengths that will continue to be required of leaders well into the foreseeable future.

APPENDIX A

An Investigation into Women's Cognitive Orientations to Leadership

Interview Guide

Appendix A

An Investigation into Women's Cognitive Orientations to Leadership

Interview Guidelines

Introduction, Climate Setting, Permission to Tape

Introduce self to respondent and thank for willingness to participate.

Request permission to set up tape recorder and to audio tape the interview.

Ask if they have any questions or concerns prior to beginning the interview? Did they receive my letter outlining the topics of the interview?

Briefly, identify the purpose of the study and the topic areas that will be covered. Clarify that the interview questions have been developed as a guide to exploring, clarifying and illuminating, for me, how she constructs her meaning of her work context and leader role. I will be probing at times for her thoughts on the where, when, who, what and why's of some answers in order to try and grasp her understanding and sense making processes.

The interview will cover five major topic areas:

- a. Implicitly Held Beliefs about Leadership;
- b. Cognitive Perspectives about Leadership and the Leader Roles she plays;
- c. Perceived Relationship of the Gender-Ratio Composition in her Referent Groups on her Leader Behaviours;
- d. Moral Orientation(s) in situations that involve conflict within context of work;
- e. Family Background, Education, Career Path, Personal Lifestyle.

Section A - Implicit Beliefs about Leadership

- 1. What does being a leader mean to you?
- 2. How did you come to hold these beliefs? Can you tell me about this?

(Probe for personal theories, beliefs, values, assumptions, experiences, role models [good and bad] that may have influenced her beliefs.)

- 3. Academic institutions differ in some significant ways from business organizations. When you think about a good academic leader, what would you describe as the essential characteristics that person should possess?
- 4. Once again, can you tell me how you have come to hold these beliefs?
- 5. When you think about an ineffective academic leader, or a poor leader, what characteristics/behaviours come to mind? (Probe for what makes these characteristics/behaviours ineffective to her way of thinking.)

Section B - Cognitive Frames, Perspectives and Leader Roles

- 6. What motivates you, personally, to be a good leader?
- 7. What criteria do you use to judge your own performance as a leader/manager?
- 8. What are the primary satisfiers for you in your role as an academic leader?
- 9. What are the primary dissatisfiers for you in your role as an academic leader?
- 10. How would you describe your preferred mode of operating or getting things done? (Try to focus attention more on how she constructs/understands or makes sense of her work place reality rather than on tasks.)
- 11. How do you organize your unit/division to get work done? Does your way of organizing your unit differ from that of your colleagues? If so, can you tell me about these differences as you understand them?

- 12. Can you tell me about the strategies you use to get others to do what you believe needs to be done? Do you use these strategies predominantly? What other strategies do you use and in what contexts? Can you tell me more about this?
- 13. What effect do these sources of legitimacy or influence over others have on your practice of leadership? (Probe for perceived constraints on the ways they would prefer to influence others.)
- 14. How do you negotiate for, and secure, needed resources for your unit/division/organization? (Probe for level of satisfaction/dissatisfaction with this process.)
- 15. In enacting your position effectively, what roles do you see yourself performing? Which of these roles do you believe are most important? Why? What roles do you believe your supervisor believes are most important? Why? What roles do you believe your subordinates believe are most important? Why? Are there conflicts for you in these situations? What do you see as the sources of conflict? How do you sort these situations out and make decisions about what to do? How do you know if you handled the conflict inherent in the situation well?

Section C - Perceived Relationship of Gender-Ratio Compositions in her Reference Groups at Work and Her Leader Behaviour.

- 16. How easy is it for you to "be yourself", to be the kind of leader you want to be, and to participate as an equal, among your present peer group given the mix of men to women in this group?
- 17. How you ever worked with a subordinate group that contained a different gender-ratio composition than your present group? What influence, if any, do you perceive the various gender-ratio compositions in your subordinate groups, have on your behaviour as a leader?

Section D - Moral Orientation(s)

18. Would you describe for me a critical incident from your role as chair/dean/vice-president/president, that you believe illustrates the type(s) of conflict situations you frequently must deal with?

Can you describe the situation?

What were the conflicts for you in the situation?

What did you do?

Do you think it was the right thing to do?

How do you know this?

In retrospect, is there another way to think about this problem or to go about resolving it?

Section E - Family Background, Education, Career Path

19. Family Background

Country and place of birth/upbringing. Brothers and/or sisters. Effects of place in family on own upbringing. Information about parents i.e. jobs, lifestyles, etc.. Type of person you were when you were young--extrovert? introvert? competitive? ambitious? Ages and gender of childhood friends? Hobbies and interests when young? In what way, if any, would your upbringing have been different if you had been a boy? Did you see yourself or were you regarded as being conventional or unconventional when young? Did you see mother or father (or someone else) as a role model? How protected/independent were you in the family? Did you have specific chores for which you were responsible at home? Did you travel much outside the community in which you lived? Were religion/politics important to you or your family?

20. Educational Background

What is the highest level of formal education that you have achieved? How would you describe your overall academic performance at school?

21. Career Path

What were your thoughts about a career choice at the end of your high school years? Were these influenced by your gender? If so, how? Can you tell me about your career path to date? Were there mentors/role models who influenced your career? What higher education and/or training have you undertaken to date? Have there been breaks in your career? Why? What impact, if any, might these breaks have had on your career path? What are your future career plans?

22. Lifestyle

Would you tell me about your personal lifestyle? What is your age group (ask by decade) Are you married? Do you have children? How many? Ages? Do you have commitments to your extended family (i.e. elderly/ill relatives)? What are your sports, hobbies, interests outside of work? Are you involved in community work? How do you manage these non-work commitments? Are you happy with the balance in your life? Do you ever feel under stress? If so, how do you cope?

Conclusion

23. Before we conclude, is there anything additional you believe I should be aware of that we have omitted about how you, as a women academic leader, come to know, understand and make sense of your world? Do you have any final thoughts about this interview that you would like to share with me?

Request return of the Prism 1 instrument at this time.

Thank interviewee for her time and her thoughtfulness and trust in sharing this part of herself with me.

APPENDIX B

Prism 1 Self-Assessment Instrument

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COMPETING VALUES SELF-ASSESSMENT

ROBERT E. QUINN

This guide has two purposes: it allows you to assess yourself and it provides you with a personal guide and reference manual to use on an ongoing basis.	
Name:	
Date:	
Company Name:	
Work Group:	



Assessment Instructions

- A response form is provided inside the front cover of this guide for you to use to mark your responses. Turn now to the front cover and remove this response form to record your answers to the questions.
- 2. There are no "right answers" to the questions. Please respond to every question honestly.
- 3. There are two parts to this questionnaire.
 The Part 1: NOW section yields information about how you currently perform. The Part 2: SHOULD section describes how you believe you ideally should perform in your current position.
- 4. Starting with the Part 1: NOW section, refer to the list of managerial behaviors that appears on the facing page. Write the number corresponding to the frequency with which you currently engage in each of the behaviors. Write a 1 if you almost never

- engage in the behavior; write a 7 if you almost always engage in the behavior; write a 2, 3, 4, 5, or 6 if your assessment lies somewhere between the extremes.
- 5. Mark your responses on the removable response form. Use a ballpoint pen and press hard, as your responses are being recorded on a scoring form.
- 6. Once you have completed the NOW part, complete the section entitled Part 2: SHOULD. Go back over the same list of behaviors and write the number corresponding to the frequency with which you believe that you ideally should engage in each behavior in your current position.
- 7. Some of the statements may not seem to apply to your particular work setting. If that is the case, respond as if you were dealing with a similar behavior in another setting.

As a manager, I would describe myself as someone who:

- 1. Comes up with inventive ideas
- 2. Exerts upward influence in the organization
- 3. Creates a climate of productive accomplishment in the work unit
- 4. Clarifies the unit's purpose
- 5. Aids unit members in resolving coordination issues
- 6. Holds regular reviews of progress on projects
- 7. Facilitates consensus building in the work unit
- 8. Listens carefully to subordinates
- 9. Experiments with new concepts and ideas
- 10. Influences decisions made at higher levels
- Develops a productive "can-do" attitude among people
- 12. Develops and communicates strategic plans for the unit
- 13. Brings a sense of order into the unit
- 14. Develops checkpoints for reviewing assignments
- 15. Surfaces key differences among group members, then works participatively to resolve them
- Shows empathy and concern in dealing with subordinates

- 17. Does problem solving in creative, clever ways
- 18. Gets access to people at higher levels
- 19. Gets people to work productively
- 20. Communicates the unit's vision in a meaningful way
- 21. Anticipates workflow problems, avoids crisis
- 22. Keeps track of what is going on in the unit
- 23. Helps people express different opinions and then come to an agreement
- 24. Treats each individual in a sensitive, caring way
- 25. Searches for innovations and improvements
- 26. Persuasively sells new ideas to higher-ups
- 27. Develops an achievement orientation in others
- 28. Clarifies the unit's priorities and directions
- 29. Helps people plan, schedule, organize, and coordinate efforts
- 30. Monitors progress on assigned tasks and objectives
- 31. Develops consensual resolution to openly expressed differences
- 32. Shows concern for the needs of subordinates

Competing Values Assessment Response Form

Please mark your responses using the following scale:

1. Almost Never 2. Very Seldom 3. Seldom 4. Occasionally 5. Frequently 6. Very Frequently 7. Almost Always

Part I: NOW

1	2	3	4	5	•	7	8
9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24
25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32

Once you have completed all 32 questions for the Part 1: NOW section, go back through the questions, but this time indicate the frequency that you believe you should engage in each behavior.

Part 2: SHOULD

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
•	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
17	18	19	20	21	22	22	24
25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32

Congratulations! You have now completed the Competing Values Self-Assessment. To score your results, follow the scoring instructions found in *PRISM I* on the page following the questions that you have just answered. And then, follow the instructions entitled "Drawing Your Profile" to plot your scores.

APPENDIX C

Letter Requesting Consent to Participate in Study Mary K. Brown 76 Carnegie Place Ancaster, Ontario, L9G 4T9

"Addressee"

"Date"

"An Investigation into Women's Cognitive Orientations to Leadership"

Dear "Addressee":

My name is Mary Brown and I am currently a Ph.D. candidate in Educational Administration at Michigan State University in East Lansing, Michigan. I am also a faculty member at Mohawk College in Hamilton, Ontario.

The purpose of my letter is to request your participation in a research project that is required as partial fulfilment of this degree requirement. The study will be concerned with how academic women administrators make sense of leadership roles given ways of perceiving that may be influenced by values, beliefs, skills and experiences that tend to be gender-related, or normative, among women.

The time commitment on your part would be approximately 2 hours during the months of June-July 1994. The data collection process will consist of a single interview that will last approximately 2 hours, plus the completion of a short assessment instrument that will take about 15 minutes to complete. All data will be reported in collapsed categories so that individual identities and the identity of the respondent's college will be protected.

Could you please complete and return the attached form. If you agree to be interviewed, I will contact your office to set up an interview date and will then send you details about the topics to be covered. The study instrument will also be sent to you at this time. I will collect the instrument at the time of the interview and can interpret it for you if you so desire. Please contact me if you wish more information before committing yourself. Your participation is entirely voluntary on your part.

Thank you for you consideration and assistance in this matter.

Yours truly,

Mary K. Brown, Ph.D. Candidate Michigan State University

"An Investigation into Women's Cognitive Orientations to Leadership"

	I agree to be interviewed and to complete the Prism 1 study instrument.
SIGNATURE	
NAME:	
JOB TITLE:	
TELEPHONE (BUSINESS	NUMBER:)(HOME)
influence role. The selection	ature indicates that the following factors may a women's cognitive orientation to her leadership erefore, I must consider these factors in the criteria for my sample. Your assistance in these questions would greatly assist this process.
1. LENGT	H OF TIME YOU HAVE BEEN IN YOUR CURRENT POSITION?
GROUP AT Chair pos	IS THE PROPORTION OF WOMEN TO MEN IN YOUR PEER YOUR COLLEGE? (Peer group is defined as all other itions if your position title is that of Chair; Dean positions if your position title is that of etera.)
SUBORDINA' defined a	IS THE PROPORTION OF WOMEN TO MEN IN YOUR TE GROUP AT YOUR COLLEGE? (Subordinate group is s all those individuals who report DIRECTLY to your)
	te that your participation in this study is . You may withdraw from this study at any time enalty.
Please re	turn to:

Mary K. Brown 76 Carnegie Place Ancaster, Ontario, L9G 4T9 (Telephone) 1-905-648-4491

APPENDIX D

Letters of Permission

- 1. Respondent Consent to Participate
- 2. Consent to use Prism 1
 Instrument
- 3. U.C.R.I.H.S. Permission

"An Investigation into Women's Cognitive Orientations to Leadership"

I agree to be interviewed and to complete the Prism 1 study instrument.	
SIGNATURE:	
NAME:	
ADDRESS:	
JOB TITLE:	
TELEPHONE NUMBER: (BUSINESS)(HOME)	
The literature indicates that the following factor influence a women's cognitive orientation to her role. Therefore, I must consider these factors selection criteria for my sample. Your assistant answering these questions would greatly assist the	leadership in the ce in
1. LENGTH OF TIME YOU HAVE BEEN IN YOUR CURRENT	POSITION?
2. WHAT IS THE PROPORTION OF WOMEN TO MEN IN YOU GROUP AT YOUR COLLEGE? (Peer group is defined as Chair positions if your position title is that of all other Dean positions if your position title Dean; etcetera.)	s all other f Chair;
3. WHAT IS THE PROPORTION OF WOMEN TO MEN IN YOU SUBORDINATE GROUP AT YOUR COLLEGE? (Subordinate defined as all those individuals who report DIRE position.)	group is
Please note that your participation in this study voluntary. You may withdraw from this study at without penalty.	

Mary K. Brown 76 Carnegie Place Ancaster, Ontario, L9G 4T9 (Telephone) 1-905-648-4491

Please return to:

JOSSEY-BASS

PERMISSIONS AGREEMENT

Invoice# 2346

To: Mary K. Brown
76 Carnegie Place
Ancaster, Ontario
Canada L9G 4T9

March 11, 1994

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Please sign and return a copy of this agreement to indicate your acceptance of its terms.

Thank you.

Lorri Wimer Permissions Coordinator Signature

march 28,1994



MICHIGAN STATE

May 2, 1994

TO:

Ms. Mary Karen Brown

76 Carnegie Place

Ancaster, Ontario L9G 4T9

CANADA

RE:

IRB #:

94-186

N/A

2-I

TITLE:

AN INVESTIGATION INTO WOMEN'S COGNITIVE

ORIENTATIONS TO LEADERSHIP

REVISION REQUESTED:

APPROVAL DATE:

CATEGORY:

04/28/1994

The University Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects' (UCRIHS) review of this project is complete. I am pleased to advise that the rights and welfare of the human subjects appear to be adequately protected and methods to obtain informed consent are appropriate. Therefore, the UCRIHS approved this project. However, Reviewer #4 reminds you that you must include in the consent form the statement indicating that subjects may withdraw at any time without penalty. To complete our files, please send to this office a copy of the revised consent form showing you have included this.

Renewal:

UCRIHS approval is valid for one calendar year, beginning with the approval date shown above. Investigators planning to continue a project beyond one year must use the green renewal form (enclosed with the original approval letter or when a project is renewed) to seek updated certification. There is a maximum of four such expedited renewals possible. Investigators wishing to continue a project beyond that time need to submit it again for complete review.

Revisions:

UCRIHS must review any changes in procedures involving human subjects, prior to initiation of the change. If this is done at the time of renewal, please use the green renewal form. To revise an approved protocol at any other time during the year, send your written request to the UCRIHS Chair, requesting revised approval and referencing the project's IRB # and title. Include in your request a description of the change and any revised instruments, consent forms or advertisements that are

applicable.

Problems/ Changes:

Should either of the following arise during the course of the work, investigators must notify UCRIHS promptly: (1) problems (unexpected side effects, complaints, etc.) involving human subjects or (2) changes in the research environment or new information indicating greater risk to the human subjects than existed when the protocol was previously reviewed and approved.

If we can be of any future help, please do not hesitate to contact us at (517) 355-2180 or FAX (517) 336-1171.

Sincerely.

David E. Wright, Ph.D.

UCRIHS Chair

Dr. Kathryn M. Moore

MSU is an affirmative-action equal-coportunity institution.

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AND

RESEARCH

GRADUATE **STUDIES**

serch lavolving nan Subjects

(UCRIHS)

48824-1046

517/355-2180 FAX: 517/336-1171

University Committee on

Michigan State University

225 Administration Building East Lansing, Michigan

œ:

APPENDIX E

University Committee on Research involving Human Subjects

Application Form

APPLICATION FOR REVIEW OF A PROJECT INVOLVING HUMAN SUBJECTS

UCRIHS - Michigan State University David E. Wright, Ph.D., Chair 225 Administration Building East Lansing, MI 48824-1046 (517) 355-2180

(517) 336-1171 - FAX Office Hours: M-F (8:00 A.M.-Noon & 1:00-5:00 P.M.)

DIRECTIONS: Please complete questions on this application using the instructions and definitions found on the salmon sheets (revised October 1992).

RESPONSIBLE PROJECT INVESTIGATOR(S) (Faculty or staff supervisor)	ADDITIONAL INVESTIGATOR(S)
Faculty ID#:	Fac./Str. ID#: A142 OH 529
(Social Security #)	Fac./Stu. ID#:
(Signature)	Fac./Stu. ID#:
ADDRESS	ADDRESS
(for comments/approval letter)	(for comments/approval letter)
Kathon m. maske Ph.D.	maga K. Banid
Kithryw m. Maske Ph.D. 418 Exickson HALL	MAKY K. BRAUN The CARNEGIE Mace
michigan State Manieret	ANCASTER , ONTAKIO LAGE HT
Phone #: 517 - 346 - 2276	Phone #: 905 - 648 - 4491
FAX #: 517-353-6393	FAX #:
Deientations to Leanership	INTO WOMEN'S COGNITIVE
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Subcomittee

Agenda _

APPLICATION FOR REVIEW OF A PROJECT INVOLVING HUMAN SUBJECTS

UCRIHS - Michigan State University David E. Wright, Ph.D., Chair 225 Administration Building East Lansing, MI 48824-1048 (517) 355-2180

(517) 355-2180 (517) 336-1171 - FAX

Office Hours: M-F (8:00 A.M.-Noon & 1:00-5:00 P.M.)

DIRECTIONS: Please complete questions on this application using the instructions and definitions found on the salmon sheets (revised October 1992).

RESPONSIBLE PROJECT INVESTIGATOR(S) (Faculty or staff supervisor)	ADDITIONAL INVESTIGATOR(S)
Faculty ID#:	Fac./Stu. ID#: A1X2 OH < 29
(Oocial Security #)	Fac./Stu. ID#:
(Signature)	Fac./Stu. ID#:
ADDRESS	ADDRESS
(for comments/approval letter)	(for comments/approval letter)
Kuthoun m. mart Ph.D.	-Mary K. Brand
418 Exickson HALL	The CARNECIE PLACE
michican State University	ANCASTER SOTAKIO LAG H
EMT LANSing mI HYYTH	, CASTARIO RIGI
Phone #: 517 - 346 - 2276	Phone #: 405 - 648 - 4491
FAX #: 517-353-6393	FAX #:
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Agenda

Subcomittee

10. PROJECT DESCRIPTION (ABSTRACT)

The purpose of this study will be to identify, using Quinn's (1988) Competing Values Model, the cognitive orientations and underlying value systems espoused by selected women leaders in Ontario's community college system. The study will attempt to describe, compare and contrast how these women developed their cognitive models from their own perspectives. Within the framework of the Competing Values Model, the study will attempt to describe what contributes to these women's cognitive complexity. The study will also examine selected factors, identified in the reviewed literature, that may explain some of the variability in cognitive orientations (i.e. socialization patterns, educational and work experience, gender mix in referent groups, and level in the organization). Finally, this study will examine these women's perceptions about the amount of stress they experience in their position as a result of negotiating among competing values.

The design of this study will use a combination of both qualitative and quantitative elements. Data will be analyzed using an interpretive framework derived from Quinn's (1988) Competing Values Model.

It is anticipated that an analysis of the similarities and differences in the cognitive orientations of these women leaders will help in the identification, description, and valuing of a cognitive, woman-centred paradigm to leadership. A woman-centred perspective to leadership would provide an alternative way of examining and responding to issues related to the study and practice of effective leadership.

11. PROCEDURES

The Vice-President, Academic position will be contacted by phone at each of the 23 colleges to obtain the names and position titles of all female administrators at the presidential, vice-presidential, full-time program academic dean level, and full-time program academic chair level at their respective college.

An introductory letter will then be sent to each identified women administrator at each college. This letter will provide a brief summary of the purpose of study and a review of the data collection methods. The respondents will be assured that neither their name, nor that of their institution will be used in the reporting process. Agreement to participate in this study will then be asked for in this letter. If the respondent agrees to participate in the study, she will be asked to return an enclosed form, so indicating, in the enclosed stamped and addressed envelope. On this response form, the women leader will be asked to respond to the following questions: length of time in position, gender-ratio of her peer referent group, and gender-ratio

composition of those people who report directly to her position. This data will be used to select the actual 20-25 respondents who will be interviewed and to whom the study tools will be given. A thank you letter will be sent to each respondent who agreed to participate in the study but who will not form the study population.

Those women leaders who are selected to participate in the study will then be contacted by the researcher by phone to set up an interview date and time. They will then receive, by mail, a confirmation of the interview data and time, and an outline of the topics to be covered during the 1-1.5 hour single interview. The Prism 1 study instrument will be enclosed in this package of information also and the respondent will be asked to complete these and return them to the interviewer at the time of the interview. This instrument takes approximately 15 minutes to complete. At the time of the interview, permission will be sought to audio tape the process. If the respondent is uncomfortable with audio-taping, hand written notes will be taken by the researcher. The researcher has also agreed to interpret the results of the completed Prism 1 instrument to the respondent if she so desires at the end of the interview. A thank you letter will be sent to all respondents after the interview.

12. SUBJECT POPULATION

a. The study population may include (check each category where subjects may be included by design or incidentally):

Minors	[]
Pregnant Women	[/]
Women of Childbearing Age	[~]
Institutionalized Persons	į į
Students	Ĺj
Low Income Persons	Ĩ Ì
Minorities	į j
Incompetent Persons (or those with	
diminished capacity)	[]

- b. Number of subjects (including controls) 25
- c. If you are associated with the subjects (e.g., they are your students, employees, patients), please explain the nature of the association.

I am a faculty member in one of the 23 community colleges. The Chair position that I report to in my college will not be included in this population. She will be asked to assist me in pilot testing the interview format for this study solely.

d. How will the subjects be recruited?

The Vice-President, Academic's office will be contacted by phone to obtain a current list of all women administrators and their position title at the president, vice-president, full-time program academic dean and full-time program academic chair levels. Each identified women administrator will then be contacted by letter outlining the purposes of the study and the requirements on their time. They will be invited to participate in this study in this letter. If the respondent decides to participate, she is asked to return the enclosed consent form in the stamped and addressed envelope.

e. If someone will receive payment for recruiting the subjects, please explain the amount of payment, who pays it and who receives it.

(not applicable)

f. Will the research subjects be compensated? [No [] Yes. If yes, details concerning payment, including the amount and schedule of payments, must be set forth in the informed consent.

(not applicable)

h. Will the subjects incur additional financial costs, as a result of their participation in this study? [/] No [] Yes. If yes, please explain.

(not applicable)

g. Will you be advertising for research participants? [\nabla No [] Yes. If yes, attach a copy of the advertisement you will use.

(not applicable)

13. ANONYMITY/CONFIDENTIALITY

A letter of agreement to participate in the study will be obtained from each study respondent. All data will be reported in collapsed categories so that individual identities and the identities of their colleges will be protected. The interview tapes will be transcribed solely by the researcher and coded by her in terms of the respondent's level in the organization, length of time in her current position, proportion of women to men in her peer group at work, and proportion of

women to men in the subordinate group which reports directly to this position. Once coding is completed, all tapes and information that might identify the respondent's name or college affiliation will be secured by the researcher in a locked file. Only coded, typed transcripts will be used in data analysis.

Copyright permission has been sought and received for use of the Quinn (1992) instrument (see Appendix C).

14 RISK/BENEFIT RATIO

The degree of risk to the individual study respondent is minimal. Consent to participate will be sought. Their own identity and that of their work place

will be known only to one investigator. All reporting will be done in collapsed categories so that individual identities and that of their college will be protected. The individual's have control over what information they choose to reveal in both the interview situation and in completing the study instruments.

In terms of benefits, it is anticipated that an analysis of the similarities and differences in the cognitive orientations of these women leaders will help in the identification, description, and valuing of a cognitive, women-centred paradigm to leadership. A woman-centred perspective to leadership would provide an alternative way of examining and responding to issues related to the study and practice of effective leadership.

15. CONSENT PROCEDURES

The identified women administrators will be asked to participate via a written letter that will be sent to them. If they agree to participate, they are asked to return the competed consent form in the enclosed stamped and addressed envelope.

In addition, written permission to use the Prism 1 instrument has been sought and received from Jossey-Bass, Inc..

APPENDIX F

Data Analysis Tool for Content Analysis of Leader Roles, Cognitive Models, & Perspectives

Appendix F

<u>Data Analysis Tool for Content Analysis of Leader Roles,</u> <u>Cognitive Models, and Cognitive Perspectives</u>

The Director Role

- 1. Is decisive.
- 2. Provides structure (i.e. clarifies expectations, provides clear directions, sets limits, time lines, boundaries, guidelines and priorities).
- 3. Clarifies the unit/organization's purpose.
- 4. Communicates the plan/vision in a meaningful way to all stakeholders.

The Producer Role

- 1. Is task-oriented.
- 2. Influences by the achievement of outcomes/results.
- 3. Seeks change through rational persuasion.
- 4. Establishes a climate of productive accomplishment (i.e. a "can do" attitude that serves to motivate others; personal enthusiasm and commitment to goal accomplishment).
- * 5. Willingness to get "hands dirty", or to actually do part of the work.
- * 6. A desire to get on with what needs to be done and to not personalize issues.

The Coordinator Role

Ensures that work flows smoothly by:

- 1. Ensuring that information systems are in place, and by ensuring that the necessary tools, space, time, and people are in place.
- 2. Brings a sense of order to the unit/organization (i.e. helps others to plan, schedule, organize and coordinate efforts.

The Monitor Role

Knows what is going on in the work unit and keeps tracks of facts through:

- 1. one-to-one meetings.
- 2. regular meetings with work group members.
- * 3. feedback from trusted others.
- * 4. informal assessment by walking around, observing and talking with others in their offices, the lounges and in the corridors.

The Facilitator Role

Fosters collective action and team building through:

- 1. the identification of decisions and clarification of roles and expectations.
- 2. encouraging structures to increase the effectiveness of meetings (i.e. use of agendas, taking of minutes, expectations about participation, etc.).
- 3. seeks consensus in decision making by encouraging others to express their points of view and by helping to resolve areas of disagreement.

Seeks to resolve conflict through:

- 4. collaborative strategies.
- 5. compromise strategies.
- 6. accommodation strategies.
- 7. avoidance strategies.
- * 8. In decision making, values the good of the whole (i.e. student learning, organizational outcomes) over the good of parts).
- * 9. Shares information clearly and in an up-front, honest manner.

The Mentor Role

1. Fundamentally believes that participative decision making contributes to better outcomes and improved commitment.

Develops and values others by:

- 2. selecting the best people for a project or task, and delegating both task and responsibility to these individuals.
- 3. the empowerment of others.
- 4. seeking diversity of input/opinions
- 5. giving recognition to others.
- 6. Demonstrates good interpersonal relationship skills.
- 7. Shows a tolerance for and understanding of diversity.
- 8. Listens carefully.
- * 9. Helps others to make journey by modelling, teaching, coaching, working with them.

- * 10. Creates an environment that encourages and values risk taking, ideas sharing, diversity of opinion, multiple perspectives and multiple solutions.
- * 11. Is open (i.e. knows others and is known to them).
- * 12. Seeks to influence by "selling" (i.e. influence strategies based on what the change means, or could mean, to the individual. Selling requires an understanding of the needs of the individual to be influenced).
- 13. Shows concern for others.

The Innovator Role

- 1. Envisions change.
- 2. Accepts change as a part of life.
- 3. Likes to identify new trends and opportunities.
- 4. Tends to trust one's hunches and intuition.
- * 5. Uses the metaphor of "planting seeds and nurturing their growth".

The Broker Role

Builds a support or power base through:

- 1. networks established and maintained within the organization.
- 2. networks established and maintained outside the unit.

Present ideas well:

- 3. in writing.
- 4. verbally.

- 5. Is resource oriented.
- 6. Is politically astute (i.e. likes to negotiate with and to influence power figures. Direction of influence is upward in the organizational hierarchy, and/or external to the organization.

(Developed by M.K. Brown, 1994)

Note: *'d items were added to those described by Quinn (1988, 1990, 1992) because these items were named by more than 50% of the women leaders interviewed, but were not clearly captured in descriptors of leader roles in the CVM.

APPENDIX G

Data Tabulation Tables

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<u>Total Population Roles Means</u>
(Prism 1 Instrument N=24)

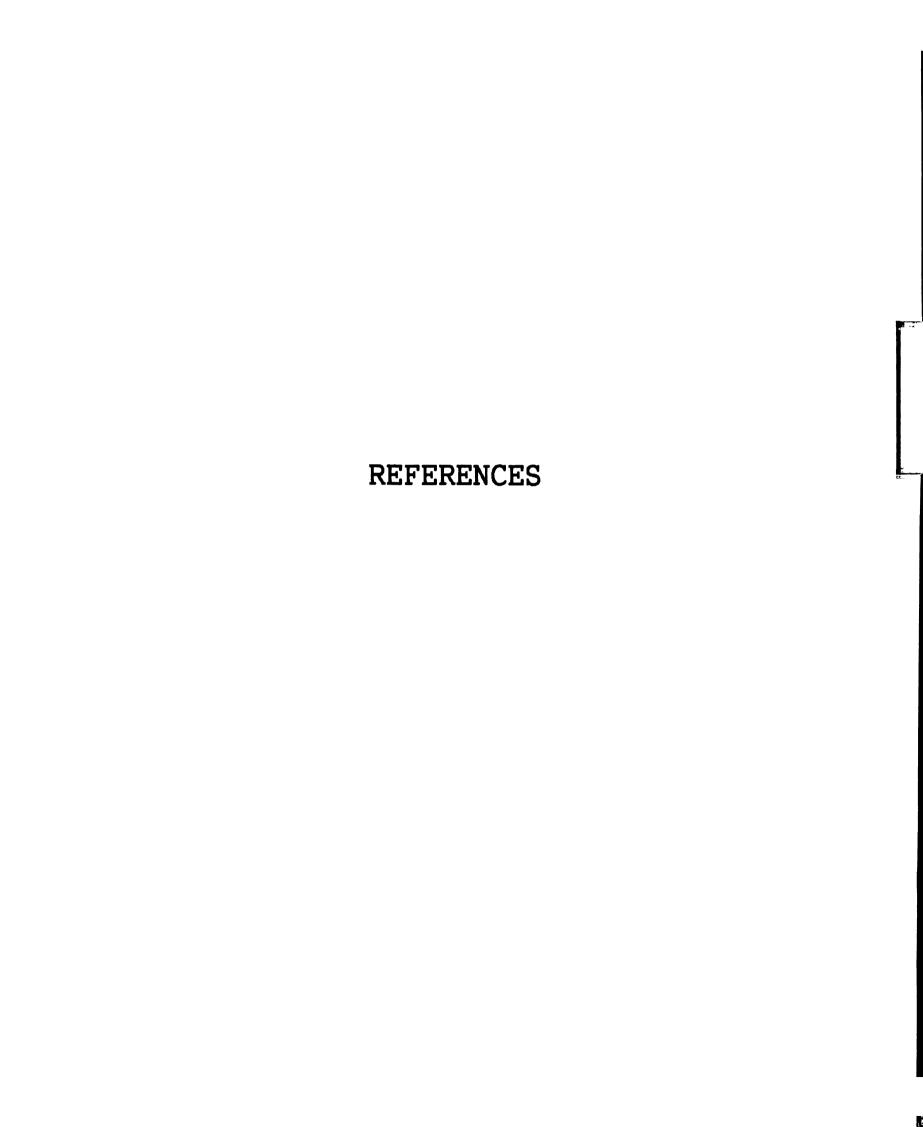
			1198 1					
Resp	Innov	Brok	Prod	Dir	Coord	Monit	Fac	Ment
# 1s	5.75	6.0	5.0	5.0	4.5	4.75	5.25	5.0
# 28	6.0	6.25	5.75	6.25	6.5	5.25	6.75	7.0
# 38	5.75	6.5	4.75	4.5	4.0	4.0	5.0	6.0
# 48	5.5	6.0	5.5	5.75	4.5	5.25	4.25	5.5
# 5s	6.25	5.5	5.75	6.0	6.0	6.25	4.5	7.0
# 6 s	6.5	6.0	6.75	6.25	5.5	5.75	6.5	6.75
# 7s	5.5	6.0	5.5	5.25	5.0	4.75	5.0	5.25
# 88	5.25	7.0	6.0	5.5	5.5	5.25	5.5	5.0
# 1m	6.25	6.25	6.25	5.25	6.25	6.25	6.75	7.0
# 2m	6.0	5.5	5.5	4.75	4.75	5.25	6.5	5.5
# 3m	6.25	6.75	6.75	6.5	6.25	7.0	6.75	7.0
# 4m	5.75	5.5	5.25	4.5	4.0	5.25	4.5	6.0
# 5m	6.75	6.5	6.25	5.25	4.25	4.5	7.0	5.75
# 6m	5.5	5.0	5.5	5.0	5.25	5.75	4.5	5.0
# 7m	5.25	5.5	5.0	5.25	6.0	4.75	6.0	6.75
# 1f	5.25	5.25	5.75	4.5	6.0	5.25	5.25	6.0
# 2f	6.25	6.25	6.25	5.75	5.75	5.5	5.75	6.25
# 3 f	7.0	6.5	6.5	6.5	7.0	5.25	6.0	7.0
# 4f	5.25	4.25	6.0	5.5	5.75	5.25	5.25	6.5
# 5f	4.75	4.75	5.0	5.0	5.5	5.5	4.0	6.5
# 6 f	6.0	4.0	5.0	5.5	6.25	5.5	5.5	6.0 -
# 7£	5.5	5.0	5.75	4.75	5.75	5.0	6.25	6.5
# 8 f	4.75	5.0	5.75	5.5	6.5	5.0	4.5	5.0
# 9f	6.25	6.25	6.0	5.0	5.5	4.5	5.0	5.0
Mean	5.80	5.73	5.73	5.35	5.51	5.28	5.51	6.05
S.D.	0.58	0.78	0.56	0.61	0.83	0.64	0.90	0.75
(Note:	e-coni	T ATTA	, m=mid	410 100	4-1			

(Note: s=senior level, m=middle level, f=first level)

242
Total Population Roles Means
(Interview Data Means N=24)

# 1s	nnov 0.2	Brok 0.33	Prod	Dir	Coord	Monit	Fa~	14
		U 33	I				Fac	Ment
اےدیا	_ 1	0.33	0.5	0.25	0	0.25	0.67	0.54
# 2s	0	0.67	0.2	0.75	1.0	0.25	0.67	0.54
# 3s	0	0.83	0.67	0.5	0.5	0.25	0.44	0.54
# 48	0	0.33	0.67	0.5	0	0.5	0.33	0.69
# 5s	0	0.83	0.67	1.0	0.5	0.75	0.44	0.33
# 6s	0.4	0.2	0.5	0.75	0	0.5	0.33	0.62
# 7s	0.4	0.2	0.5	0.5	0	0.5	0.44	0.77
# 8s	0.2	1.0	0.83	0.75	0	0.25	0.67	0.69
# 1m	0.6	0.67	0.2	1.0	0	0.25	0.67	0.92
# 2m	0.8	1.0	0.83	0.75	0	0.5	0.67	0.77
# 3m	0	. 67	0.2	0	0	0.25	0.67	0.62
# 4m	0.2	0.67	0.67	1.0	0	0.5	0.78	0.92
# 5m	0.4	0.83	0.83	1.0	0	0.25	0.44	0.38
# 6m	1.0	0.83	0.5	1.0	0	0.5	0.67	0.85
# 7m	0.6	0.67	0.67	1.0	0	0.25	0.67	0.69
# 1f	0.6	0.83	0.33	1.0	0	0.25	0.67	0.85
# 2f	0.2	0.5	0.83	1.0	0	0.75	0.56	0.69
# 3f	0	0.83	0.83	1.0	0	0.5	0.67	0.77
# 4f	0.4	0.67	0	0.5	0	0.75	0.56	1.0
# 5f	0.6	0.83	0.2	0.75	0	0.5	0.56	0.77
# 6f	0.4	0.67	0	1.0	0	0.5	0.56	1.0 -
# 7f	0.2	0.67	0.67	1.0	0	0.25	0.67	0.92
# 8f	0.2	0.67	0.67	0.75	1.0	0.5	0.67	0.62
# 9f	0	0.33	0.67	0.75	0	0.5	0.78	0.85
Mean	0.31	0.66	0.53	0.77	0.13	0.43	0.59	0.72
S.D.	0.28	0.23	0.27	0.28	0.3	0.17	0.13	0.18

(Note: s=senior level, m=middle level, f=first level)



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