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Women and Men's Ideal Leadership Style
 Preferences within the Workplace: The Influence
 of Connectedness Needs, Ethnicity, Age, and
 Educational Level presented by

Karyn Jois Boatwright

has been accepted towards fulfillment
 of the requirements for

Ph.D. degree in Counseling Psychology

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**WOMEN AND MEN'S IDEAL LEADERSHIP STYLE PREFERENCES WITHIN THE
WORKPLACE: THE INFLUENCE OF CONNECTEDNESS NEEDS, ETHNICITY, AGE, AND
EDUCATIONAL LEVEL**

By

Karyn Jois Boatwright

A DISSERTATION

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

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Department of Counseling Educational Psychology & Special Education

1998

ABSTRACT

WOMEN AND MEN'S IDEAL LEADERSHIP STYLE PREFERENCES WITHIN THE WORKPLACE: THE INFLUENCE OF CONNECTEDNESS NEEDS, ETHNICITY, AGE AND EDUCATIONAL LEVEL

By

Karyn Jois Boatwright

Increasing the congruency between a worker's ideal leadership style preference and their leader's actual style increases workers' job satisfaction, morale, and productivity. Therefore, identifying factors related to a worker's ideal leadership style preference is important; however, few factors have been empirically researched. Using the relational theory as a foundation, the relationships among gender, connectedness needs, and ideal leadership style preferences of female and male workers were examined.

Participants were 1137 adult female and male employees drawn from three organizations and an additional sample of African American workers from several organizations across the country. A total of 4604 complete surveys were distributed: 1199 surveys were returned; of these, 57 surveys were incomplete and deemed unacceptable for the study. This return (including the incomplete questionnaires) represented an overall response rate of 26%.

First, surveys were distributed to supervisors who were asked to distribute them to their subordinates within the organization. The complete set of materials received by each employee included the following: a) a cover letter explaining the purpose and voluntary nature of the study, ensuring the participants' complete anonymity, and describing the \$300.00 lottery participation incentive; b) a six-page questionnaire packet consisting of the

Manifest Needs Questionnaire's affiliation subscale, the Adjective Checklist's affiliation subscale, Connectedness Scale, Relationship Self-Inventory, Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire; and c) business reply envelope.

The hypothesis that female workers would have significantly higher scores than male workers on ideal preferences for the Consideration leadership style as measured by the Consideration subscale of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire was supported with significant findings from the t-test. The hypothesis that male workers would have significantly higher scores than females on ideal preferences for Initiating Structured leadership styles as measured by the Initiating Structure subscale of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire was not supported. The hypothesis that female workers would have significantly higher scores on connectedness needs as measured by the Connectedness Scale than male workers was supported with significant findings from the t-test. The hypothesis that the level of connectedness needs as measured by the Connectedness Scale would significantly mediate the relationship between gender and the ideal leadership style preference for Consideration as measured by the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire was supported with significant findings from the hierarchical regression analysis. When the effects of demographic variables and gender were statistically controlled, connectedness needs predicted an additional 10% of the variance in workers' preferences for a Consideration leadership style. In post hoc analyses, there were no differences found among workers from the three organizations and the African American diversity sample in preferences for Initiating Structure and Consideration leadership style.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I wish to express my deep gratitude to my advisor, Dr. Linda Forrest, who not only served on my doctoral committee and helped guide my dissertation, but also over the course of my doctoral program at Michigan State became my cherished mentor and friend. Her influence upon my professional growth and personal development has been profound. Dr. Forrest's incisive questions and research insight were instrumental in developing this study, but most importantly her unlimited support and confidence in me made the tedious process of writing bearable. Without her faith in me, her sense of humor, her encouragement, producing this dissertation would have been much less meaningful and worthwhile.

Three people who served on my doctoral committee, diligently reviewed my proposal and dissertation, and also over time influenced my professional growth deserve special thanks. I wish to thank Dr. Ken Frank who was always extraordinarily generous with his time and guidance in the statistical aspects of this study. I wish to express my gratitude to Dr. Ellen Strommen, who continued to support me and my research goals even during her sabbatical and retirement. Her warm smile and insatiable quest for knowledge was inspirational. I will also be indebted to Dr. Robbie Steward, who was the first person in my doctoral program who believed in me and consistently challenged me to use my skills wisely and responsibly.

I wish to thank Dr. Fred Lopez who inspired me to think scientifically about my study and also was willing to offer invaluable insight into my initial

research questions and design. His commitment to teaching the research process to doctoral students is deeply appreciated.

Sincere appreciation and gratitude are extended to my colleagues and friends, Judy Ferris, Mary Gilbert, Kay Ketzenberger, Kathy Long, Eric Sauer, Kim Thomas, Diane Trebilcock, and Jim Wyssman, for their frequent encouragement throughout the various steps of this study.

I would like to dedicate this dissertation to my parents who over the years inspired and supported my academic endeavors in numerous ways: at an early age, my father, Rev. Garold Boatwright, taught me the joy of reading and writing and my mother, Joyce Sharp Boatwright, instilled within me the determination to persevere. I wish to thank my brother, Robert Boatwright, and sister, Dawn Boatwright Carlson, who shared with me the excitement of interesting words and the joy of learning. Along with my parents, their pride in me frequently gave me the extra boost of courage to continue pursuing my academic dream. I wish to thank my Aunt Jewel and Uncle Jack for expressing interest in my academic process. A special thank you is offered to my nieces and nephews, Christopher, Cara, Joshua, Josie, and Hannah for lovingly reminding me of the truly important things in life.

And finally I would like to thank Rhonda Egidio, who was there for me the entire academic and dissertation journey. Her constant willingness to listen to my research ideas throughout this 36-month process never ceased to amaze me. Her uncanny ability in seeing the “whole picture” assisted me in keeping sight of the deeper meaning underlying this academic endeavor. Additionally, I would like to thank her for intellectually, emotionally and spiritually assisting me in fulfilling my dreams.

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Chapter 1

RESEARCH PROBLEM

A vast amount of empirical attention has been devoted to the “process” of leadership (Hollander, 1993) and the effects of the leader upon the worker (e.g., Fleishman & Hunt, 1973; Nwafor & Eddy, 1993). Most studies have conceptualized leadership as a “function of leader qualities” and viewed the leader as the “major actor in leadership. . .the center of action, influence, and power” (Hollander, 1992, p. 43). For example, leaders help create “fits” between the needs of the worker and the organization by matching worker skills to available jobs and by providing training to optimize the match (Landy, 1989; Wilkes, 1992). Due to the pivotal role that leaders frequently serve within the context of many work settings, much of the attention on leader variables seems warranted. However, the critical role of the follower as a fundamental component in legitimizing effective leadership has not been adequately acknowledged (Hollander, 1993).

The predominant focus on leader variables is surprising, considering that for several decades leadership has been conceptualized as a dynamic process involving the leader and the worker (Halpin, 1957; Hollander, 1964, 1979, 1985, 1990, 1992, 1993; Hollander & Offerman, 1990; Mayo, 1945; Sanford, 1950; Yukl, 1971). As early as 1950, Sanford suggested that “There is some justification for regarding the follower as the most crucial factor in any leadership event” (p.

4). Similarly, Hollander has consistently argued that leadership is not a quality possessed by a leader but “a process involving followership. Without followers, there plainly are no leaders or leadership. . . Followers affect the strength of a leader’s influence, the style of a leader’s behavior, and the performance of the group, through processes of perception, attribution, and judgment” (1993, p. 29).

Furthermore, several studies have shown that the leader-follower working dyad through which many leadership functions are carried out is critical to workers’ productivity (Fiedler & Chemers, 1974; Greene, 1975; Neil & Kirby, 1985; Wilkinson & Wagner, 1993), rewards (Coates, Jarratt, & Mahaffie, 1990), morale (Meade, 1985), and work satisfaction (Fiedler, 1967; Hunt & Liebscher, 1973; Singer, 1985; Singer & Singer, 1990; Wilkinson & Wagner, 1993). Nonetheless, most researchers have addressed the *leader’s* role in this relationship without serious regard for the worker.

Researchers are not alone in their omission of the worker (follower or subordinate) in their discourse about effective leadership; similarly, organizations have also traditionally focused more on the leader’s role in the leader-follower relationship (Landy, 1989). For example, in response to a recent decline in business productivity and workers’ satisfaction, American organizations emulated successful Asian companies by encouraging leaders to develop empowering and supportive styles of leadership. While American companies were encouraging leaders to shift from authoritative, task structured styles to more democratic, relational modes of leadership, organizations assumed that most workers would thrive in response to this leadership style; however, companies failed to ask their employees to identify their individual preferences for leadership styles before implementing these changes (Naisbitt & Aburdene, 1985).

Whereas some researchers have invited workers to evaluate their present leaders (e.g., Meade, 1985), only a handful have been interested in the *ideal* preferences of the worker. This is unfortunate, considering that workers frequently report that their "ideal" leader is significantly different from their actual leader (e.g., Singer, 1985). Moreover, results yielded from these rare worker-centered studies suggest that the congruence between the follower's *ideal* leadership style preference and the *actual* leader's style explains a significant portion of the variance in predicting their work satisfaction (Chelladurai, 1984; Dalessio, 1983; Hunt & Liebscher, 1973; Singer, 1985), particularly among female workers (Kushell & Newton, 1986).

An even smaller subset of researchers has examined preferred styles of leadership as a function of workers' between-group differences. For example, a commonly investigated "leader" variable, gender, (e.g., Powell & Butterfield, 1980) is glaringly absent in the small body of literature pertaining to workers' ideal leadership style preferences. In fact, although women now comprise 45% of the U.S. labor force (U.S. Department of Labor, 1992), only two studies have considered workers' gender differences in accounting for the variance in workers' preferred leadership styles (Ejiogu, 1985; Neil & Kirby, 1985). Furthermore, these two studies relegated the variable to post hoc analyses. As discussed further in the next chapter, research exploring the relationship between gender and ideal leadership style preferences is scant and findings are inconsistent. Thus, the first purpose of this study is to fill this noticeable gap in the literature by asking a priori whether workers' gender accounts for a significant portion of the variance in ideal leadership style preferences.

If men and women are found to prefer different types of leadership styles, simply identifying between-group gender differences will only reinforce the myth that gender differences are solely biologically determined and ignore

the fact that “certain behaviors are allowed and rewarded for women and men” (Brooks & Forrest, 1994, p. 88). Typically, differences between males and females have been controlled for instead of investigated for their meaning within the workplace. In response to this concern, in this study, if statistically significant differences (between-group) are found, a theoretically justifiable variable mediating the relationship between gender and leadership preferences will be investigated.

Although not empirically tested, a logical assumption is that a follower's work values will influence his or her preferences in leadership styles. Findings that women's relational values within the work setting are stronger than men's (Bartol, 1976; Elizur, 1994; Pryor, 1983; Vondracek et al., 1990), suggest that females may prefer leaders who create a strong relational milieu by fostering leader-follower and follower-follower relationships. In general, women value relationships with co-workers, interactions with people, considerate leaders (Bartol, 1976; Elizur, 1994; Pryor, 1983), work surroundings, and altruism (Vondracek et al., 1990) more than their male workers whereas males place higher value on aspects associated with autonomy (e.g., Bartol, 1976).

An extension of this finding is that females may prefer relationally-oriented leaders more than males. I extended this further by hypothesizing that needs for connectedness may mediate the relationship between workers' gender and their ideal leadership style preferences. Thus, the second purpose of this study is to determine if connectedness functions as a mediating factor between workers' gender and ideal leadership style preferences. With this additional information, leaders can more accurately determine which *particular* leadership style will work more effectively with *particular* workers in *particular* situations as well as the underlying reasons for the preferences.

Providing a theoretical basis for the exploration of connectedness needs as a mediating variable is the self-in-relation theory (Jordan, Kaplan, Baker-Miller, & Surrey, 1991; Jordan & Surrey, 1986; Miller, 1984, 1986, 1987). This theory, described more fully in the next chapter, identifies psychosocial reasons undergirding women's stronger interest in relational connections by explicating female's identity development within the "context of connection" and "responsiveness to others" (Forrest & Mikolaitis, 1986, p. 80). More specifically, relational theorists reveal ways in which women's (more so than men's) early relationships with their caretakers encourage a self-concept built on interdependent connectedness with others (Gilligan, 1982; Jordan & Surrey, 1986).

As previously noted, most feminist scholars today agree that sociocultural conditions account for most behavioral differences between men and women (e.g., Brooks & Forrest, 1994). In this study, an underlying assumption is that gender-role socialization is a process that creates numerous gender differences in attitudes, needs, personality traits, and behaviors. Connectedness is thus assumed to be only one gender difference influenced by socialization.

The self-in-relation theory offers an explanation for the variance in connectedness values between males and females by explicating the early socialization process between mother and child (Miller, 1991). Unfortunately, it fails to explicitly deal with other possible psychosocial contributors to relational value gender differences (e.g., expectations of peers, teachers, effects of media, etc.) as well as other significant outcomes resulting from psychosocial differences (e.g., self-efficacies, differences in work aspirations, etc.). With regard to these issues, the theory is limited in its scope. Nonetheless, the theory frames connectedness values as a positive personality

characteristic, one that empowers individuals to strive for significant personal meaning within the context of interpersonal connections (Miller, 1991). As previously mentioned, it theoretically explicates ways in which early socialization differences help create gender differences in the manifestation of connectedness needs; therefore, it provides the theoretical underpinnings for this study which examines the mediating influence of connectedness.

To review, the self-in-relation theory implicitly supports the hypothesis that due to stronger psychosocially constructed needs for connectedness, women will prefer relationally-oriented leaders more than men. However, this important tenet has not been sufficiently empirically validated in the literature. Thus, in addition to using the self-in-relation theory to justify the exploration of connectedness as the mediating variable between gender and ideal leadership style preferences, the third purpose of this study is to empirically test this theory's basic tenet by determining whether gender differences in connectedness exist among a sample of male and female workers.

In summary, the extent to which leaders' goals are achieved partially depends upon follower's willingness to cooperate with their leader, resulting from a congruency between followers' ideal leadership style preferences and their leaders' style of leadership in the workplace ((Dalessio, 1983; Hunt & Liebscher, 1973; Kuschell & Newton, 1986). Because parity between workers' ideal leadership style preferences and actual leadership styles results in greater productivity (Neil & Kirby, 1985), morale (Meade, 1985), and work satisfaction (Dalessio, 1983; Hunt & Liebscher, 1973), identifying variables that predict followers' leadership preferences may help leaders better understand workers' motivations.

Although researchers have extensively investigated leader characteristics (e.g., Arnett, Higgins, & Priem, 1980; Banfield, 1976) and leadership styles (Kushell & Newton, 1986), few have explored workers' ideal leadership style preferences; fewer still have investigated these preferences as a function of other variables (e. g., Ejiogu, 1985). Given the lack of knowledge regarding these factors, the primary purposes of this exploratory study are: 1) to examine the role of the worker's gender in predicting workers' ideal leadership style preferences, 2) to assess the mediating influence of connectedness between gender and ideal leadership style preferences, and 3) to empirically test the self-in-relation theoretical tenet, that females and males differ in their needs for connectedness. The primary working hypotheses are: male and female workers will significantly differ in leadership style preferences; male and female workers will significantly differ in connectedness needs; workers with higher connectedness needs will prefer a leader whose style creates a work milieu in which the workers' connectedness needs can be met with other colleagues as well as with the leader; finally, workers with lower connectedness needs will prefer a leader whose style encourages independence among colleagues and within the worker-leader relationship.

Definition of Constructs

Gender. In this study, gender is used to describe aspects of sex "for which biological causality has not been established and "are culturally regarded as appropriate to males or to females" (Unger, 1979).

Connectedness. Rude and Burnham's (1995) definition of connectedness is used in this study: "A mature, healthy, nonpathological sense of oneself as defined partly by one's relationships with others; valuing of close, harmonious interpersonal relationships" (p. 332). The construct of

“connectedness” in this study included dimensions of interpersonal **“attitudes and behaviors that are not problematic (but rather) reflect an affiliative style or a relationally embedded self-concept”** (Rude & Burnham, 1995, p. 325).

Connectedness is conceptualized differently from the excessively dependent desire to anxiously seek and rely on interpersonal contact with others (Bowlby, 1980), from the passive need to be controlled or dominated by another person (Arieti & Bemporad, 1980; cited by Rude & Burnham, 1995), and from the neurotically chronic need to feel protected, loved, and cared for by another (Blatt & Homann, 1992; cited by Rude & Burnham, 1995)

Leadership. In this study, leadership is defined as the behavior of an individual when he or she is directing the activities of a group toward a common goal in a given situation (Halpin, 1957; Stogdill, 1963).

Ideal Leadership Style Preference. In this study, a leadership style preference is defined as the way in which workers prefer leadership responsibilities to be carried out within an organization by a particular person designated as their leader (Fleishman & Harris, 1962).

Dimensions of Leadership Style. The two basic dimensions of leadership examined in this study are **“Consideration”** and **“Initiating Structure.”** Several studies report that these two constructs of leadership account for 83% of the variance in leadership behaviors (Landy, 1989). Consideration includes behavior in which the supervisor exhibits mutual trust, respect, concern for workers' needs and seeks to establish warmth and rapport between him or herself and workers. Empirical studies report that leaders high in **“Consideration”** have been found to empower employees by supporting participation in decision making and encouraging reciprocal communication (Fleishman & Harris, 1962; Halpin, 1957; Stogdill, 1963). The **“Initiating Structure”** dimension includes behavior in which the supervisor

exerts control over employees by defining work roles, assigning tasks, establishing strategies for task completion, and emphasizing production and organizational goals (Fleishman & Harris, 1962; Halpin, 1957; Stogdill, 1963).

Worker. In this study, workers are defined as male or female adults who are currently employed part or full-time in a non-managerial position supervised by at least one male or female leader.

Research Questions

Given the dearth of extant leadership style preference studies, important questions regarding the relations among workers' gender, connectedness needs, and leadership style preferences have never been addressed. This study addresses the following questions: First, will workers' gender account for a significant portion of the variance in predicting their leadership style preferences? Given this study's underlying assumption that gender-role socialization influences gender differences through connectedness needs, will workers' gender account for a significant portion of the variance in predicting their connectedness needs? When connectedness needs are controlled for, will workers' gender continue to be related to their leadership style preferences?

Research Hypotheses

This study examines possible relationships among the variables of gender, ethnicity, connectedness needs, and preferences in leadership style. The effect of race upon ideal leadership style preferences and connectedness needs will be explored in post hoc analyses without a priori hypotheses. Listed below are the research hypotheses describing the expected relationships among gender, connectedness needs, and ideal preferences in leadership style:

1) **Null Hypothesis:** Female workers will have lower or the same scores than males on preferences for relationally oriented leadership styles as measured by the Consideration subscale of the LBDQ.

Alternative Hypothesis: Female workers will have significantly higher scores than males on preferences for relationally oriented leadership styles as measured by the Consideration subscale of the LBDQ.

2) **Null Hypothesis:** Male workers will have lower or the same scores than females on preferences for nonrelationally-oriented leadership styles as measured by the Initiating Structure subscale of the LBDQ.

Alternative Hypothesis: Male workers will have significantly higher scores than females on preferences for nonrelationally-oriented leadership styles as measured by the Initiating Structure subscale of the LBDQ.

3) **Null Hypothesis:** Female workers will have lower or similar scores than male workers on connectedness needs as measured by the Connectedness Scale.

Alternative Hypothesis: Female workers will have significantly higher scores than male workers on connectedness needs as measured by the Connectedness Scale.

4) **Null Hypothesis:** The level of connectedness needs as measured by the Connectedness Scale will be unrelated to the relation between workers' gender and workers' preferences for a nonrelationally-oriented leadership style as measured by the Initiating Structure subscale of the LBDQ.

Alternative Hypothesis: The level of connectedness needs as measured by the Connectedness Scale will significantly mediate the relation between workers' gender and workers' ideal preference for a nonrelationally-oriented leadership style as measured by the Initiating Structure subscale of the LBDQ. More specifically, when connectedness needs are accounted for, workers'

gender will be unrelated to their preference for a nonrelationally-oriented leadership style as measured by the Initiating Structure subscale of the LBDQ,

5) Null Hypothesis: The level of connectedness needs as measured by the Connectedness Scale will be unrelated to the relation between workers' gender and workers' preferences for a relationally-oriented leadership style as measured by the Consideration subscale of the LBDQ,

Alternative Hypothesis: The level of connectedness needs as measured by the Connectedness Scale will significantly mediate the relation between workers' gender and workers' ideal preference for a relationally-oriented leadership style as measured by the Consideration subscale of the LBDQ, More specifically, when connectedness needs are accounted for, workers' gender will be unrelated to their preference for a relationally-oriented leadership style as measured by the Consideration subscale of the LBDQ,

Chapter 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The purpose of this study is to determine the relationship among workers' gender, connectedness, and ideal leadership style preferences. In this literature review, a body of research pertaining to the interrelationships among these variables is examined. The literature is divided into four major sections. First, the review begins with an examination of research related to the classification of leadership behaviors. Second, follower-oriented leadership theories are reviewed. Third, empirical research using several different predictors of the dependent variable, worker's leadership preferences, is critically examined. Finally, this review concludes with the presentation of the self-in-relation theory's basic tenets that served as the underpinnings of the primary hypothesis; i.e., that workers' needs for connectedness will mediate the relationship between gender and their ideal leadership style preferences.

Leadership Behavior Literature

The body of literature relevant to leadership is complex and extensive. For example, leadership research has focused on the personality characteristics of leaders, gender differences among leaders (Korabik, 1982; Megargee, 1969), predictors of leadership abilities (Drake, 1944 as cited by MacFadden, 1974), as well as the relationship between types of leadership and workers' productivity (Banfield, 1976; Nwafor & Eddy, 1993). Because a full review is beyond the

scope of this section, a representative selection of theory and research germane to worker leadership preferences is reviewed.

Job-centered and employee-centered leadership dimensions

In the early years of leadership research, “the trait approach” was used extensively to understand individual traits of leaders (Schriesheim, 1982). This gradually changed during the 1940s, however, when a small group of researchers from the University of Michigan began studying the behavioral styles of leaders. Consistent with the objective, scientific zeitgeist of the era, these researchers employed the atheoretical, behavioral approach in describing leadership behaviors. From their quantitative studies, two basic dimensions of leadership were identified: “job-centered” leadership behavior that included a focus on productivity, performance, and close supervision of employees and “employee-centered” leadership that concentrated on humanistic aspects of work (Likert, 1961; Wilkes, 1992).

Consideration and Initiating Structure leadership behavioral dimensions

Concurrent with the University of Michigan studies, a larger group of researchers from the Bureau of Business Research at The Ohio State University began jointly working on a project that provided a major impetus for a plethora of leadership studies within business research and organizational psychology. Solely relying on objective descriptions of behaviors (e.g., Halpin, 1954, 1955; Halpin, 1957), 1800 descriptive items were developed and classified into ten categories of supervisory behavior (e.g., initiation, evaluation, communication). After several factorial analyses of these 10 aspects of leadership, researchers identified two major dimensions of leader behavior accounting for 83% of the variance: Initiating Structure and Consideration (Fleishman & Hunt, 1973; Halpin & Winer, 1957). The

Consideration dimension (similar to employee-centered, supportive, participative, and human-relations-oriented leadership, Landy, 1989) and the Initiating Structure (similar to job-centered, directive, and task-oriented styles of leadership, Landy, 1989) are defined as follows:

Consideration: Includes behavior indicating mutual trust, respect, and a certain warmth and rapport between the supervisor and his or her group. This dimension seems to emphasize a deeper concern for group members' needs and includes such behavior as allowing workers more participation in decision making and encouraging more two-way communication.

Structure: Includes behavior in which the supervisor organizes and defines group activities and his or her relation to the group. Thus, he or she defines the role he or she expects each member to assume, assigns tasks, plans ahead, establishes ways of getting things done, and pushes for production. This dimension seems to emphasize overt attempts to achieve organization goals. (Fleishman & Harris, 1962, pp. 43-44).

Interestingly, the two dimensions identified in the Ohio State Leadership Studies were similar to the two categories of leadership behavior concurrently identified by the University of Michigan researchers. Most significant, however, is the departure of both groups from the traditional method of describing personal characteristics of leaders to empirically identifying objective and measurable behaviors (Wilkes, 1992). Primarily relying on results from the Ohio State Leadership Studies, major researchers in the field of business and organizational psychology eventually came to regard Consideration and Initiating Structure as fundamental aspects of leadership behavior (Hoy & Miskel, 1982; Landy, 1989). Consequently, these two dimensions were extensively used in hundreds of subsequent leadership studies based on a variety of theoretical approaches, instruments, populations

and cultures; the basic findings of the Ohio State studies have been repeatedly replicated (e.g., Tscheulin, 1971). In most studies, these two dimensions accounted for over 80 percent of the variance in leadership behaviors and therefore are regarded as fundamental classifications of leadership behavior. Landy (1989) asserts that "There is little doubt that consideration and Initiating Structure represent reliable phenomena in the measurement of leader behavior" (p. 504).

Measurement of Consideration and Initiating Structure leadership behavioral dimensions

A significant outcome of the Ohio State Leadership Studies was the conceptual and statistical determination that Consideration and Initiating Structure behavioral styles are independent, that is not polarized constructs existing on the same measurable continuum. For the first time, researchers agreed that a leader's behavior reflected both dimensions and that they could be measured separately (Lofton, 1985).

To quantitatively measure these two dimensions, two instruments were developed by researchers affiliated with The Ohio State University Leadership Studies: (1) The Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (Fleishman, 1960), most frequently used to question leaders about their own behaviors; and the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (Halpin, 1957; Stogdill, 1963), used to question workers about their leaders' "real" behaviors or about their "ideal" leadership style preferences. Since their early development, these questionnaires have been widely used in studies including samples from educational, organizational, industrial, and military settings (e.g., Ejiogu, 1985; Lofton, 1984; Punnett, 1991; Stinson & Robertson, 1973).

Summary

The Ohio State researchers went beyond the identification of leadership behaviors dimensions by identifying the most effective combinations of these two behavioral dimensions. In general, initial results from studies using male participants demonstrated that a high-Consideration and high-Structure leadership style resulted in (a) high worker satisfaction, (b), high worker productivity, and (c) positive ratings from workers (Fleishman & Harris, 1962; Halpin, 1955, 1957, 1959; Stogdill, 1963; Stogdill & Coons, 1957), particularly in studies of military and industrial male workers.

Based on the body of research generated from the Ohio State studies, Halpin (1959) concluded that the most effective leadership is characterized by high Initiating Structure and high Consideration. Subsequently, this atheoretical conclusion was disseminated within academic institutions and adhered to by many organizational supervisors and leaders (Schriesheim, 1982). For example, when four groups of leaders with different levels of managerial experience were asked to describe their ideal leader, most (over 60% in each group) identified a high Structure-high Consideration style as the ideal (Inderlied & Powell, 1979).

Subsequent research results investigating the actual effectiveness of high-Consideration and high-Structure leadership styles have not replicated earlier findings, however. In recent decades, the Consideration factor seems to explain the majority of the variance accounting for worker satisfaction in a variety of work environments. For example, leaders high in Consideration were shown to engender greater work satisfaction and promote greater productivity, regardless of their Initiating Structure ratings, in 138 rehabilitation counselors (Wilkinson & Wagner, 1993). A decade earlier, Schriesheim (1982) had also demonstrated that in four different work

populations, leaders rated high in Consideration scores by workers received the highest evaluations regardless of the amount of Initiating Structure scores. In fact, Schriesheim concluded that "the superiority of the high-Consideration high-Initiating Structure leadership style is indeed an American myth" (p. 226).

Follower-oriented leadership theories

For the first half of this century, the prevailing leadership strategy generally adhered to by many leaders within the workplace employed a rigid and direct leadership style (Taylor, 1911; cited by Lofton, 1985). Task-structured supervision has been frequently used to keep employees focused and task-oriented. In fact, the relationship between a leader and a worker was completely ignored in the literature until human relations' concepts were theoretically applied to leadership in the 1940s by Mayo (1945) who was one of the first to strongly suggest that within the work setting, a worker's interpersonal relationship with his or her supervisor was a critical factor in increasing productivity.

However, post-war America was experiencing economic growth and those in leadership positions frequently sustained hierarchical, highly structured supervisor-worker relationships. Until global business competition during the 1970s provided an economic impetus for a re-examination of the entire workplace (Naisbitt & Aburdene, 1985), empirical studies identifying the importance of the relational process of leadership (e.g., Halpin, 1957; Hollander, 1964, 1979) were dismissed by many in leadership positions. Ironically, when international companies were studied to identify the "secrets" to their increasingly noticeable success, team work and consideration for employees were assumed to be important factors in

increasing workers' job satisfaction and productivity (Naisbitt & Aburdene, 1985).

At the academic forefront of this worker-leader examination were Hollander (1979), Hersey and Blanchard (1982), and Fiedler (1972) who continued to maintain that the hierarchical leadership paradigm had serious limitations. Their respective theories, the Social-Exchange Theory (Hollander, 1979), Life Cycle of Leadership Theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1982), and the Contingency Theory (Fiedler, 1972) explicitly included the worker and have contributed to the gradual shift from a leader-dominated view to one involving follower participation. Collectively, they provide the theoretical justification for this study's focus upon the follower within the framework for leadership. In the following section, these three theoretical positions are briefly reviewed.

Social exchange theory

Hollander's social exchange perspective of leadership emphasizes the relationally reciprocal qualities of the leader-follower transaction (Hollander, 1964, 1979, 1985, 1990, 1992, 1993). Leadership is conceptualized as a system of relationships with the follower a direct recipient of leadership as well as an active member of a mutually influential transaction. As part of this dynamic system, the interaction between leader and worker results in mutual advantages and rewards over a period of time. The processes of leadership and followership are viewed as interdependent systems that rely on reciprocity (Hollander, 1992, 1993). Additionally:

Leadership and followership also can both be active roles, considering the reality that hierarchical organizations require both functions at every level. The usual expectation of the follower role as essentially passive is misleading when considering followership as an

accompaniment to leadership. Leaders do command greater attention and influence, but there now is an increasing realization that followers can affect leaders actively in more than trivial ways. . . The role of follower therefore can be seen to hold within it the potential of leadership, and behaviors found to represent effective leadership in fact include attributes of good followership, such as dependability, competence, and honesty. Even with an imbalance of power, influence can be exerted in both roles, as part of a social exchange. Effective leadership is more likely to be achieved by a process in which there is reciprocity and the potential for two-way influence and power sharing, rather than a sole reliance on power over others. (Hollander, 1993, p. 31)

From a leader's perspective, an ideal situation is when workers possess a willingness to be "led" by their leader (Hollander, 1979, 1985), accept the leader's power (Barnard, 1938), and positively affect the leader's attainment of promotions, influence, status, and security (Yukl, 1989a, 1989b). Thus, leadership functions within the limitations (e.g., expectations and perceptions) and contingencies conferred to the leader by followers (Hollander, 1993).

Life cycle of leadership theory

According to the life cycle of leadership theory (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969, 1970, 1982), leaders must modify their styles according to the workers' maturity level. A key assumption is that the leader's ability to modify a style to fit the worker significantly predicts leadership effectiveness.

Within this theory, three major factors of maturity were described by Hersey and Blanchard (1969, 1970, 1982): (a) motivation to achieve; (b) willingness and ability to assume responsibility; and (c) relevant education and work experience. The theory further assumes that, when followers are

able, an effective leader assists them to develop greater maturity.

Subsequently, the worker becomes increasingly mature, while developing higher level needs (Maslow, 1943). Hersey and Blanchard reasoned that the development of effective leadership styles for particular workers (with their varying maturity levels) could be visually depicted as a curve proceeding through a four-quadrant matrix composed of four leadership styles--telling, selling, participating, delegating--each representing a different composite of the Consideration and Task-structure dimensions (Halpin, 1957). Theoretically, the effect of the four leadership styles is mediated by the "maturity" of the worker and leaders should be able to modify their style according to the maturity of the worker.

Contingency Theory

Although criticized throughout his career for conceptualizing leaders as one-dimensional--possessing either a relationship or task-structured orientation--Fiedler (1967, 1972) acknowledged the relationship between workers and leaders, emphasizing that leaders should be well liked by workers. Fiedler's leadership contingency theory (Fiedler, 1972) identified three situational variables that optimize a leader's capacities and overall effectiveness: (a) the personal relationship with workers, (b) the degree of structure in the worker's task, and (c) the leader's power and authority. When these three variables are either favorable or unfavorable, Fiedler predicts that task-oriented leaders will be more effective; when these variables are not uniformly favorable or unfavorable, a relationally oriented leader will have more success increasing workers' productivity and satisfaction.

Summary

Bodies of leadership literature continue to be concerned with task-structured and relational dimensions of leadership as first identified by the

University of Michigan and The Ohio State University studies (Halpin, 1957; Likert, 1961). As pointed out, these independent leadership dimensions are still perceived as significant variables within the context of leader-worker relationships.

However, theorists disagree about the degree to which these basic leadership dimensions should be employed in a work setting. Hersey & Blanchard (1969, 1970, 1982), for example, state that leadership style should vary according to a worker's maturity, commitment and skills, whereas the Ohio State leadership studies (e.g., Halpin, 1957) indicate that a high-task, high-consideration style would be more positively related to worker satisfaction and productivity.

One possible reason for the seemingly endless search to find the "right leadership style for particular workers in particular situations" may be researchers' failure to directly ask the worker to describe their ideal preferences. Most often, workers are asked to (1) evaluate the effectiveness of their current leader, and (2) report their degree of work satisfaction; bold assumptions and wide, sweeping generalizations are made regarding which styles predict satisfaction and productivity. Unfortunately, in these studies, workers only evaluate the effectiveness of one leader--their current leader.

Although these results are helpful to a point, they have definite limitations. First, the degree of satisfaction between one group of workers (e.g., males in military settings) and their leaders has not been shown to be generalizable from one organization to the next (Schriesheim, 1982); second, researchers are only able to evaluate workers' satisfaction with their present instead of their ideal. Therefore, we do not know what types of leaders workers ideally prefer, and most significantly we do not know which variables predict these preferences for leadership style. Although the primary thrust of

research has been on identifying which current leadership styles relate to current worker satisfaction, a few researchers have attempted to identify worker variables that relate to preferred leadership styles. In the next half of this review, these studies will be presented followed by a review of the theoretical underpinnings for the hypothesis that connectedness will mediate the relationship between workers' gender and their ideal leadership style preferences.

Factors Influencing Workers' Preferences

As mentioned above, some researchers have designed studies to assess the relationship between different worker factors (independent variables) and workers' ideal leadership style preferences (dependent variable). The independent variables examined thus far in this body of literature include workers' experience level, cognitive style, personal history, and gender. The results of these studies are reviewed below.

Experience Levels and Ideal Leadership Style Preferences

Hersey and Blanchard (1969, 1970, 1982) theorized that workers' maturity levels might affect ideal leadership style preferences. To test this theory, Stinson and Robertson, (1973) sampled 108 hearing and speech student clinicians, ranging in class level from sophomores to graduate students; maturity and work experience levels were operationalized through measures of age, class standing, and number of clinical contact hours. Although they predicted that older, more experienced participants would prefer Considerate leaders over Initiating Structure leaders (Halpin, 1957), they found that less experienced participants preferred Considerate leaders, whereas the more experienced participants preferred Initiating Structure leaders. When experience was controlled for, age had no significant effect on leadership preferences.

Cognitive Styles and Ideal Leadership Style Preferences

Fiedler's Contingency Model (1972, 1974), postulating that workers' preferred leadership style is directly related to the similarity between the cognitive level of the leader and the follower, has generated a moderate amount of research. Four studies have directly examined workers' cognitive styles in relation to ideal leadership style preferences. In the most recent study (Kagan, 1989), 56 female and 24 male elementary school teachers were asked to identify their ideal leadership style preferences in a school principal. Cognitive styles were defined as "an individual's characteristic way of perceiving and organizing information about people and events" (p. 298). Results indicated that teachers with nonanalytic cognitive styles preferred relationally-oriented principals; conversely, task-oriented principals were preferred by teachers employing analytical styles of thinking. These findings should be considered tentative in that the instruments used to operationalize the cognitive complexity construct (Inquiry Mode Questionnaire, Harriet & Bramson, 1977) and preferred leadership styles (Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire: Brown, 1967; different from the reputable Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire; Halpin, 1957) are obscure instruments, have not been widely used in the literature, and were not presented with accompanying validity and reliability information.

Personal History Variables and Ideal Leadership Style Preferences

Johnson and Adermann (1979), in an attempt to more fully understand the relation among demographic variables and ideal leadership style preferences, surveyed 200 male potential leaders. Two "family of origin" variables (participants with parents who frequently invited guests to home during childhood and who reported confidence in jobs requiring strong interpersonal relations) were reported to be significantly related to

preferences for Initiating Structure leadership style. However, alpha levels were not appropriately adjusted to account for their 30 post hoc statistical tests.

Bhushan (1968; cited in Johnson & Aderman, 1979) reported that middle aged males and females living in urban areas expressed greater preferences for democratic leadership styles; however, two years later these findings were not replicated (Bhushan, 1970). Bhushan and Verman (1972, cited in Johnson & Aderman, 1979) continued to explore potential predictive variables by examining socioeconomic status, sibling position, and marital status; participants who were either the middle or eldest sibling and were categorized as higher SES were found to prefer democratic behavior.

Ethnicity and Ideal Leadership Style Preferences

Researchers have investigated ideal leadership preferences of participants from various cultural backgrounds but up to this point have not used ethnicity as an independent or mediating variable: for example, Chelladurai's (1983) participants were Canadian male athletes; Ejiogu's (1985) participants were Nigerian teachers; Neil and Kirby's (1985) participants were French male and female rowers; and Singer and Singer's (1986) participants were male undergraduates from New Zealand. Punnett (1991), however, used cultural values as an independent variable in comparing ideal leadership preferences between Anglophone and Francophone mid-management workers. Although these two groups were found to differ in their cultural values, no significant differences in ideal leadership preferences were found.

Gender and Ideal Leadership Style Preferences

Research examining the relation between gender and workers' ideal leadership style preferences is scant. Of the seven studies comprising the workers' ideal leadership style body of literature, only two included gender as an a priori or post hoc independent variable (Ejiogu, 1985; Neil & Kirby, 1985).

Although these studies were atheoretical with regard to the variable gender and very weak in their methodology, their results are described below.

Sports psychologists Neil and Kirby (1985) explored preferences for ideal coaching styles using a sample of 94 male and 111 female rowers and paddlers. Using factorial analysis, five clusters corresponding to different coaching styles were identified: Benevolent, Training, Authoritarian, Democratic and Laissez-faire. Next, they tested for potential gender differences for each item in each cluster. Although gender differences for the Benevolent leadership style were reported, a closer analysis reveals that a significant gender difference was found for only one of eight items included in the Benevolent leadership style cluster. On this item, men reported a significantly greater preference for the coach who drew "a definite line between him or herself and the team. . . and less need for an approachable, interpersonally-oriented coach" (p. 14). These results are interesting and tend to support this study's hypothesis that female workers will prefer relationally-oriented leaders more than male workers

Ejiogu (1985) identified the leadership style preferences of 196 Nigerian male and female secondary school teachers by asking them to imagine and describe their ideal leader using a Stogdill's (1963) modified version of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire. Although results were not statistically significant, Ejiogu reported a strong trend for male teachers to prefer Initiating Structure (task-oriented) leadership behaviors more than female teachers; conversely, there was a strong trend for female teachers to prefer Considerate leadership behaviors more than their male colleagues.

These two studies lend some support to this study's two gender difference hypotheses, however both are limited due to weak instrumentation. Although both researchers ostensibly measured the same outcome variable (ideal

preferences for leadership style), less reliable measures of the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (Halpin, 1957) were used. Ejiogu (1985) used a revised LBDQ (Stogdill, 1963) that divides leadership behavior into twelve subscales, whereas Neil and Kirby (1985) used an obscure form of the LBDQ tailored for athletes (Chelladurai & Saleh, 1978). Neil and Kirby further compromised their results by using cluster analysis to determine five different types of leadership styles. Consequently, results were based on scales without supporting external validity. Furthermore, Neil and Kirby failed to account for the number of t-tests by adjusting their alpha levels and Ejiogu's (1985) differences were not statistically significant.

The inconclusive findings derived from these two studies are limited, demonstrating the need for research using 1) reputable instruments, 2) solid statistical analysis, 3) more representative samples of American men and women of different ages, ethnic backgrounds, occupational groups, and 4) theoretically based mediating variables.

Affiliation needs and Ideal Leadership Style Preferences

According to Bass (1985; 1997), the transformational leader is one who motivates workers by heightening awareness of the value of organizational goals and by meeting workers' psychological needs (Bass, 1985) rather than simply offering rewards for worker productivity. The transformational style of leadership is highly similar to the Consideration style of leadership in that one particular facet is Individualized Consideration for the worker. Using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ; Bass, 1985) that differentiates between transformational and transactional leaders, Singer and Singer (1986) found significant positive correlations between male New Zealand undergraduates' level of affiliation and preferences for transformational leaders. Although Singer and Singer used an exclusively male undergraduate

student sample and primarily relied on correlations, the results lend support to the hypothesis that connectedness needs may mediate the relationship between gender and leadership preferences.

Summary

This section reviewed the literature on the variables considered germane to workers' preferences in leadership styles, particularly gender and connectedness needs. Findings lend support for this study's hypotheses that gender differences in connectedness needs and ideal leadership style preferences will be found, and connectedness needs will mediate the relationship between gender and leadership style preferences.

Self-in-Relation Theory

Providing the underlying theoretical underpinnings for this study, the self-in-relation theory (Jordan, 1984; Jordan & Surrey, 1986; Lyons, 1983; Miller, 1984; Surrey, 1984) supports the hypothesis that connectedness mediates the relationship between gender and leadership style preferences. Therefore, a brief overview of the theory including conceptual foundations, key constructs and major theoretical assumptions is presented to justify the hypothesis that the level of connectedness will significantly mediate the relation between gender and the ideal leadership style preference of Consideration and Initiating Structure.

Theoretical Postulations

In recent decades, many clinicians, theorists, and scholars from various psychological domains (e.g., Guisinger & Blatt, 1994; Markus & Oyserman, 1989) have questioned the traditional Western belief that the development of a sense of self as independent from others is a "prerequisite to becoming a developed and well-adjusted adult" (Rude & Burnham, 1995, p. 324). In contrast to this view, self-in-relation theorists postulate that a healthy self concept naturally

originates within the context of interpersonal connections through the parent-child bonding process. Conceptually, this primary relationship is one in which two human beings learn to relate responsively with one another in a psychologically meaningful way. Ideally, the caregiver responds to the emotional needs of the infant while the infant concurrently responds to the caregiver (Miller, 1991). As the infant increasingly copies the responsive mother (or father), the child gradually views his or herself as a "being in relationship" (Miller, 1984, p. 3). This internal representation of connection with another human being is imperative in the early development of a self schema. As the infant emotionally experiences the caregiver's feelings, the caregiver intellectually and intuitively experiences the infant's feelings and needs. This complex and dynamic process is ongoing, even when the caregiver and infant are physically separated. Using the basic interpersonal processes of engagement, mutual empathy and mutual empowerment, "Girls learn to grow in relationship through healthy interaction with their mothers and other significant people" (Surrey, 1991, p. 167).

This experience is not necessarily unique to female infants in relation with their mothers. Frequently, however, the parents' deep internalization of stereotypical beliefs regarding male and female differences adversely affects the responsive exchange of emotions between caregivers and sons, often becoming increasingly noticeable as childhood progresses. Although the young female infant may be reinforced for connectedness with the caregiver, the male infant is often encouraged to individuate from the caregiver and develop interpersonal independence (Miller, 1984). In contrast, for boys, the process of emotionally and physically detaching from caregiver is seen as crucial for "the development of the independent, self-reliant, and courageous soldier, explorer, thinker, achiever, or worker" (Surrey, 1991, p. 168). More so

than for girls, boys are socialized in early childhood to disconnect from both mother and father, to forsake the security experienced within the context of attachment to and with mother, and to suppress the open expression of emotions (Surrey, 1991). Therefore girls are afforded more opportunities than boys for using and solidifying their interdependent orientations and consequently throughout their life experience more encouragement to reciprocally interact with others in a mutually empowering manner (Surrey, 1991). Unfortunately, Western society has undervalued women's capacity for interdependent connectedness and granted "greater importance to self-development than to interpersonal relatedness, stressing the development of autonomy, independence, and identity as central factors in the mature personality (Guisinger & Blatt, 1994, p. 104), resulting "in the pathologizing of individuals (often women) who place a high priority on the maintenance of close, mutually supportive relationships" (Rude & Burnham, 1995, p. 323).

These theoretical postulations have been supported by highly respected clinicians who have worked with both women and men in long-term psychotherapeutic relationships (e.g., Kaplan, 1991; Stiver, 1991) and by Carol Gilligan (1982) who has conducted qualitative research with girls and women. However, this theory has not been sufficiently supported through quantitative research. One reason for the dearth of objective, empirical support may be the underlying belief among many feminist scholars that quantifiable data fail to sufficiently illuminate the deep complexities of early relational experiences. Another reason is the lack of time-efficient instruments with high levels of reliability and validity. In the last decade, scholars have begun addressing this latter issue by developing instruments specifically designed to measure the primary construct postulated in the self-in-relation theory: connectedness (e.g., Connectedness Scale, Welch, 1997; Relationship Self

Inventory, Pearson, Reinhart, Strommen, Donelson, Barnes, Blank, Cebollero, Cornwell, & Kamptner, manuscript).

As a result of these recent efforts, quantitative data have appeared in support of gender differences in needs for connection. For example, in the validation of the RSI, Pearson et al., (manuscript) compared male and females' scores on the two primary subscales, Connectedness and Separate Self orientations. The Connected Self subscale measures the degree to which relationships are significant in their lives, whereas the Separate Self subscale measures the degree to which autonomy and achievement are important within the context of interpersonal connections. In a validation study by Pearson et al., participants included high school students, undergraduate students, and adults (N=1109). Women scored higher than men on the Connected Self orientation and conversely men scored higher than women on the Separate Self orientation subscales.

Welch (1997) made a major contribution toward the goal of empirically exploring the self-in-relation theory's construct of connectedness. Using highly sophisticated test development procedures, she developed the Connectedness Scale, designed "to capture a dimension of self-construal and interpersonal style in which the individual is oriented toward valuing and making close interpersonal connections, and in which the self is defined, to an important extent, in terms of relationships with others" (Welch, 1997, p. 54). Additionally, during the test construction she provided the first empirical support that gender differences in connectedness needs exist: from her sample of 574 college students, she found that young women (mean age = 23.4) expressed significantly higher needs for connection than the men.

In sum, the research is beginning to empirically support the postulation that women, partially as a result of their early socialization experiences with

their primary caretaker, will tend to experience and express the need for connection more so than their male counterparts. Such empirical support suggests that women may carry these “healthy connectedness” needs with them into the work environment and express greater preferences for supervisors who create, foster, and maintain a work environment built on meaningful interpersonal connections.

In sum, the self-in-relation theory’s basic tenet regarding gender differences in connectedness needs supports this study’s primary hypothesis that differences in needs for connectedness between males and females will mediate the relationship between workers’ gender and their ideal leadership style preferences. In other words, because females are socialized to value connections with others and to incorporate relationships into their overall sense of self, women within the workplace will tend to prefer leaders employing a relational style (Considerate) of leadership more than men.

Summary

In this chapter, research pertaining to leadership behaviors and the relevant worker characteristics related to workers’ ideal leadership style preferences was presented. The leadership theories and quantitative research strongly suggest that there are individual differences among workers that affect their ideal leadership style preferences, however this particular body of literature is incomplete and methodologically unsophisticated. Many important research questions remain unanswered. For example, even though the majority of the studies have simply explored between-group differences, until this present study we did not know if gender differences existed among male and female non-management workers in their preferences for different leadership styles. This study tested the hypothesis that gender differences among workers do exist. When the hypothesized gender differences were

found, this study went significantly beyond this between-group difference by investigating a theoretically justifiable mediating variable, the need for connection, which helped explain the relationship between gender of workers and their preferences for leadership behaviors.

As revealed in this chapter, most of the empirical research has been exploratory and atheoretical. In this chapter, the self-in-relation theory was presented to theoretically justify this study's hypothesis that the differences in connectedness needs (assumed to be at least partially created by gender socialization) among male and female workers will account for the variance in male and female workers' preferences for "Considerate" and "Initiating Structure" leadership styles. The self-in-relation theory has had few empirical studies directly testing one of its basic tenets; nevertheless, because it postulates reasons underlying differences in connectedness needs for men and women, it provides a meaningful theoretical framework through which psychologists can begin to understand how connectedness needs may impact workers' ideal preferences for leadership styles within the workplace.

Chapter 3

METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the overall design and methods employed in this investigation: the recruitment of participants, the demographic characteristics of the sample, procedures for data collection, instruments for measuring the independent and dependent variables, a description of the potential confounding variables, and data analyses procedures employed to accept or reject this study's hypotheses.

Participants

Recruitment of participants. The sample in this study was restricted to workers who were employed part or full-time and had at least one immediate supervisor. To more effectively represent the American working population and to increase the variance of the demographic, independent and dependent variables, the sample population was drawn from four sources, three organizations and an additional sample of African American workers employed by a variety of organizations. The three midwestern organizations were differently sized and employed workers with a wide range of occupations; a county mental health agency; a city utilities company; and a large, privately owned hardware equipment organization. Employees in the county and city organizations resided in the state of Michigan, whereas employees in the privately owned company resided in ten states throughout the midwest, east, and south. The fourth source consisted of acquaintances, friends or relatives

of ten graduate research assistants recruited to distribute sixty surveys each to African- American adults who met the investigation's criteria: 1) currently supervised by a leader/supervisor, and 2) currently employed part or full-time. Although these participants were not employed by the three organizations making up the majority of the sample, this method of recruiting additional subjects was deemed appropriate and necessary for exploring issues related to race and ethnicity.

Entry into the three organizations was made through my telephone and personal contacts with Human Resource Directors. Following these initial contacts, introductory informative letters were sent to the respective directors explaining the purpose of the study (Appendix A). Meetings were subsequently scheduled in which procedures were more fully described. Directors were informed that participation would involve distribution of survey packets to all employees meeting the study's criteria. The incentive for the organization was a complete analysis of results, implications for their organization, and suggestions for future leadership training experiences.

Sample and Response Rate

A total of 4604 complete surveys were distributed: 1199 surveys were returned; of these, 57 surveys were incomplete and deemed unacceptable for the study, leaving a total sample size of 1137 employees. This return (including the incomplete questionnaires) represented an overall response rate of 26% which was disappointing but within the standards of acceptability in organizational survey research when 1) individual packets are not addressed to individual workers; and 2) when follow-up reminders are not an option (these limitations were an organizational requirement in ensuring complete anonymity). In similar single-wave questionnaire mailing studies, response rates between 10-25% have commonly been reported (Green, Tull, &

Albaum, 1988; Peterson, 1988): e.g., in a similar study of employees' leadership preferences, Singer & Singer (1990) reported a 21.6 % response rate.

As anticipated, response rates significantly varied among the three organizations. As seen in Table 1, response rates from the three organizations and diversity sample were 75%, 40%, 22%, and 25%. The organization with the highest educated employees and highest amount of familiarity with questionnaires (Community Mental Health agency) had a significantly higher response rate than the other three sample groups.

Table 1

Distribution of Surveys

Organization	Total Number of Surveys Distributed	Total Number of Surveys Returned	Total Number of Usable Surveys	Return Rate
Sales/Retail Organization	3300	714	684	22%
	Data unavailable from organization		Female=56.2% Male=43.8% AA=1.9% AsA=0% EurA=89.1% Hisp=.7% NA=6.2%	
City Utilities Organization	650	262	242	40%
	Female=24% Male=76% AA=13% AsA=1% Cauc=81% Hisp=4% NatAm=0% Other=0%		Female=31% Male=69% AA=12.5% AsA=.8% Cauc=78.3% Hisp=3.3% NatAm=2.1% Other=2.9%	
Additional Diversity Sample Group	534	133	128	25%
	Female=No Data Male=No Data Research assistants were instructed to only pass out questionnaires to African- Americans.		Female=73 % Male=27% *Data from participants other than African- American were not included in this study	

Table 1 (cont'd)

County Community Mental Health	120	90	83	75%
	Female=71% Male=29%		Female=75.6% Male=24.4%	
	AA=0% AsA=0% Cauc=94% Hisp=1% NatAm=1% Other=4%		AA=0% AsA=0% Cauc=94.0% Hisp=1.2% NatAm=3.6% Other=1.2%	
Totals	4604	1199	1137	26%

Demographic Characteristics of Sample. A 13-item questionnaire (Appendix D) was used to gather demographic information. Information was obtained on the following: age, gender, race/ethnicity, marital/partnership status, educational level, and current occupation. Additionally, respondents were asked to identify the number of years employed in their current position, the number of years employed by their respective organization, the supervisory nature of their position (non-supervisory position, first-level supervisory position, middle manager, upper level supervisory position, other), their financial compensation schedule (hourly or salary), their preference or lack of preference for either a female or male supervisor, and number of weekly hours of work-related contact with their immediate supervisor (e.g., verbal communication, staff meetings, informal discussions, e-mail, phone contact, etc.).

For at least two of the three organizations, the demographics of the respondents were similar to the overall organizational demographics which increases the extent to which generalizations about these organizations can be drawn. For example, the similarities seen in Table 1 suggest that the number of female participants was proportionate to the number of females in two of the organizations. Unfortunately, data for the largest company was unavailable due to the organization's decision to not release information regarding the percentages of ethnic representation within their organization.

Table 2 shows the wide range of demographic characteristics in the organizational sample (N=1137). Additionally, males and females are approximately equally represented. Even though a strong attempt was made to have an increased percentage of minority workers, most respondents were European-American (78%). The mean age was 38.9, ranging from 16 to 75 years of age. As was my intent, the sample group's educational level was representative of the American working population, with most (75%) possessing less than a bachelor's degree and less than half (46%) reporting a combined household income between \$25,000-59,999. The majority of respondents (70%) reported that they were married or currently residing with their partner. Participants resided in ten different states throughout the midwest, east, and south.

Table 2

Demographic Characteristics of Total Sample

Demographic Variables	N	%
<u>Gender</u>		
Female	610	53.6
Male	516	45.4
Missing responses	11	1.0
<u>Ethnicity</u>		
African American	144	12.7
Asian	5	.4
European-American	888	78.1
Hispanic	19	1.7
Native American	50	4.4
Other	24	2.1
Missing responses	7	.6
<u>Organization</u>		
Sales/Retail	684	60.2
City Utilities	242	21.3
Diversity Sample	128	11.3
Mental Health	83	7.3
<u>Years in Current Position</u>		
Less than 1 year	261	23.0
1-3 years	417	36.7
4-6 years	163	14.3
7-10 years	134	11.8
11-20 years	126	11.1
21 years or more	32	2.8
Missing responses	4	.4
<u>Years employed by company</u>		
Less than 1 year	204	17.9
1-3 years	312	27.4
4-6 years	159	14.0
7-10 years	126	11.1
11-20 years	226	19.9
21 years or more	107	9.4
Missing responses	3	.3

Table 2 (cont'd)

Relationship Status

Single	336	29.6
Married/Partnered	796	70.0
Missing responses	5	.4

Education

Some high school	62	5.5
High school diploma	338	29.7
Some college	321	28.2
Associates degree	131	11.5
Bachelors degree	198	17.4
Master's degree	60	5.3
Doctoral degree	9	.8
Missing responses	18	1.6

Combined Household
Income

Under \$7,499	91	8.0
\$7,500-14,999	90	7.9
\$15,000-24,999	153	13.5
\$25,000-39,999	242	21.3
\$40,000-59,999	276	24.3
\$60,000-89,000	188	16.5
Over \$90,000	77	6.8
Missing responses	20	1.8

Occupation

Administrative support/Clerical	146	12.8
Sales, business goods & services	57	5.0
Handler/Laborer	152	13.4
Administration/Manager	139	12.2
Professional service provider	106	9.3
Mechanic/Repairer	60	5.3
Sales/Retail	289	25.4
Machine operator/ Assembler/Inspector	17	1.5
Other	152	13.4
Missing responses	19	1.7

Supervisory nature of
position

Table 2 (cont'd)

Non-supervisory	718	63.1
First level	272	23.9
Middle manager	61	5.4
Upper level manager	16	1.4
Other	60	5.3
Missing responses	10	.9
<u>Pay Schedule</u>		
Salaried	358	31.5
Hourly	766	67.4
Missing responses	13	1.1
<u>Leader Gender Preference</u>		
Female	100	8.8
Male	261	23.0
No Preference	767	67.5
Missing responses	9	.8
<u>Variable</u>	<u>Mean</u>	<u>SD</u>
Age	38.88	11.53

Table 3

Demographic Variables Within Sample Groups

Variable	Sales/Retail Sample	Utilities Sample	Diversity Sample	Mental Health Sample
<u>Gender</u>				
Female	56.2%	31.3%	73.0%	75.6%
Male	43.8%	68.8%	27.0%	24.4%
<u>Ethnicity</u>				
African American	1.9%	12.5%	79.5%	
Asian		.8%	2.4%	
European-American	89.1%	78.3%	12.6%	94.0%
Hispanic	.7%	3.3%	3.9%	1.2%
Native American	6.2%	2.1%		3.6%
Other	2.1%	2.9%	1.6%	1.2%
<u>Years in Current Position</u>				
Less than 1 year	30.1%	5.8%	28.9%	6.0%
1-3 years	44.4%	19.8%	30.5%	33.7%
4-6 years	11.9%	13.6%	17.2%	32.5%
7-10 years	7.2%	24.4%	7.8%	19.3%
11-20 years	5.1%	29.3%	10.2%	8.4%
21 years or more	1.2%	7.0%	5.5%	
<u>Years employed by company</u>				
Less than 1 years	24.8%	2.1%	21.9%	2.4%
1-3 years	35.3%	5.8%	31.3%	20.5%
4-6 years	15.1%	5.4%	14.1%	30.1%
7-10 years	7.5%	15.4%	10.2%	30.1%
11-20 years	13.8%	41.5%	14.8%	15.7%
21 years or more	3.5%	29.9%	7.8%	1.2%
<u>Relationship Status</u>				
Single	27.4%	21.3%	59.1%	27.7%
Married/Partnered	72.6%	78.8%	40.9%	72.3%

Table 3 (cont'd)

Education

Some high school	7.7%	.4%	6.3%	1.2%
High school diploma	43.9%	8.9%	10.9%	9.6%
Some college	26.5%	39.8%	26.6%	18.1%
Associates degree	9.1%	23.7%	3.9%	10.8%
Bachelors degree	11.6%	23.3%	31.3%	30.1%
Master's degree	1.0%	3.4%	15.6%	30.1%
Doctoral degree		.4%	5.5%	

CombinedHousehold Income

Under \$7,499	9.6%	.4%	20.5%	
\$7,500-14,999	11.9%		7.9%	
\$15,000-24,999	18.4%	.4%	15.0%	12.2%
\$25,000-39,999	25.4%	8.0%	22.8%	29.3%
\$40,000-59,999	23.3%	34.0%	16.5%	22.0%
\$60,000-89,000	8.8%	39.9%	9.4%	26.8%
Over \$90,000	2.7%	17.2%	7.9%	9.8%

Occupation

Administrative support/Clerical	9.8 %	13.8%	23.2%	22.2%
Sales, business goods & services	5.2%	5.9%	6.4%	
Handler/Laborer	18.0%	10.0%	4.8%	1.2%
Administration/Manager	11.7%	13.8%	12.0%	14.8%
Professional service provider	.4%	7.1%	31.2%	58.0%
Mechanic/Repairer	4.2%	12.6%	1.6%	
Sales/Retail	42.1%	.4%	4.0%	
Machine operator/Assembler/Inspector	.3%	5.9%	.8%	
Other	8.3%	30.5%	16.0%	3.7%

Supervisory nature of position

Non-supervisory	62.9%	66.9%	64.8%	59.0%
First level	25.9%	20.5%	16.8%	31.3%
Middle manager	4.9%	6.3%	5.6%	7.2%
Upper level manager	.9%	1.7%	3.2%	2.4%
Other	5.4%	4.6%	9.6%	

Table 3 (cont'd)

<u>Pay Schedule</u>				
Salaried	16.1%	46.2%	52.4%	88.0%
Hourly	83.9%	53.8%	47.6%	12.0%
<u>Leader Gender Preference</u>				
Female	6.5%	8.3%	19.0%	14.5%
Male	23.1%	24.6%	30.2%	8.4%
No Preference	70.4%	67.1%	50.8%	77.1%
<u>Mean Age</u>	37.67	43.33		42.45

Table 4

Distribution of Demographic Variables Across Samples

Variable	Sales/Retail Sample	Utilities Sample	Diversity Sample	Mental Health Sample
<u>Gender</u>				
Female	381	75	92	62
Male	297	165	34	20
<u>Ethnicity</u>				
African-American	13	30	101	
European-American	606	188	16	78
Asian/Pacific Islander		2	3	
Hispanic	5	8	5	1
Native American	42	5		3
Other	14	7	2	1
<u>Years in Current Position</u>				
Less than 1 year	205	14	37	5
1-3 years	302	48	39	28
4-6 years	81	33	22	27
7-10 years	49	59	10	16
11-20 years	35	71	13	7
21 years or more	8	17	7	

Table 4 (cont'd)

<u>Years employed by company</u>				
1-3 years	241	14	40	17
4-6 years	103	13	18	25
7-10 years	51	37	13	25
11-20 years	94	100	19	13
21 years or more	24	72	10	1
<u>Relationship Status</u>				
Single	187	51	75	23
Married/Partnered	495	189	52	60
<u>Education</u>				
Some high school	52	1	8	1
High school diploma	295	21	14	8
Some college	178	94	34	15
Associates degree	61	56	5	9
Bachelors degree	78	55	40	25
Master's degree	7	8	20	25
Doctoral degree	1	1	7	
<u>Combined Household Income</u>				
Under \$7,499	64	1	26	
\$7,500-14,999	80		10	
\$15,000-24,999	123	1	19	10
\$25,000-39,999	170	19	29	24
\$40,000-59,999	156	81	21	18
\$60,000-89,000	59	95	12	22
Over \$90,000	18	41	10	8

Table 4 (cont'd)

<u>Occupation</u>				
Administrative support/Clerical	66	33	29	18
Sales, business goods & services	35	14	8	
Handler/Laborer	121	24	6	1
Administration/Manager	79	33	15	12
Professional service provider	3	17	39	47
Mechanic/Repairer	28	30	2	
Sales/Retail	283	1	5	
Machine operator/Assembler/Inspector	2	14	1	
Other	56	73	20	3
<u>Supervisory nature of position</u>				
Non-supervisory	428	160	81	49
First level	176	49	21	26
Middle manager	33	15	7	6
Upper level manager	6	4	4	2
Other	37	11	12	
<u>Pay Schedule</u>				
Salaried	109	110	66	73
Hourly	568	128	60	10
<u>Leader Gender Preference</u>				
Female	44	20	24	12
Male	157	59	38	7
No Preference	478	161	64	64

Procedures

Within each organization or agency, at least one individual employed full-time as a Human Resource Director or Organizational Consultant served as a liaison and assisted with the distribution of the surveys. First, surveys were distributed to supervisors who were asked to distribute them to their subordinates within the organization. These supervisors were asked to return undistributed surveys to the liaison, who subsequently returned them to me which increased the accuracy of the distribution records.

The complete set of materials received by each employee included the following: a) a cover letter explaining the purpose and voluntary nature of the study, the participants' complete anonymity, and the \$300.00 participation incentive (Appendix J); b) a six-page questionnaire comprised of items from the Manifest Needs Questionnaire's affiliation subscale, Adjective Checklist's affiliation subscale, Connectedness Scale, Relationship Self-Inventory, Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire; c) a 12 X 16 white business reply envelope with my university's address.

As a participation incentive, materials were sealed within an 18 x 32 white envelopes boldly marked EMPLOYEE QUESTIONNAIRE (PLEASE COMPLETE ENCLOSED QUESTIONNAIRE & BE ELIGIBLE FOR A \$300.00 DRAWING). Upon completion of the survey, participants were asked to return the survey to me in the stamped, addressed business reply envelope and to separately mail their name and address (to ensure confidentiality) for the \$300.00 drawing.

Measures

In addition to the demographic questionnaire, participants were asked to complete five measures. A complete description of these instruments, including test development, reliability, validity, and scoring procedures, is presented in this section.

Connectedness Scale (CS). The Connectedness Scale (Welch, 1997) is a 50-item, self-report, paper-and-pencil instrument that measures the self-in-relation's theoretical construct of connectedness (or relatedness). This scale is composed of fifty Likert-scaled items with scores ranging from 50-250 (Appendix F). Responses indicate the degree to which respondents are interested in connecting with others in healthy interpersonal relationships. For this study, responses were given the numerical value from 0 to 4, respectively, and summed to determine the respondents' Connectedness Scale score.

Welch (1997) developed and validated this scale over two research studies using 765 subjects from the University of Texas Educational Psychology subject pool. This instrument appears to be highly reliable with a reported Cronbach alpha coefficient of .95. Welch (1997) reports that the Connectedness Scale has low (and negative) correlations with measures of self-criticism, depression, and neediness which helps differentiate relatedness from an unhealthy dependency. Additionally, Welch reports high positive correlations with measures of empathy, intimacy, expressiveness. Significant gender differences were found: the mean scores and standard deviations for men and women in her sample were 141.53 (SD = 25.83) and 151.24 (SD = 21.94) respectively.

Relationship Self Inventory (RSI). The RSI (Pearson et al.) serves as a secondary measure for the primary independent variable of connectedness which will help ensure that the "essence" of the connectedness construct has been captured and to reduce the threat of mono-method bias (Heppner, Kivlighan, & Wampold, 1993);

The RSI is a 60-item self-report, paper-and-pencil instrument comprised of four subscales, representing four different components of Gilligan's (1982)

and Lyons (1983) Separate and Connected Selves characterized by the justice voice and care voice respectively. The RSI was designed to make inferences regarding these constructs.

For this study, only the RSI's Connected self subscale was used. The Connected Self scale is a 12-item scale consists of five-point Likert-scaled items with total scores ranging from 5 to 60. The total scores are divided by 12 to obtain an average item score. The mean score for this subscale is 4.1 with a standard deviation of .51. Brouwer (1996) reported a Cronbach alpha coefficient of .76 that was based on her sample of 930 women between the ages 16 and 78.

Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ): Ideal Preference version. The two dimensions of ideal leadership style preferences were operationalized by the Ideal Preference version of the LBDQ (Halpin, 1957), the most extensively used instrument in leadership research (Landy, 1989). The LBDQ has been employed in many organizational research studies due to its behavioral specificity with regard to leadership behaviors, the small amount of time needed for participants to complete the instrument, and evidence of adequate reliability and validity. This 40-item, self-report, paper-and-pencil instrument contains two scales, describing the Consideration and Initiating Structure dimensions of leadership style. The two scales are moderately correlated (correlations ranging between .20 and .30) but possess statistically significant discriminating capacities, thus allowing for the use of the two scales as measures of different leadership behaviors (Halpin & Winer, 1957).

Each scale is composed of fifteen 0-4 point Likert-scaled items for each of the two constructs (Appendix E). Responses indicate the degree to which respondents would like his or her ideal leader to engage in these behaviors by

marking always, often, occasionally, seldom, or never. Responses were given the numerical value from 0 to 4, respectively, and summed to determine the respondents' two dimensions of preferred leadership style. The score for each dimension is the total for the respective 15 items. Ten items are not scored but retained to replicate standardization process. The range of scores for each dimension is 0 to 60; the means and standard deviations for the Initiating Structure and Consideration scales from the original norming sample are 39.9 (5.0) and 43.6 (7.3) respectively.

Respondents who score high on the Considerate scale prefer a leader who exhibits mutual trust, respect, concern for workers' needs and seeks to establish warmth and rapport between him or herself and workers (Fleishman & Harris, 1962; Halpin, 1957); conversely, lower scores are associated with workers less interested in these relationally centered traits. Respondents who score high on the Initiating Structure dimension prefer a leader who values task completion and productivity and thus exerts a traditional type of authority over employees by defining their work roles, assigning tasks, establishing strategies for task (Fleishman & Harris, 1962); workers who score low on this scale are less interested in a leadership style that includes these task-structured behaviors.

With normative data gathered from a sample of 395 male aircraft commanders and 64 male educational administrators, Cronbach alpha coefficients of 75.7 and 81.2 were reported for the Initiating Structure and Consideration scales respectively (Stogdill, 1969). Although Halpin failed to report a test-retest reliability coefficient in his original description of the instrument, several researchers have reported test-retest reliability coefficients between .57 and .72 for the Initiation of Structure scale and coefficients between .71 and .79 for the Consideration scale (e.g., Greene, 1975;

Wilkes, 1992). Split-half reliability scores of .83 and .92 for the Initiating Structure and Consideration scales were reported by Halpin (1959).

Adjective Check List (ACL). For this particular study, the affiliation subscale is included to assess convergent validity with the recently developed Connectedness Scale (Welch, 1997). The Adjective Check List (Gough, 1983) is a 300-item, self-report, paper-and-pencil instrument comprised of 37 subscales, including 15 need scales. The ACL, widely used in over 700 personality and career research studies (Buros, 1978), was developed to measure personality attributes and needs. Each subscale is composed of several adjectives and adjectival phrases. The participant is asked to read the adjectives “quickly” and mark the one that they feel is self-descriptive.

The ACL affiliation subscale is a 34-item adjective list. Marked responses indicate the degree to which participants feel the adjectives are self-descriptive. High affiliation scores are associated with a stronger need to seek and maintain relationships with others whereas lower scores are associated with lower interpersonal needs. The range of Affiliation scores is between 0 and 34; the mean score for males is 17.96 and 19.95 for females with reported standard deviations of 7.39 and 7.21 respectively (Gough, 1983).

The ACL has been employed in many career development research studies due to its versatility, strong reliability and validity scores. The affiliation subscale has been shown to be psychometrically sound. Gough (1983) reported a test-reliability coefficient of .60 for males and .66 for females based on data gathered from a sample of 199 males (military officers, college students and premedical students) and 45 females (college students) 6 months and 12 months respectively following the first administration of the instrument. Gough (1983) reported a Cronbach alpha coefficient of .89 and .87 for males and females respectively that was based on their samples of 591 males and 588

females who were drawn from their normative sample of 9382 (high school students, college students, graduate students, medical students, delinquents, psychiatric patients and adults). These internal reliability coefficients are well within the level of .70 recommended for research instruments (Heppner, Kivlighan, & Wampold, 1993; Nunnally, 1978).

Gough (1983) established construct validity by measuring the relationship among the 37 subscales and several variables from other personality inventories. Affiliation needs were negatively correlated with MMPI's social introversion scales and positively correlated with the California Psychological Inventory's sociability scale. Information regarding convergent and discriminant validity and behavioral correlations with subscale scores was not reported.

Manifest Needs Questionnaire (MNQ). For this study, the Manifest Needs Questionnaire's affiliation subscale (Steers & Braunstein, 1976) was also included to assess convergent validity with the Connectedness Scale (Welch, 1997). The MNQ is a 20-item, self-report, paper-and-pencil instrument comprised of four subscales, representing four different needs of workers: achievement (nAff), affiliation (nAff), autonomy(nAut), and dominance (nDom). The MNQ, based on Murray's (1938) personality theory of needs and is widely used in organizational and career research (Chusmir & Koberg, 1989; Harvey & France, 1987), to make inferences regarding workers' needs from related behaviors within the context of work. Each scale is composed of five Likert-scaled items for each of the four constructs with scores ranging from 5 to 35.

The nAff subscale is a five-item questionnaire scored on a 7-point Likert-scale ranging from "Never" to "Always." Responses indicate the degree to which each of the five statements is self-descriptive. The mean score for the

nAff is 4.1 with a standard deviation of .61 (Steers & Braunstein, 1978). High affiliation scores are associated with workers who possess a stronger desire to form friendships, cooperate with others, and who are interested in satisfying and remaining loyal to friends. Lower scores are associated with workers less interested in these relationally centered traits (Murray, 1938).

The MNQ has been employed in many organizational research studies due to its specificity with regard to work behaviors, the small amount of time needed for participants to complete the instrument, and evidence of adequate test-retest reliabilities, internal consistencies, and convergent, discriminant and predictive validity (Steers & Braunstein, 1978).

Steer and Braunstein reported a test-reliability coefficient of .75 for the nAff based on data gathered from a sample of 41 subjects 2 weeks following the first administration of the instrument. They reported a low Cronbach alpha coefficient of .56 that was based on their sample of 96 management students; however, alpha coefficients ranging between .56 and .75 were reported in an extensive study by Chusmir (1988) who examined the internal consistency of the MNQ subscales in 14 studies; with reservations, Chusmir found coefficients that were closer to the level of internal reliability of .70 recommended for research instruments (Heppner, Kivlighan, & Wampold, 1993; Nunnally, 1978).

Steers and Braunstein (1976) established construct validity by measuring the relationship between the four subscales and several work-related criteria. Affiliation needs were positively correlated with work attendance and various job attitudes including commitment, involvement, satisfaction with the workplace. The authors (Steers & Braunstein, 1976) established adequate levels of convergent and discriminant validity by comparing the MNQ subscale scores with scores on the Personality Research Form (Buros, 1978; Jackson, 1967) and by cross-validating the subscales with independently sorted work

behaviors. The nAff scores behaviorally correlated with a desire to work in a group, to help other subjects on tasks and correlated negatively with preferring individual incentives, wanting to be a group leader, playing a major role in determining group performance and controlling own workplace.

Since the initial studies, there have been concerns regarding the internal reliability of the nAff (Dreher, 1980; Mayes & Ganster, 1983). In the past decade, the n Aff subscale has been shown to be the least psychometrically sound MNQ subscale. Williams and Woodward (1980) hypothesized that the problems existing with the internal reliability were related to the mean age ($X=35$) of the original sample group and the long-tenure, managerial characteristics of the subjects. Mayes and Ganster, however, conducted a thorough analysis of the internal reliability of the MNQ and concluded that reliability varies “considerably” across samples. . . (and) attention (should) be paid to the generalizability of the MNQ, but that “there appears to be sufficient evidence that these scales measure the traits they are supposed to measure to some degree” (Mayes & Ganster, 1983, p. 124).

Data Analysis Procedures

Type I alpha was set at .05 and efforts were made to ensure that sufficient power was obtained. A minimum sample size of 45 male and 45 female respondents was needed to maintain power at .80 and an alpha .05 level of significance (Cohen, 1977). However, to present a more representative sample of American workers and to detect a smaller effect size, a sample size of at least 200 female and 200 male employees was deemed necessary to meet the .80 power requirement. With a final sample pool of 524 and 432 female and male participants respectively, sufficient power was obtained.

Reliabilities of measurements. Cronbach internal consistency coefficients were computed for all scales and subscales used in this study which included: the Connectedness Scale, RSI's Connected Self subscale, MNQ's Affiliation subscale, ACL's affiliation subscale, and each of the two LBDQ subscales. The alpha coefficients were compared with norms reported by the original scale developers (Halpin, 1957; Pearson, Reinhart, Strommen, Donelson, Barnes, Blank, Cebollero, Cornwell, & Kamptner (unpublished manuscript); Welch, 1997).

Analysis for confounding and antecedent variables. A major concern in most studies is the threat of confounding variables. To ensure that differences found on the dependent variables were related to the contribution of the independent variables in this study rather than to extraneous variables, workers were compared with respect to factors that could covary with the independent and dependent variables (Grimm & Arnold 1995). First, correlations were generated between all continuous demographic variables, the primary independent (Connectedness) and dependent variables (Consideration and Initiating Structure leadership preferences). Next, a Customized factorial ANOVA model was used to test the effect of group (categorical variable) upon the two independent variables, Consideration and Initiating Structure leadership style preferences respectively.

Additionally, because age and the experience (i.e., number of employment years) have been shown in at least two studies to covary with the outcome variables (Neil & Kirby, 1985; Stinson & Robertson, 1973), these were included in the regression analyses prior to the insertion of the primary variables under investigation. These procedures resulted in a more conservative test of the theoretical predictors since any variance explained by gender than can

also be explained by age and experience will not be attributed to the effect of gender.

Multicollinearity check. Multicollinearity occurs when there is a high degree of intercorrelation between predictor variables which subsequently decreases the accuracy in determining if each predictor is making a unique effect on the outcome. The two variables initially inserted into the regression analyses, age and experience, were investigated to check for multicollinearity. Although there was a moderately high correlation between these variables (.44), this correlation did not warrant the insertion of only one variable (Lewis-Beck, 1980).

Convergent validity tests. Using Pearson *r* correlations, the Connectedness Scale was examined to determine if convergent validity existed between this scale and three other instruments measuring similar constructs, which were included in this study: RSI, Adjective Checklist's affiliation subscale, and the Manifest Needs Questionnaire's affiliation subscale. Because one of this study's primary objectives was to test a basic theoretic tenet (differences in connectedness needs between males and females), the integrity of the connectedness construct was imperative. Additionally, this study was the first in which the Connectedness Scale (Welch, 1997) has been used; although it has undergone extensive convergent and discriminant validity testing, the aforementioned variables have not been examined.

Descriptive statistics. Descriptive statistics were generated on all demographic and observed variables. Additionally, bivariate correlations among all variables were completed. These correlational analyses, which were done on data from each organization and on the aggregated data, were important in examining differences in leadership style preferences among

participants from different ethnic, educational, and socioeconomic backgrounds.

Analysis for Hypotheses Testing

Analysis for hypothesis 1. To assess gender differences in ideal preferences for a Consideration leadership style preference, a t-test between male and female scores was performed.

Analysis for hypothesis 2. To assess gender differences in ideal preferences for a Initiating Structure leadership style preference, a t-test between male and female Consideration scores was performed.

Analysis for hypothesis 3. To assess gender differences in needs for connectedness, a separate t-test was performed on male and female's Connectedness Scale (CS) scores.

Analysis for hypothesis 4. To assess the relation of gender, connectedness needs, and preferences for the Initiating Structure leadership style, a hierarchical multiple regression was used (Wampold & Freund, 1987). This procedure was used to demonstrate the effect that the variable gender had upon Initiating Structure leadership style preferences when the needs for connectedness needs and other potentially confounding variables were controlled for in the analysis.

Analysis for hypothesis 5. To assess the relation of gender, connectedness needs, and preferences for the Consideration leadership style, a hierarchical multiple regression was used (Wampold & Freund, 1987). This procedure was used to demonstrate the effect that the variable gender had upon Consideration leadership style preferences when the needs for connectedness needs and other potentially confounding variables were controlled for in the analysis. (Because the two dimensions, Structure and

Consideration were shown to be independent, separate hierarchical multiple regression equations were completed for each scale.)

Post Hoc Analyses

In exploratory post hoc analyses, two-way ANOVAs were used to determine whether differences between African-American and Caucasian workers' leadership style preferences and connectedness needs were significant and whether differences were due to race or gender.

Constructing the strongest models for predicting references for Initiating Structure leadership style. Exploratory post hoc analyses were used to construct the best possible model for predicting men and women's preferences for a structured leadership style within the workplace. Using hierarchical regression analyses, the following variables were successively entered into the regression equation: group, educational level, work experience, socioeconomic status (measured by combined income), connectedness needs, and workers' preference for a relational leader (Consideration). All of these variables were previously shown (in earlier ANOVAs or the correlational matrix) to significantly influence preferences for a structured, task-oriented leader. This method allowed me to more fully understand the individual contributions of each variable in accounting for the variance as well as the amount of variance accounted for in the complete model.

Multiple regression. Four important assumptions for multiple regression inferences were investigated upon completion of the regression analyses. By visually inspecting two scatterplots with each of the two predicted Y scores on the abscissa and the residuals on the ordinate, assumptions that the variances of the dependent variables for each of the possible combinations of the levels of the predictor variables were

homogenous and that the relation between the dependent variables and the independent variables were all linear when all other independent variables were held constant were tested: no violations were observed. By visually inspecting a histogram of the residuals for the dependent variables, the assumption that the errors were normally distributed for each of the possible combinations of the predictor variables was tested. The assumption of independence was investigated logically by designing the study so that the data collection procedures ensured independence of scores (Shavelson, 1988).

Chapter 4

RESULTS

The purposes of this study were to empirically test a basic self-in-relation theoretical tenet that needs for connectedness differ between males and females and to determine if these needs account for a significant portion of the variance for workers' leadership style preferences. This chapter will present the results of the data analyses conducted to address these two research issues.

First, technical information including the reliabilities of the scales, convergent validity information for the connectedness scale, descriptive statistics, and the statistical rationale for aggregating the data are presented.

Second, the results of the t-test examining the self-in-relation's basic tenet that women have significantly higher needs for connection than men will be presented. Third, the results of the two t-tests examining differences between male and female workers' preferences for the two types of leadership styles will be examined. Finally, the results of the hierarchical multiple regression analysis determining whether the effect of workers' gender on predicting workers' ideal leadership preferences was partially mediated by workers' connectedness needs will be presented.

Preliminary Analysis

Reliabilities of measurements. Cronbach internal consistency coefficients were computed for all scales used in this study; results are

presented in Table 5. With the exception of the MNQ affiliation subscale (Steers & Braunstein, 1978), the alpha coefficients were compatible with norms reported by scale developers (Gough, 1983; Halpin, 1957; Pearson, Reinhart, Strommen, Donelson, Barnes, Blank, Cebollero, Cornwell, & Kamptner (unpublished manuscript); Welch, 1997). Because the MNQ affiliation subscale obtained an unacceptable low internal reliability coefficient of .22, it was excluded from the remaining analyses.

Table 5

Alpha coefficients measuring internal reliability of measures

Instrument	Prior Alpha Coefficients	Alpha Coefficients
Connectedness Scale (CS)	.95 (Welch, 1996)	.94
Connected Self subscale (RSI)	.76 (Brouwer, 1996)	.82
Affiliation subscale (ACL)	.87 - .89 (Gough, 1983)	.89
Affiliation subscale (MNQ)	.56 (Steers & Braunstein, 1978)	.20
Consideration subscale (LBDQ)	.81 (Stogdill, 1969)	.73
Initiating Structure subscale (LBDQ)	.76 (Stogdill, 1969)	.78

RSI = Relationship Self Inventory

ACL = Adjective Checklist

MNQ = Manifest Needs Questionnaire

LBDQ = Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire

Convergent validity testing. To determine if convergent validity existed between the Connectedness Scale and three other instruments

measuring theoretically related constructs, Pearson r correlational coefficients were computed among the Connectedness Scale, RSI Connected Self subscale, and the ACL's Affiliation subscale. (Because the MNQ affiliation subscale had obtained an unacceptable low internal reliability coefficient, it was not used for convergent validity testing.)

This study possesses a great deal of statistical power and therefore statistically significant correlations could be expected. More germane to this research, however, was the size of the correlations and not their statistical significance. As seen in Table 6, the interrelation between the Connected Self subscale (RSI) and the Connectedness Scale are highly correlated; although the ACL's Affiliation subscale obtained statistical significant, the correlation was much lower.

Table 6

Convergent Validity: Correlations between Connectedness Scale and other Related Instruments

Instruments	Correlations with Connectedness Scale
Connected Self subscale (RSI)	.66***
Affiliation subscale (ACL)	.21***

RSI = Relationship Self Inventory

ACL = Adjective Checklist

* $p \leq .05$ ** $p \leq .01$ *** $p \leq .001$

Descriptive statistics. Means and standard deviations for the measures of the observed variables used in this study, Connectedness Scale (CS), Connected Self subscale (RSI), Affiliation subscale (ACL), Consideration and Initiating Structure leadership style preferences (LBDQ), are shown in Table 7.

The means were compatible with the normative results reported by Welch (1997), Pearson, Reinhart, Strommen, Donelson, Barnes, Blank, Cebollero, Cornwell, & Kamptner (unpublished manuscript), and Stogdill (1969) respectively.

Table 7

Means, Ranges and Standard Deviations for Measures of 5 Observed Variables

Variable	Prior Mean/ Prior SD	Mean (This study)	SD
Connectedness Scale		142.89	21.03
Females	151.24/21.94	146.66	20.23
Males	141.53/25.83	138.41	21.12
RSI's Connected Self subscale		3.95	.47
Females	4.1/.51**	4.03	.46
Males	No data	3.85	.46
ACL's affiliation subscale		23.51	6.80
Females	19.95/7.21	24.36	6.53
Males	17.96/7.39	22.50	6.97
Consideration (LBDQ)		45.03	5.60
Females	No Data	45.55	5.50
Males	43.6/7.3	44.43	5.67
Initiating Structure (LBDQ)		44.21	6.41
Females	No Data	44.36	6.26
Males	39.0/5.0	44.04	6.59

Analysis for antecedent and confounding variables. Because age and the number of employment years have been shown in at least two studies to covary with the outcome variables (Neil & Kirby, 1985; Stinson & Robertson, 1973), both variables were included in the regression analyses prior to the

insertion of the primary variables under investigation. This procedure helped ensure that differences found on the outcome variable were directly related to the primary predictor variables under investigation (Wampold & Freund, 1987).

Additionally, to ensure that differences found on the dependent variables were related to the variables of interest and not confounded by other factors, workers were compared with respect to demographic variables that could covary with the independent and dependent variables (Grimm & Arnold 1995). First, correlations between the continuous demographic variables, the primary independent (Connectedness) and dependent variables (Consideration and Initiating Structure leadership preferences) were generated and examined. As shown in Table 8, correlations revealed that age and educational level were significantly negatively correlated with preferences for relational leader; experience, education level, and socioeconomic status (measured by combined income of household) were significantly and negatively correlated with preferences for a structured leader; and experience was significantly negatively correlated with connectedness needs. In other words, a) older, more educated workers were less likely to prefer relationally oriented leaders than younger, less educated workers; b) workers with more experience, higher educational levels, and higher SES levels were less likely to prefer task structured leaders; and 3) more experienced workers expressed lower connectedness needs than less experienced workers. Because of these significant correlations, these variables were included in the regression analyses prior to the insertion of the theoretical variables.

Table 8 Correlational matrix of demographic, independent, and dependent variables

	AGE	YRSEMP	EDUCLEV	COMBINC	RSI	NAFF	ACL	STRUCTUR	CONSIDR	CONNECTO
AGE	1.0000 (1059) P= .	.4222 (1059) P= .000	.0838 (1044) P= .007	.4103 (1044) P= .000	-.0395 (1053) P= .200	-.1202 (1058) P= .000	.0355 (1057) P= .249	-.0078 (1058) P= .799	-.0992 (1059) P= .001	-.0542 (1055) P= .079
YRSEMP	.4222 (1059) P= .000	1.0000 (1134) P= .	.2003 (1116) P= .000	.5430 (1116) P= .000	-.1065 (1128) P= .000	-.1462 (1132) P= .000	-.0530 (1132) P= .075	-.1442 (1132) P= .000	-.0364 (1134) P= .221	-.0707 (1130) P= .017
EDUCLEV	.0838 (1044) P= .007	.2003 (1116) P= .000	1.0000 (1119) P= .	.4046 (1100) P= .000	-.0508 (1112) P= .090	-.0575 (1117) P= .055	.0054 (1116) P= .858	-.1890 (1118) P= .000	-.0924 (1119) P= .002	-.0553 (1114) P= .065
COMBINC	.4103 (1044) P= .000	.5430 (1116) P= .000	.4046 (1100) P= .	1.0000 (1117) P= .	-.0732 (1111) P= .015	-.1222 (1115) P= .000	.0374 (1115) P= .212	-.1321 (1115) P= .000	-.0930 (1117) P= .002	-.0411 (1113) P= .171
RSI	-.0395 (1053) P= .200	-.1065 (1128) P= .000	-.0508 (1112) P= .090	-.0732 (1111) P= .015	1.0000 (1130) P= .	.1968 (1128) P= .000	.3124 (1128) P= .000	.2447 (1128) P= .000	.2927 (1130) P= .000	.6958 (1126) P= .000
NAFF	-.1202 (1058) P= .000	-.1462 (1134) P= .000	-.0575 (1117) P= .055	-.0732 (1111) P= .015	1.0000 (1130) P= .	1.0000 (1135) P= .	.0462 (1132) P= .120	-.0680 (1133) P= .022	.0611 (1135) P= .039	.2059 (1130) P= .000
ACL	.0355 (1057) P= .249	.0530 (1132) P= .075	.0054 (1116) P= .858	.0374 (1115) P= .212	.3124 (1128) P= .000	.0462 (1132) P= .120	1.0000 (1134) P= .	.1436 (1132) P= .000	.1668 (1134) P= .000	.2374 (1130) P= .000
STRUCTUR	-.0078 (1058) P= .799	-.1442 (1132) P= .000	-.1890 (1118) P= .000	-.1321 (1115) P= .000	-.0930 (1117) P= .002	-.0680 (1133) P= .022	.1436 (1132) P= .000	1.0000 (1135) P= .	.4087 (1135) P= .000	.2023 (1130) P= .000
CONSIDR	-.0992 (1059) P= .001	-.0364 (1134) P= .221	-.0924 (1119) P= .002	-.0553 (1114) P= .065	-.0411 (1113) P= .171	.0611 (1135) P= .039	.1668 (1134) P= .000	.4087 (1135) P= .000	1.0000 (1137) P= .	.3211 (1132) P= .000
CONNECTO	-.0542 (1055) P= .079	-.0707 (1130) P= .017	-.0553 (1114) P= .065	-.0411 (1113) P= .171	.6958 (1126) P= .000	.2059 (1130) P= .000	.2374 (1130) P= .000	.2023 (1130) P= .000	.3211 (1132) P= .000	1.0000 (1132) P= .

Next, an ANOVA procedure was used to test the effect of group (categorical variable) upon the two dependent variables, Consideration and Initiating Structure leadership style preferences. Results shown in Table 9 reveal that group was not a significant contributing factor for the Consideration leadership style preference but was for Initiating Structure. Using a separate ANOVA, group was also significantly related to connectedness needs (Sig $F \leq .001$); therefore, because it was related to both the independent (Connectedness needs) and dependent variables (Initiating Structure), group was identified as a potentially confounding variable. Therefore, four variables, number of years employed (work experience), educational level and group, and socioeconomic status needed to be controlled for in any subsequent regression analysis using Initiating Structure as the dependent variable.

Table 9

Effect of Group on Consideration (LBDO) and Initiating Structure Leadership Style Preferences (LBDO)

Criterion Variable	F score
Consideration as criterion variable	
Group	1.58
Initiating Structure as criterion variable	
Group	26.72***
Connectedness Needs	
Group	8.34***

* $p \leq .05$ ** $p \leq .01$ *** $p \leq .001$

Hypotheses Testing

Test of hypothesis 1. The null hypothesis was that male workers would have lower or the same scores than males on preferences for relationally oriented leadership styles as measured by the Consideration subscale of the LBDQ. The alternative hypothesis was that female workers would have significantly higher scores than males on preferences for relationally oriented leadership styles as measured by the Consideration subscale of the LBDQ. As can be seen in Table 10, significant ($p \leq .01$) mean differences between male and female employees with regard to their preferences on the Consideration style of leadership variable were found. Therefore, the null hypothesis that there would be no differences between groups was rejected. These results mean that female workers preferred relationally oriented leaders significantly more than male workers.

Table 10

Comparison on the Consideration subscale (LBDQ) between Male and Female Employees

Consideration subscale (LBDQ)	Number of Cases	Mean	SD	t value
Female	610	45.55	5.50	3.36***
Male	516	44.43	5.67	

* $p \leq .05$ ** $p \leq .01$ *** $p \leq .001$

Test of hypothesis 2. The null hypothesis was that male workers would have lower or similar scores than females on preferences for nonrelationally-oriented leadership styles as measured by the Initiating Structure subscale of the LBDQ. The alternative hypothesis was that male workers will have

significantly higher scores than females on preferences for nonrelationally-oriented leadership styles as measured by the Initiating Structure subscale of the LBDQ. As can be seen in Table 11, a significant mean difference between male and female workers' preferences for the Initiating Structure style of leadership was not found after adjusting for potential covariates of age, educational level, and group. Therefore, the null hypothesis that there would be no differences between groups was accepted. These results mean that male workers did not prefer task structured leaders significantly more than female workers.

Table 11

Comparison on the Initiating Structure subscale (LBDQ) between Male and Female Employees

Initiating Structure subscale (LBDQ)	Number of Cases	Mean	SD	t value
Female	609	44.36	6.26	.82
Male	515	44.04	6.59	

*p ≤.05 ** p ≤.01 *** p ≤.001

Test of hypothesis 3. The null hypothesis was that female workers would have lower or similar scores than male workers on connectedness needs as measured by the Connectedness Scale. The alternative hypothesis was that female workers would have significantly higher scores than male workers on connectedness needs as measured by the Connectedness Scale.

As can be seen in Table 12, significant mean differences between male and female employees' connectedness needs as measured by the Connectedness

Scale were found ($p \leq .001$). Therefore, the null hypothesis that there would be no differences between groups was rejected. These results mean that female workers expressed significantly stronger needs for connection than male workers.

Table 12

Comparison on the Connectedness Scale between Male and Female Employees

Connectedness Scale	Number of Cases	Mean	SD	t value
Female	609	146.66	20.23	.6.67***
Male	512	138.41	21.12	

* $p \leq .05$ ** $p \leq .01$ *** $p \leq .001$

Test of hypothesis 4. The null hypothesis was that the level of connectedness needs as measured by the Connectedness Scale would be unrelated to the relation between gender and the ideal leadership style preference of Consideration and Initiating Structure as measured by the LBDQ. Specifically, when connectedness needs are controlled, the gender of the worker will be unrelated to either the Consideration or Initiating Structure leadership style preferences. The alternative hypothesis was that the level of connectedness needs as measured by the Connectedness Scale would significantly mediate the relation between gender and the ideal leadership style preference of Consideration and Initiating Structure as measured by the LBDQ. Specifically, when connectedness needs were controlled for, the gender of the worker would be unrelated to either the Consideration or Initiating Structure leadership style preferences.

However, the results of the t-test analysis indicated no gender differences with regard to Initiating Structure ideal leadership style which precluded exploring the mediating influence of connectedness needs on the dependent variable. Therefore, the null hypothesis that there would be no differences between groups was accepted.

Test of hypothesis 5. The null hypothesis was that the level of connectedness needs as measured by the Connectedness Scale would be unrelated to the relation between gender and the ideal leadership style preference of Consideration as measured by the LBDQ. More specifically, when connectedness needs were controlled, gender of the worker would be unrelated to either the Consideration leadership style preferences. The alternative hypothesis was that the level of connectedness needs as measured by the Connectedness Scale would significantly mediate the relation between gender and the ideal leadership style preference of Consideration as measured by the LBDQ. Specifically, when connectedness needs were accounted for, gender of the worker would be unrelated to either the Consideration leadership style preferences.

First, as previously discussed in Chapter 4, two variables, age and educational level, which had been shown to be significantly related to the Consideration leadership style preference in the correlation matrix were inserted into the equation before the other variables of interest were inserted. This ensured that the contribution of the variables of interest (gender and connectedness needs) would be above and beyond that of previously studied variables.

As seen in Table 13, in the first block, age and educational level accounted for only 2% of the variance. This effect was significant, $F(2, 1043) = 11.16$ $p \leq .001$. In the second block (Table 14), after the effect of age and educational

level had been controlled, workers' gender predicted an additional 1%. This increment was very small but significant, $F(3, 1046) = 9.66, p \leq .001$.

In the third step (Table 15), after the effects of age, educational level, and gender had been controlled for, connectedness needs predicted an additional 9% of the variance in preferences for a Consideration leadership style. This effect was significant, $F(4, 1042) = 35.23, p \leq .001$. When workers' connectedness needs were controlled for, workers' gender no longer significantly accounted for a portion of the variance; therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. These results indicate that the female workers preferred more relationally oriented leaders more than the male workers in part because of their stronger needs for connection.

Finally, all tests previously described were repeated controlling for the effect of group and similar results were obtained. This additional check was completed to ensure that the results achieved were not due to any organizational effects.

Table 13

Hierarchical Linear Regression: Block 1 using Age and Educational Level as Predictors of Consideration Leadership Style

Predictor Set for Block 1	β	t	t value	R^2 change
Predictor variables				
Age	-.05	-3.13	-3.030* *	.01
Educational Level	-.42	-3.38	-3.357* * *	F=11.15635* * *
				Summary
				Statistic:
				$R^2=2\%$
*p \leq .05 ** p \leq .01 *** p \leq .001				

Table 14

Hierarchical Linear Regression: Block 2 using Age, Educational Level and Gender as Predictors of Consideration Leadership Style

Predictor Sets for Block 2	β	t value	R^2 change
<u>Demographics</u>			
Age	-.04	-2.63**	
Educational Level	-.41	-3.29***	
<u>Theoretical Variable</u>			
Gender	-.84	-2.38* *	.01**
			Summary Statistic: $R^2=3\%$
*p $\leq .05$ ** p $\leq .01$ *** p $\leq .001$			

Table 15

Hierarchical Linear Regression: Block 3 using Age, Educational Level, Gender, and Connectedness Needs as Predictors of Consideration Leadership Style

Predictor Sets for	β	t value	R^2 change
Block 3			
<u>Antecedent Variables</u>			
Age	-.04	-2.64**	
Educational Level	-.34	-2.85**	
<u>Theoretical Variables</u>			
Gender	-.16	-.47	
Connectedness Needs	.08	10.45***	.10***
			Summary Statistic: $R^2=12\%$
*p $\leq .05$ ** p $\leq .01$ *** p $\leq .001$			

Review of Hypotheses

Based on the results of this study, the validity of the hypotheses will be summarized.

Hypothesis 1. It was hypothesized that female workers would have significantly higher scores than male workers on ideal preferences for the relationally oriented leadership style as measured by the Consideration subscale of the LBDQ. This hypothesis was supported with significant findings from the t-test.

Hypothesis 2. It was hypothesized that male workers would have significantly higher scores than females on ideal preferences for the structured, task oriented leadership styles as measured by the Initiating Structure subscale of the LBDQ. This hypothesis was not supported; the t-test was insignificant.

Hypothesis 3. It was hypothesized that female workers would have significantly higher scores on connectedness needs as measured by the Connectedness Scale than male workers. This hypothesis was supported with significant findings from the t-test.

Hypothesis 4. It was hypothesized that the level of connectedness needs as measured by the Connectedness Scale would significantly mediate the relation between gender and the task structured ideal leadership style preferences (Initiating Structure) as measured by the LBDQ. The results of the t-test analysis indicated no gender differences with regard to Initiating Structure ideal leadership style which precluded the examination of the mediating influence of connectedness needs on this variable.

Hypothesis 5. It was hypothesized that the level of connectedness needs as measured by the Connectedness Scale would significantly mediate the relation between gender and the relationally oriented ideal leadership style

preference of (Consideration) as measured by the LBDQ. When the effects of demographic variables and gender were statistically controlled, connectedness needs predicted an additional 10% of the variance in workers' preferences for a relational (Consideration) leadership style. Therefore, this hypothesis was supported with significant findings from the hierarchical regression analysis.

Post Hoc Analyses

Constructing the strongest model for predicting preferences for Consideration leadership style. In my exploratory post hoc analyses, I constructed the best possible model for predicting men and women's preferences for a relational (Consideration) leadership style within the workplace. Using regression analyses, the following variables were entered into the regression equation to determine their significance as predictors: group, gender, age, educational level, socioeconomic status (measured by combined income), work experience, current job experience, and connectedness needs. All of these variables had previously been shown (in earlier ANOVAs or in the correlational matrix) to significantly influence preferences for a relationally oriented leader or theoretically introduced as possible predictors (e.g., work experience). This method allowed me to more fully understand the individual contributions of each variable in accounting for the variance which was reflected in the coefficient of determination, R^2 . As seen in Table 16, age, educational level, current job experience, and connectedness needs were significant contributors and retained for the final model which accounted for 12% of the variance. Noteworthy are the negative beta coefficients for age and educational level suggesting that as age of participants increased, their ideal preferences for a relationally oriented leader decreased. Finally, participants' needs for connections accounted for

most of the variance. These results suggest that younger, less educated, employees who are more relationally oriented and have had more years of experience on the job seem to prefer a more relational leader.

Table 16

Post Hoc Analyses: Model Building for Workers' Preferences for Consideration Leadership Style

Predictors	β	t value	R^2
Age***	-.05	-3.37	.01
Educational Level**	-.37	-3.08	.01
Years in Current Job*	.28	2.29	.004
Connectedness Needs (CS)***	.08	10.74	.10
			Summary Statistic: $R^2 = 12\%$

* $p \leq .05$ ** $p \leq .01$ *** $p \leq .001$

Constructing the strongest model for predicting preferences for Initiating Structure leadership style. In my exploratory post hoc analyses, I constructed the best possible model for predicting men and women's preferences for a structured leadership style within the workplace. Using regression analyses, the following variables were successively and simultaneously entered into the regression equation: group, age, educational level, work experience, socioeconomic status (measured by combined income),

and connectedness needs. All of these variables had been theoretically introduced in the literature as possible predictors or previously been shown (in earlier ANOVAs or the correlational matrix) to significantly influence preferences for a structured, task-oriented leader. Again, this method allowed me to more fully understand the individual contributions of each variable in accounting for the variance which is reflected in the coefficient of determination, R^2 . As seen in Table 17, all variables except socioeconomic status were significant contributors and retained for the final model which accounted for 11% of the variance. It appears that older, less educated and less experienced workers with higher connectedness needs prefer a task-oriented, structured leadership style. Additionally, workers who worked for the sales and retail organization were more likely to prefer a structured leadership style.

Table 17

Post Hoc Analyses: Model Building for Workers' Preferences for Initiating Structure Leadership Style

Predictor Sets	β	t value	R^2
Group***	-1.06	-4.76	.03
Age*	.03	1.93	.01
Educational Level**	-.44	-2.89	.02
Work Experience ** (Total Years employed)	-.42	-3.23	.01
Connectedness Needs (CS)***	.06	6.15	.04
			Summary Statistic: $R^2 = 11\%$

*p $\leq .05$ ** p $\leq .01$ *** p $\leq .001$

Exploring Differences Between Racial/Ethnic Groups. In previous analyses, it had been determined that there were no significant differences between racial/ethnic groups with regard to ideal preferences for a relational or task-structured leader. As revealed in Figure 1, African-American male workers expressed slightly lower preferences for a relationally-oriented leader (Considerate) than Caucasian male workers. As depicted in Figure 2, African-American females and males expressed lower preferences for a structured, task-oriented (Initiating Structure) leadership style than Caucasian male and female workers, although the differences were not significant.

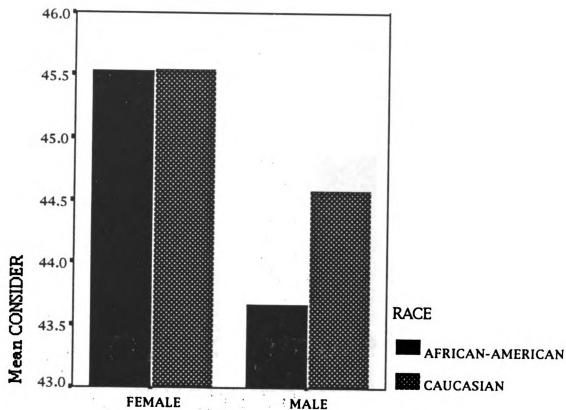


Figure 1

Differences in Consideration Leadership Style Between African-American and Caucasian Workers

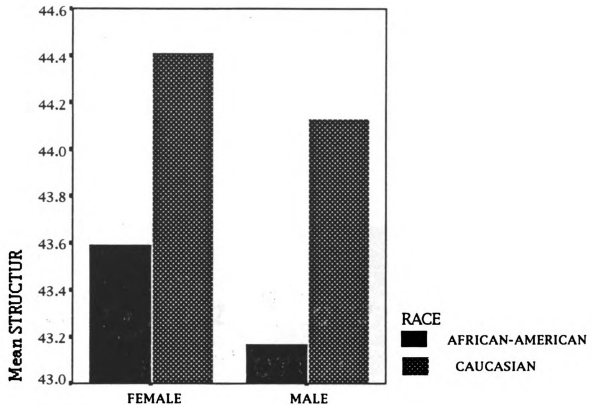


Figure 2

Differences in Structured Leadership Style Between African-American and Caucasian Workers

Additional exploratory analyses revealed interesting and statistically significant results with regard to differential needs for connectedness between African-American and Caucasian workers. Overall, African-American workers expressed lower connectedness needs; upon further inspection, the data, which are illustrated below in Figure 3, revealed that this

effect was consistent with both female and males but only statistically significant between African-American women and Caucasian women.

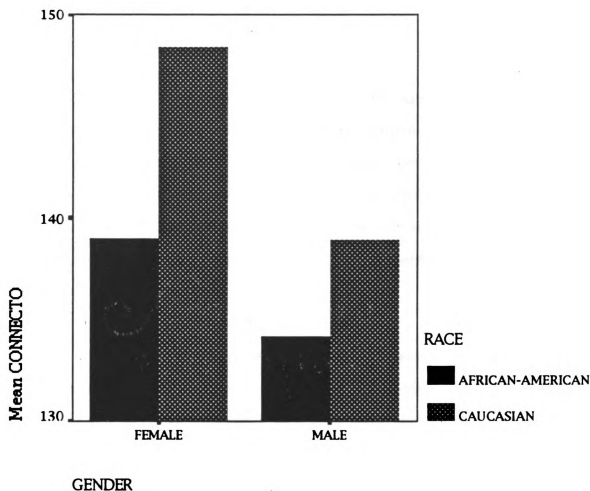


Figure 3

Differences in Connectedness Needs Between African-American and Caucasian Workers

In the final chapter, the implications of these findings will be discussed.

Chapter 5

DISCUSSION

In this final chapter, the purpose of this study will be summarized and the main results reviewed. Factors that help explain the influence of gender and connectedness needs upon workers' (followers or employees) preferences for leadership styles will be emphasized. Limitations of this study will then be discussed. Next, implications for leaders and organizations will be addressed. Finally, suggestions for future research in theory testing and applications of this investigation will be proposed.

Summary of the Purpose of the Study

Although researchers have extensively investigated leader characteristics (e.g., Arnett, et al., 1980; Banfield, 1976) and leadership styles (Kushell & Newton, 1986), few have explored employees' ideal leadership style preferences; fewer still have investigated these preferences as a function of gender and personality variables (e. g., Ejioogu, 1985). Given this lack of knowledge, the primary purposes of this study were to: 1) examine the role of workers' gender in predicting workers' ideal leadership style preferences; 2) empirically test the self-in-relational tenet that gender differences exist in male and female employees' needs for connection; and 3) assess the mediating influence of connectedness needs between workers' gender and ideal leadership style preferences. In essence, the goals were to answer the questions: do male and female employees differ in preferences for Considerate (relational) or Initiating Structure (structured, task-oriented) leaders and do

connectedness needs help explain why male and female workers differ in their preferences for leadership styles?

Review of Findings

The results of this research are briefly summarized below.

1. Compared to male workers, female workers expressed significantly higher ideal preferences for a Considerate (relationally oriented) leadership style.

2. Male and female workers did not differ significantly in their ideal preferences for Initiating Structure (structured, task-oriented) leaders.

3. Compared to male workers, female workers expressed significantly higher needs for connectedness.

4. Variations between male and female workers in their needs for connectedness partially accounted for differences in preferences for a Considerate (relationally oriented) leadership style.

In the following section, explications of the results of each hypothesis will be presented.

Hypothesis 1. It was hypothesized that female workers would report significantly higher ideal preferences for Considerate (relationally oriented) leaders than male workers. The results of this study supported this hypothesis. As anticipated, the differences found between the men and women in the sample groups were consistent with a body of research that revealed women value relationships with co-workers, interactions with people, (Bartol, 1976; Elizur, 1994; Pryor, 1983), work surroundings, and altruism (Vondracek et al., 1990) more than their male counterparts.

Although the actual mean difference between men and women's scores was smaller than I had anticipated, levels of significance were meaningful given the large number of participants in the sample and the consistency in

which differences were found in each of the three organizations as well as the diversity sample.

Hypothesis 2. It was hypothesized that male workers would report significantly higher ideal preferences for Initiating Structure (structured, task-oriented) leaders than female workers. The results of this study failed to support this hypothesis.

These results were unexpected in light of Ejiogu's (1985) findings that male teachers had stronger preferences for Initiating Structure (structured, task-oriented) leaders and this study's findings that female employees more strongly preferred Considerate (relationally oriented) leaders than male employees. My underlying assumption, which had not been empirically supported in the literature, was that employees who preferred a relationally oriented supervisor would not concurrently express a preference for a more task-structured leader. However, these results suggested that the preferences for Initiating Structure leadership styles are not on the same continuum as preferences for Considerate leaders and, therefore, are not inversely related. Clearly, most workers in the four sample groups preferred leaders who were relationally oriented and task-oriented. These results are consistent with Halpin's (1957) original findings that these two styles of leadership are independent, not polarized, concepts.

Hypothesis 3. It was hypothesized that female workers would report significantly higher needs for connectedness than male workers. The results of this study supported this hypothesis.

Until very recently, male-female differences in needs for connection have not been empirically tested and consequently have not been fully embraced by mainstream psychology. This study is by far the largest study to date that has tested the relationship between gender and connectedness needs.

The significant differences found in levels of need for connection between male and female workers supported one of the basic tenets of the self-in-relation theory, i.e., due to more relationally oriented developmental pathways (Welch, 1997), females will value relationships and connections with other more than men (Jordan, et al., 1991; Jordan & Surrey, 1986; Miller, 1984, 1986, 1987).

Hypothesis 4. It was hypothesized that the level of connectedness needs would significantly mediate the relationship between workers' gender and workers' ideal preferences for structured leadership style. The testing of this hypothesis was obviated by the absence of gender differences in preferences for an Initiating Structure (structured, task-oriented) leader.

Hypothesis 5. It was hypothesized that the level of connectedness needs would significantly mediate the relation between workers' gender and workers' ideal preferences for the Considerate (relationally oriented) leadership style. This hypothesis was supported by the results of this study.

This latter result has the most potential implications. Given these data, we can move beyond the simple identification of gender differences in leadership preferences by theoretically establishing a reason for the differences, i.e., variations in workers' needs for connection. In the regression analyses, the significant influence of gender became insignificant when the connectedness needs were accounted for in the model.

Interpretation of Findings

Ideal preferences for Considerate leadership style. First, with regard to gender differences in preferences for a Considerate (relational) leader, female workers in this study's sample (n=610) ideally preferred Considerate leaders significantly more than their male counterparts (n=516). Gender differences in ideal preferences for a Considerate leader were found

not only in the overall sample, but were also found in each of the four sample groups. As seen in Figure 4, although the actual mean scores slightly varied across sample groups, females in each group reported stronger ideal preferences for relationally oriented leaders when compared to the male participants from the same sample. These results supported the hypothesis that gender differences in ideal leadership style preferences would be found and also supported past research findings that, overall, women tend to value the relational aspects of their work environment more than men (Bartol, 1976; Elizur, 1994; Pryor, 1983).

Of potential importance is the fact that men and women differed by only 1.12 points in their mean score preferences for a Considerate (relationally oriented) leader. Even though this difference was statistically significant, a difference of this size is not necessarily meaningful. The overall mean score for male employees in this study was higher than previously found by the scale developers (Halpin, 1957) which may suggest that men have become more interested in Considerate leaders or have become more willing to express these preferences.

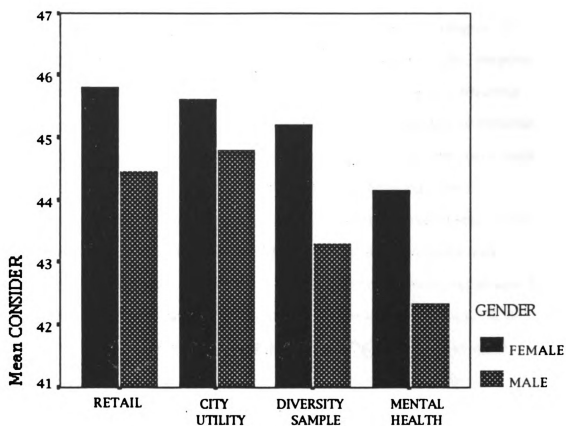


Figure 4

Gender Differences in Ideal Preferences for Considerate Leadership Style

Ideal preferences for Initiating Structure leadership style. As seen in Figure 5, significant differences between male and female workers' ideal preferences for Initiating Structure leaders were not found. However, employees' educational levels were significantly related to the degree of structure preferred in their ideal leader's style: more specifically, employees with higher educational levels preferred less structured leaders whereas employees of lower educational levels preferred higher degrees of structure.

As anticipated, employees within their respective categories were similar with regard to their educational levels and consequently expressed remarkably similar preferences for Initiating Structured leadership styles. For example in each sample group, professional service providers and administrative/managerial employees were the most highly educated and thus the least likely to prefer structured, task-oriented leadership styles. It is important to note, however, that while educational and leadership style preferences are two highly correlated variables, a cause and effect relationship has not yet been determined. At best, this information may be useful for leaders seeking to understand patterns of variance in employees' leadership style preferences.

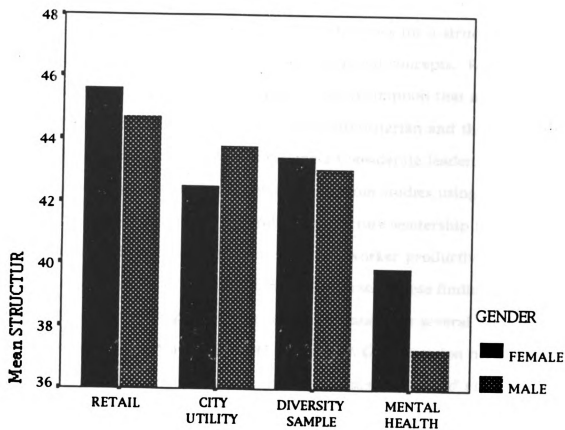


Figure 5

Gender Differences in Ideal Preferences for Structured Leadership Style

Ideal preferences for Considerate and Initiating Structure leadership styles. Overall, most workers ideally preferred leaders who employed high-Considerate and high-Initiating Structure leadership style behaviors, suggesting that employees' ideal preferences for a structured and relational leader are not mutually exclusive, polarized concepts. Reflection on this unexpected result uncovered my underlying assumption that a task-structured leader would be considered highly authoritarian and therefore not be highly desired by those employees seeking a Considerate leader.

These results are similar to earlier findings, from studies using male subjects, that a high-Consideration and high-Structure leadership style resulted in (a) high worker satisfaction, (b) high worker productivity, and (c) positive ratings (Halpin, 1955, 1957, 1959). Conversely, these findings fail to support Schriesheim (1982) who after analyzing data from several smaller studies concluded that “the superiority of the high-Consideration high-Initiating Structure leadership style is indeed an American myth” (1982, p. 226).

Gender differences and connectedness needs. Alice Eagly (1995) states that “Reflecting a shift from description to explanation, the question of whether sex differences exist has evolved into the more demanding question of why the sexes sometimes differ considerably and at other times differ moderately or minimally or do not differ at all” (1995, p. 148). This study moves beyond answering the simple question, “Do women and men prefer different leadership styles within their work environments?” by using the self-in-relation theory to ask the more demanding question, “Why?”

To begin, it was hypothesized that women would prefer Considerate (relationally oriented) leaders more than men. As previously explained, this hypothesis was supported by the results from this study. Next, it was

hypothesized that one reason why women preferred more relationally oriented leaders was due to their stronger connectedness needs. Before testing this hypothesis, it was necessary to statistically test for gender differences in connectedness needs.

As hypothesized, women's connectedness needs were significantly higher than men's. With such differences found, it was possible to then examine if women's higher connectedness needs would help explain women's stronger preferences for a Considerate leader. As hypothesized, the level of connectedness needs significantly mediated the relation between workers' gender and employees' ideal preferences for the relationally oriented leadership style. In other words, variations between male and female workers in their needs for connection partially accounted for differences in preferences for a relationally oriented leadership style. This was the most significant finding in that it helps explain why, when compared with male employees, female workers more strongly prefer Considerate leaders within the workplace. Thus, by explicating ways in which early relational experiences help create differences in male and female's connectedness needs, the self-in-relation theory (Jordan, Kaplan, Baker-Miller, & Surrey, 1991; Jordan & Surrey, 1986; Miller, 1984, 1986, 1987) illuminates one reason why women prefer relationally-oriented leaders more than males.

It is important to note, however, that the differences in connectedness needs found in this study may partially reflect gender differences in participants' willingness to disclose relational values rather than actual differences. For example, the use of "relational" language in the Connectedness Scale, which may be more familiar to and socially sanctioned for females than males, may be producing a gender bias in self-reported needs. Because women may be socialized to use a more relational vocabulary

than men, female workers may have responded more positively to items on this scale. Male workers may have been more responsive to selecting items describing relational *behaviors* rather than items describing relational *needs*.

Race/Ethnicity, preferences for leadership styles and connectedness needs. In post hoc analyses, the differences between African-American and Caucasian workers' leadership style preferences and needs for connectedness were explored. As previously described in Chapter 4, preferences for Considerate (relationally oriented) and Initiating Structure (structured, task-oriented) leadership styles were not significantly different between African-American and Caucasian participants. However, additional analyses revealed interesting results regarding differential needs for connectedness between African-American and Caucasian workers. Overall, African-American workers (n=144) expressed lower connectedness needs but only between African-American and Caucasian women were these differences statistically significant. These results differ from Welch's (1997) earlier findings that African-Americans (n=17) expressed higher needs on the Connectedness Scale when compared to Caucasians. Because Welch's sample consisted of undergraduate students and not adult workers, the inconsistencies in results may be attributable to differences in sample sizes as well as differences in participants' age, educational level, and years of work experience.

While it is premature to draw any conclusions at this point, it is possible that results represent meaningful ethnic differences. For example, many of the items on the Connectedness Scale ask respondents to rate their needs for interdependence with other workers in addition to family members; while within the African-American culture, there tends to be a strong emphasis

placed on family relationships and interdependence, there may be less importance placed on “needing” connections within a work setting due to a long history of institutional racism. At the very least, further investigation is warranted to see if these results can be replicated and if so, to determine underlying reasons for expressed differences in connectedness needs.

Demographic variables, leadership preferences and connectedness needs. Below is a summary of the influence of demographic factors upon leadership style preferences and connectedness needs (because the variable "gender" was used as a predictor variable in this study, it is not included in the following section):

1) **Preferences for Relational Leaders:** Age and educational level of the participants had a significant influence on the degree to which Considerate (relationally oriented) leaders were preferred. Older and more highly educated workers reported lower preferences for relational leaders; neither work experience or ethnicity was a significant factor.

2) **Preferences for Structured Leaders:** Age, educational level, work experience, and connectedness needs of the participants had a significant influence on the degree to which Initiating Structure (structured, task-oriented) leaders were preferred. Older, less educated employees who reported fewer years of experience and expressed higher needs for connectedness were more likely to prefer an Initiating Structure leader. Ethnicity of the participants was not a factor.

3) **Connectedness Needs:** Age, work experience, and connectedness needs of the participants had a significant influence on the degree to which connectedness needs were reported. Older, more experienced workers expressed lower connectedness needs. Ethnicity was a factor in the expression of needs for connectedness. African-American employees (n= 144) expressed

significantly lower relational needs than European-American (n= 883), Native-American (n=50) and Hispanic employees (n=19). (There were only 5 Asian participants and therefore they were not included in the tests). However, because these variables were explored in post hoc exploratory analyses and because the ethnic groups were not equally represented, caution should be taken in interpreting these findings.

Limitations

Due to the design and methodology of this study, certain limitations exist.

Design limitations. First, because it was a field correlational study, the environment was not experimentally manipulated; consequently, cause and effect conclusions cannot be made.

Self-report assessment bias. The second limitation was the exclusive use of self-report measures in measuring connectedness needs and ideal leadership preferences. Incorporating a broader range of assessment techniques such as observations made by fellow workers, work supervisors, or significant others and employing a wider range of measures would minimize the bias which can often occur when self-report measures are exclusively used. As previously mentioned, differences found in this study may actually reflect a gender difference in women's willingness to disclose relational values rather than actual differences in connectedness needs.

Relational vocabulary bias. Another limitation was the use of "relational" language in the Connectedness Scale which may be more familiar to, and socially sanctioned for, females than males, thus potentially producing a gender bias in self-reported needs. As previously explained, whereas women may be socialized to use a more relational vocabulary than men and thus respond more positively to items on this scale, may be more responsive to selecting items describing relational behaviors rather than relational needs.

Response bias. A critical point is that the selection bias reduces the extent to which generalizations can be made. Typically, a certain number of potential participants will decline to participate in a study and the 26% overall response rate indicates that this was true in the current study. Although the response rate was much higher than anticipated in two of the four sample groups (75% for CMH; 40% for City Utilities), it was lower than expected in the retail organization (22%) and the diversity sample (25%). Ideally, to reduce response bias, reminders should have been sent to nonresponding workers to solicit their participation. However, policies within the organizations prohibited me from receiving employee addresses; therefore, general reminders were sent to all employees through e-mail and newsletters two weeks after surveys were initially distributed. Attempts to minimize the response bias were also made by informing the participants that their responses would be completely anonymous, that completion of the surveys would require only 20 minutes of their time, and by offering a \$300.00 drawing as an incentive.

One possible reason for nonparticipation may have been that the cover letter indicated that questions about "your own style of relating to others" would be asked, which may have discouraged some potential participants from completing the form. Many of the employees may have felt that these questions were too personal to respond to within a work setting; on two of the completed forms, for example, participants reported feeling invaded by the "personal questions."

Some nonrespondents may have been less interested in assisting their organization to obtain this type of information and thus may have possessed lower needs for connection than those who participated. In support of this hypothesis, employees from the community mental health sample which had

the highest response rate reported lower connectedness needs when compared to the other sample groups. However, it is also possible that this group's higher response rate was related to their higher educational levels and greater familiarity and interest in the research process.

Generalization limitations. It is also important to note that the identification of gender differences in needs for connection and preferences for a relational leader cannot be extrapolated to conclusions about all male and female workers. All individuals in an organization may be influenced to varying degrees by their biological predispositions, social environments and numerous other interacting psychological factors. Additionally, psychological research has sufficiently demonstrated that differences among individuals within a group are typically greater and more important than the degree of differences between groups. Although exploration of differences between males and females can advance our understanding of the worker-leader relationship, extension of these findings to all male and female employees is inappropriate. In sum, although the external validity was strengthened by sampling actual supervised employees, generalizations to American non-management workers should be cautiously made due to the design of the study, relational vocabulary bias, and response bias.

Implications

To review, the primary purposes of this study were to: 1) examine the role of workers' gender in predicting workers' ideal leadership style preferences; 2) empirically test the self-in-relational tenet that gender differences exist in male and female employees' needs for connection; and 3) assess the mediating influence of connectedness needs between workers' gender and ideal leadership style preferences.

Implications for theory. Results of this study serve to explain inconsistencies within the leadership body of literature and to expand existing theory. With regard to leadership effectiveness, a few researchers reported that a high-Consideration and high-Structure leadership style resulted in (a) high worker satisfaction, (b), high worker productivity, and (c) positive ratings from workers (Fleishman & Harris, 1962; Halpin, 1955, 1957, 1959; Stogdill, 1963; Stogdill & Coons, 1957). However, others reported that exclusively employing a high-Consideration style would be most effective (Schriesheim, 1982; Wilkinson & Wagner, 1993). Schriesheim, for example, demonstrated that leaders rated high in Consideration scores by workers received the highest evaluation--regardless of the amount of Initiating Structure scores -- leading to the conclusion that "the superiority of the high-Consideration high-Initiating Structure leadership style is indeed an American myth" (p. 226).

In addition to equivocal findings in the leadership effectiveness body of literature, the extant follower-preference literature has been theoretically and methodologically weak. While some researchers (Ejiogu, 1985; Neil & Kirby, 1985) have tested the influence of predictor variables on follower's ideal preferences (e.g., cognitive styles, age, and work experience), most have explored factors related to their evaluations of current leaders. Consequently, before this study we knew little about what types of leaders workers would prefer if given the opportunity to explicitly state their leadership style preferences. Moreover, we know even less about what personality variables (e.g., connectedness needs) influence these ideal preferences.

Results from this current study seem to empirically support and complement Hersey and Blanchard's (1969, 1970, 1982) life cycle of leadership theory that proposes leaders must modify their Consideration and Initiating

Structure dimensions (Halpin, 1957) according to workers' maturity – a multifaceted construct that includes: (a) motivation to achieve; (b) willingness and ability to assume responsibility; and (c) relevant education and work experience. A key tenet is that the leader's ability to modify his or her style to fit the worker significantly predicts leadership effectiveness. Results from this study provide leaders with more specific information regarding how work experience and educational levels may affect preferences by revealing that employees with more work experience and higher educational levels preferred lower levels of structure from their ideal supervisors; conversely, the employees with the least amount of work experience and education were also the employees who preferred the highest level of structure from their ideal supervisors. Additionally, results from this study may contribute to an extension of Hersey and Blanchard's theory by not only explicating the significant influence of education and work experience in employees' preferences for leadership styles and delineating specific ways in which Consideration and Initiating Structure dimensions should be modified to account for these variables, but also in identifying additional factors that might be inserted into their overall model, i.e., employees' gender and needs for connectedness.

With regard to the self-in-relation theory, the findings that measurable differences do exist between men and women in their needs for connectedness provide empirical support for the self-in-relation theory (Kaplan, 1991; Miller, 1984, 1987, 1991). This theory has not been fully embraced by many mainstream psychologists due to the lack of empirical evidence. Before Welch's (1997) development of the Connectedness Scale, gender differences in connectedness had not been empirically tested. This current study is the first to theoretically test this basic tenet using the Connectedness Scale. Ideally, the

strong empirical support provided by the present study may increase the extent to which psychologists incorporate this theory into their understanding of the unique ways in which women's identities are constructed -- through relationships with others.

Implications for leadership training. Creating humane work environments that provide community, promote psychological and physical health, and impart a sense of personal meaning has become increasingly important to many organizations (Conger, 1994; Keita & Hurrell, 1994; Perloff & Nelson, 1983; Quale, 1983; Senge, 1990). Results from this study suggest that this goal may be partially achieved by developing supervisors who in addition to providing structured, task-oriented leadership can simultaneously support workers through meaningful and empowering relationships.

Additionally, organizations may opt to train supervisors to tailor their supervisory styles in response to their employees' varying needs for connectedness and structure or pair an employee with a supervisor who matches his or her preferred leadership style. For example, individuals who exhibit higher connectedness needs and preferences for a Considerate (relationally oriented) leadership style might be more productive and satisfied if assigned to a supervisor primarily using a relational style of leadership (i.e., building strong relationships with employees, using team projects to complete tasks, etc.) Conversely, employees who express lower connectedness needs, lower preferences for a Considerate (relationally oriented) leader, and higher needs for an Initiating Structure (structured, task-oriented) leader could be paired with highly structured supervisors. Additionally, employees could be assessed and consulted with before assigned to group or team projects. Ideally, these strategies would help co-create more congruent work environments for their employees, thus increasing work satisfaction and productivity.

In the last decade many organizations have embraced the team approach whereby employees are encouraged to participate in decision-making and to share leadership responsibilities (Cantor & Bernay, 1992). While these changes may be working for many organizations, results from this study suggest that a highly egalitarian team approach will not be equally effective for all organizations. Many organizations may have underestimated their employees' needs for a task-oriented, structured leader who is willing to "take charge" and assume an inordinate amount of responsibility. For example, over 80% of the 1137 participants in this study preferred a supervisor who would make decisions for the group when necessary, act as the spokesperson for the group, and act as the real leader of the group. Certainly this indicates that many employees are disinterested in, unmotivated or unprepared for a predominantly participative, relational approach. Thus, an important step for organizations may be to first assess the needs of their workers before implementing a team approach for all employees.

In sum, the results generated from this study provide important considerations for leaders wishing to increase the congruence between employees' preferences for leadership styles and their actual leadership behavior. These considerations include:

1. Female employees generally expressed stronger needs for a Considerate (relationally oriented) leadership style.
2. A combination of relationally oriented behaviors and structured behaviors is highly preferred by most male and female nonprofessional workers.
3. Employees with less education will generally be more likely to prefer a high-Considerate (relationally oriented) and high-Structured leadership style.

4. Older employees with less work experience will be more likely to prefer an Initiating Structure (structured, task-oriented) approach to leadership more than older employees with more work experience.
5. The higher the needs for connection, the more likely it is that the worker will prefer a Considerate (relationally oriented) approach to leadership.
6. The higher the needs for connection, the more likely it is that the worker will ideally prefer a structured approach to leadership.

Implications for leadership recruitment. Promotion to a leadership role and perceived leadership effectiveness have historically been related to "masculine" (Korabik, 1982), authoritative, and task-oriented leadership skills (Cantor & Bernay, 1992; Eskilson & Wiley, 1976; Powell & Butterfield, 1979; Slater, 1955). These traditional beliefs regarding the effectiveness of an authoritative leadership style may have contributed to the "glass ceiling" that frequently prohibits qualified, relationally-oriented women from attaining many leadership positions. Moreover, these antiquated beliefs may explain why women have reported less motivation to become leaders, have suppressed their capacity for leadership behaviors, or have attempted to act similarly to male counterparts when trying to "make it to the top" (Banfield, 1976; Bartol, 1987; Cantor & Bernay, 1992; Megargee, 1969; Schein, 1973).

Because the results of this study indicate that employees with different educational levels, years of work experience, and needs for connectedness have varying degrees of preferences for Considerate (relationally oriented) and structured leadership styles, leaders who are able to tailor their leadership styles to fit their employees' needs may be the most effective. Organizations may alter their outdated criteria for identifying effective leaders and select those who can provide varying degrees of structure within varying degrees of meaningful relational leader-employee connections--dependent upon the

individual preferences of the employee. In other words, knowing that both male and female employees tend to value a relational and task-oriented leader may increase an organization's willingness to bring more relationally oriented potential leaders "up through the ranks," many of whom will probably be women.

Implications for counseling psychologists. Counseling psychology researchers have rigorously examined relationships between the therapist and client (Atkinson, Poston, Furlong, & Mercado, 1989; Webster & Fretz, 1978) and between supervisor and supervisee (Carifio & Hess, 1987; Holloway, 1988; Holloway, Freund, Garner, Nelson, & Walker, 1989). Even though counseling psychology's roots are deeply imbedded in "vocational psychology," many counseling psychologists seem to have neglected the worker-leader relationship within the work environment.

Gerstein and Shullman (1992) write that "It can be argued that counseling psychology as a discipline would be enriched through greater involvement in the workplace. This setting provides an excellent medium for synthesizing our interests in vocational behavior, mental health, and education. Moreover, our science base could be expanded . . . This expansion could enhance the generalizability of our theories, because data would be gathered on multiculturally diverse adults in their natural environment. The realism of our research would be strengthened, and there could be a greater likelihood of changing individual and group behavior. . . We strongly contend that counseling psychologists, as scientists and practitioners, can make a unique contribution to the workplace" (pp. 617-618). This study seeks to build a bridge between organizational and counseling psychology by examining the follower-leader relationship within the work environment and open up doors

for counseling psychologists interested in making a difference in the workplace.

On a practical level, counseling psychologists could be called upon by organizations to assess connectedness needs and ideal leadership preferences of workers through professional, confidential assessment procedures, interpret the findings for the organization, assist leaders in understanding the importance of congruence between workers' needs and employees' satisfaction, and assist leaders in combining the Considerate (relationally oriented) and Initiating Structure (structured, task-oriented) leadership styles through seminars, workshops or psychoeducational counseling.

Future Research

With regard to future research, myriad possibilities exist. First, future research on workers' leadership preferences will become more complex and differentiated. With attention given both to the potential commonalities in preferences across gender and to those aspects of ideal leadership preferences that capture gender uniqueness, we will increase our understanding of the reciprocal influence of leader and worker, especially as it applies to gender interactions.

Results from this study show that women tend to express higher preferences for Considerate (relationally oriented) leaders. However, we can now go beyond the simple assertion that men and women have different preferences for relationally oriented leaders by concluding that the higher a worker's needs are for connection, regardless of gender, the more he or she will tend to prefer a relational leadership style. However, most of the variance is still unaccounted for in fully understanding workers' preferences for leadership styles. Further research could identify other factors that account for the variance in workers' preferences for leadership styles.

Although this study determined that most male and female workers who preferred the Considerate (relationally oriented) style of leadership concurrently preferred the structured leadership style as well, variables mediating gender and preferences for the structured leadership style were not identified. While results from post hoc analyses reveal that employees' educational level and years of work experience are important predictor variables, further research is necessary to replicate these preliminary findings and to identify other factors that influence workers' needs for structured leadership.

By capturing more information than can be revealed in a self-report questionnaire, qualitative research methods might be used to comprehensively assess workers' descriptions of their ideal leaders. Finally, replications of this study with different population samples, (e.g., college/university professors or doctoral students), could provide more information regarding the degree to which generalizations can be made.

Conclusion

Leadership is a multifaceted issue that must be understood as a complex system wherein the leader, employer, task and environmental context all mutually influence one another in meaningful ways. Previous research has primarily focused on variables associated with the leader, but only a handful of studies have focused on the "follower." The primary purpose of this research was to more fully explore the intricate worker-leader relationship within the work environment by investigating variables more closely related to the worker.

The extent to which a leader's goals are achieved partially depends upon the follower's willingness to cooperate with the leader (Hollander, 1990, 1992, 1993). This willingness often results from a congruency between a follower's

ideal leadership style and the leader's actual style of leadership in the workplace (Dalessio, 1983; Hunt & Liebscher, 1973; Kuschell & Newton, 1986) which has been shown to increase work productivity (Neil & Kirby, 1985), morale (Meade, 1985), and work satisfaction (Dalessio, 1983; Hunt & Liebscher, 1973). Thus, understanding that a) women in this study expressed stronger preferences for Considerate (relationally oriented) leaders than their male counterparts, b) employees with higher needs for connectedness were more apt to prefer a relational leadership style, c) employees with lower educational levels and less work experience were more apt to prefer a structured leadership style, and d) most male and female workers preferred leaders who could provide a combination of Considerate (relationally oriented) and Initiating Structure (structured, task-oriented) leadership behaviors may enable leaders to more effectively customize their leadership styles to meet the individual needs of their workers, increase the quality of the follower-leader relationship, and ultimately the quality of men and women's work experience.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

APPENDIX A

Letter to Human Resource Directors

Dear Human Resource Director;

I am interested in identifying workers' ideal preferences for supervisory styles within your work environment. This is very different than asking workers to rate their current supervisors; this study asks workers to describe their ideal supervisors and in that regard it does not result in data that would be threatening to current supervisors. As you may know, most research within academic settings are done using mainly White participants and generalizations are made across ethnicity and cultures. I am very interested in surveying employees from your company in that there is a much more diverse sample than the typical Lansing organization. As a result of gathering completely anonymous data through the completion of 20 minutes worth of questionnaires, the following questions could be answered:

1. Do male and female workers in your organization prefer the same types of leadership styles? Do they prefer male or female leaders?
2. Are there other personal factors (such as connection/ work affiliation needs, ethnicity, age, work experience) that predict the type of leadership styles they would most want their immediate supervisor to have?
3. Do workers within different departments prefer similar or different types of leaders? More specifically, do they prefer supervisors using the team approach or do they prefer that their supervisors use a more independent style?
4. Do workers within your organization have high or low needs for connections with their work peers and/or immediate supervisors, and could knowing the level of connection/affiliation needs assist you in predicting the types of supervisors they most prefer and which employees might work best in teams?

Let me assure you that there would be NO FINANCIAL charge beyond the time and trouble of mailing the surveys to your employees as long as the number of participants does not exceed 400. I would be paying for the return postage (employees will send the anonymous surveys to me) unless an alternative is worked out (e.g., interoffice mailings to employees and a drop box for employees to place surveys in). I am able to provide you with a great deal of information about leadership style preferences of your employees which ideally will assist you in increasing work productivity, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment; the benefit to me of course is using the **anonymous** data in my dissertation research. I would also be willing to present pro bono a 4-8 hour long workshop for supervisors within your organization, acquainting them with the results and provide training in understanding how to tailor their leadership styles to individual employees.

Along with professional information about me, I have enclosed the first few pages of my dissertation to give you a better understanding of my research. Accompanying this letter, you will also find my resume to give you a more detailed description of my professional background as well as some of my past research interests. I would certainly welcome the opportunity to discuss this matter in more detail.

Sincerely,
Karyn J. Boatwright

APPENDIX B

APPENDIX B

Participant's Letter and Consent Form

Dear Participant;

I am a doctoral candidate interested in finding out how you think an "ideal" immediate supervisor should supervise in your work environment. (You will not be asked to evaluate your current supervisor). Additionally, I would like to ask questions about your own style of relating to others in general. To show my appreciation for your participation, I will be conducting a \$300.00 lottery drawing for those who complete the survey.

All of your responses will be anonymous, even from me as the researcher. You will be asked to return this survey without your name on it. Your participation is entirely voluntary. You may choose not to participate or to end your participation at any time. You have the right to refuse to answer any question; however, the information provided by each answer is extremely helpful in gaining a better understanding of your needs. The general findings of this research will be made available to your business or organizational leaders and to professionals in psychology. You may receive a summary of the results by calling me directly or by requesting a copy of the results on the postcard you use for the lottery drawing.

I will be happy to answer any questions you may have. Please feel free to call me at (517) 694-1672. It would be most helpful if you could return your completed survey in the enclosed addressed, stamped envelope by February 28 (day of lottery drawing). I appreciate your time and cooperation in helping me with this research project.

Sincerely,
Karyn J. Boatwright, M. A.
Michigan State University Doctoral candidate
4365 Willoughby
Holt, MI 48842

The return of the completed survey reflects your informed and voluntary consent to participate in this study.

APPENDIX C

APPENDIX C

Personalized Letter to Employees in Organizations from Human Resource Directors

Dear Team Member,

We have a tremendous opportunity!! Karyn Boatwright, M.A. is a Doctoral Student in Counseling Psychology (the same kind of psychologist that I am) at Michigan State. She is doing an excellent study on leadership that focuses on what kind of leader behaviors are truly effective. This will give us some great information that will help me and others in our organization to train your leaders to meet YOUR needs more effectively, rather than base the training we do on someone else's theory of what you need.

I would personally appreciate it if you would take the 20 minutes that it will take to fill out the enclosed forms and send them back to Karyn. I have worked with her on making sure that the information we get (for FREE!!!, NO HIGH CONSULTANT'S FEES HERE) will really be helpful for all groups in our organization. Let's make sure that her final results represent all of us so that your leaders can effectively lead you in the ways that YOU value. Let's really beat the expectations and all fill out these forms. It WILL make a difference. Thanks so much for your help.

APPENDIX D

APPENDIX D

Demographic Questionnaire

Directions: Please use a pencil and completely blacken the circle that best describes your response in each area.

1. Age (Age Grid inserted)
2. How many years have you been in your current position?
3. How many years have you been employed by your company or agency?
4. Gender:
 - (0) Female
 - (1) Male
5. Marital Status:
 - (0) Single
 - (1) Married or Living with Partner
6. Race/Ethnicity
 - (1) African-American
 - (2) Caucasian
 - (3) Native American
 - (4) Asian
 - (5) Hispanic
 - (6) Other
7. What is the highest educational level you have completed?
 - (1) Some high school
 - (2) High school diploma
 - (3) Some college
 - (4) Associate's degree
 - (5) Bachelor's degree
 - (6) Master's degree
 - (7) Doctoral degree
8. What is your combined household yearly income? (including you and your spouse or partner)
 - (1) \$7,500 or below
 - (2) Between \$7,500-\$14,999

- (3) Between \$15,000-\$24,999
- (4) Between \$25,000-\$39,999
- (5) Between \$40,000-\$59,999
- (6) Between \$60,000-\$89,000
- (7) \$90,000 and above

9. Which category best describes your job title?

- (1) Administrative support/Clerical (secretary, computer assistant, bookkeeper, receptionist, clerk)
- (2) Sales/Business Goods & Services (financial services, manufacturing sales rep, technician)
- (3) Handler/Laborer (stock handler, construction laborer, freight handler, packager, other)
- (4) Administration/Manager
- (5) Professional Service Provider (counselor, nurse, social worker, mental health worker, teacher)
- (6) Mechanic, Repairer (machinists, machine repairer)
- (7) Sales/retail (cashier, commodity salesperson)
- (8) Machine Operator/Assembler/Inspector
- (9) Other

10. How would you describe the nature of your job?

- (1) non-supervisory position (you have an immediate supervisor but are not responsible for supervising other employees)
- (2) first level supervisory position (you supervise employees and also have an immediate supervisor)
- (3) middle manager (you supervise supervisors and also have an immediate supervisor)
- (4) upper level supervisory position (you supervise other supervisors but do not have an immediate supervisor)
- (5) other (you do not have an immediate supervisor and/or do not supervise others)

11. Are you a

- (0) Salaried employee?
- (1) Hourly employee?

12. If you could choose between a male or female supervisor, would you choose a

- (1) female supervisor
- (2) male supervisor
- (3) no preference

13. Approximately, how many hours of work-related contact do you have with your immediate supervisor per week (verbal communication, staff meetings, informal discussions, e-mail, phone contact, etc.)?

- (1) less than 1 hour
- (2) between 1-4 hours
- (3) between 5-8 hours
- (4) more than 8 hours

APPENDIX E

APPENDIX E

Ideal Leader Behavior Questionnaire

**Developed by Staff members of
The Ohio State Leadership Studies**

Directions:

- a. READ each item carefully.**
- b. THINK about how frequently the leader SHOULD engage in the behavior described by the item**
- c. DECIDE whether your ideal leader SHOULD always, often, occasionally, seldom or never act as described by the item.**
- d. Pencil in one of the five numbers following the item to show the answer you have selected.**

A=Always

B=Often

C=Often

D=Seldom

E=Never

What the IDEAL leader SHOULD do:

- 1. Do personal favors for group members**
- 2. Make his or her attitudes clear to the group**
- 3. Do little things to make it pleasant to be a member of the group**
- 4. Try out his or her new ideas with the group**
- 5. Act as the real leader of the group**
- 6. Be easy to understand**
- 7. Rule with an iron hand**
- 8. Find time to listen to group members**
- 9. Criticize poor work**
- 10. Give advance notice of changes**

11. **Speak in a manner not to be questioned**
12. **Keep to him or herself**
13. **Look out for the personal welfare of individual group members**
14. **Assign group members to particular tasks**
15. **Be the spokesperson of the group**
16. **Schedule the work to be done**
17. **Maintain definite standards of performance**
18. **Refuse to explain his or her actions**
19. **Keep the group informed**
20. **Act without consulting the group**
21. **Back up the members in their actions**
22. **Emphasize the meeting of deadlines**
23. **Treat all group members as his or her equals**
24. **Encourage the use of uniform procedures**
25. **Get what he or she asks for from his or her superiors**
26. **Be willing to make changes**
27. **Make sure that his or her part in the organization is understood by group members**
28. **Be friendly and approachable**
29. **Ask that group members follow standard rules and regulations**
30. **Not fail to take necessary action**
31. **Make group members feel at ease when talking with them**
32. **Let group members know what is expected of them**
33. **Speak as the representative of the group**
34. **Put suggestions made by the group into operation**
35. **See to it that group members are working up to capacity**
36. **Let other people take away his or her leadership in the group**

- 37. Get his or her superiors to act for the welfare of the group members
- 38. Get group approval in important matters before going ahead
- 39. See to it that the work of group members is coordinated
- 40. Keep the group working together as a team

APPENDIX F

APPENDIX F

Connectedness Scale

Directions: Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements by selecting the appropriate choice on your answer sheet.

A	B	C	D	E
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

1. I enjoy working as a member of a team.
2. My family continues to play a role in shaping who I am.
3. I get satisfaction from feeling that I belong.
4. Being part of a team makes me feel good about myself.
5. Trying to help friends through hard times is important to me.
6. Being away from people I love tends to make me sad.
7. I can get more done with the help of other people than I can by myself.
8. It would be a terrible pain to lose the people closest to me.
9. When someone in my family is having a rough time, I tend to feel stressed myself.
10. My greatest satisfactions come from my relationships with other people.
11. Close relationships are what give my life meaning.
12. If a friend is waiting to hear some important news, I tend to feel the suspense myself.
13. Often, it is not worth the trouble of trying to work with people in a team.

14. To know the real me, it helps to know my family.
15. If I had no close relationships, I would feel incomplete.
16. The way I am in close relationships is the most important part of who I am.
17. I feel proud if I see that I have helped someone.
18. I need to know that I have the support of my family.
19. If I do something well, it brings pride to my family.
20. A good friend will accept a person for who they really are.
21. If someone in my family were to fail, I would share in their shame.
22. My friends share their feelings with me.
23. I stick with my friends, even if it means accepting some sacrifices or putting up with some unpleasantness.
24. If a friend was grieving because his/her relative had just died, I would feel like I was grieving, too.
25. The way I am seen by other people makes a difference in how I see myself.
26. When I am having a conflict or problem with my family, I tend to feel upset.
27. The joys of my friends/family are my joys.
28. A gesture of affection from someone I care about can make my day.
29. Spending time with a friend tends to make me happy.
30. If I need to talk over a problem, I would expect the people to whom I feel closest to listen and be supportive.
31. If I believe I have failed a friend, I feel distressed.
32. I let my family know how I feel.
33. Belonging to a group is a basic human need.
34. I get satisfaction from knowing that I am part of a team.

35. If something sad were to happen, I would expect my friends to be there for me.
36. The successes of my friends/family are my successes.
37. The people who are close to me will accept me no matter what.
38. I tend to be happy when a friend gets good news.
39. If I see that a friend is down, I usually do something to try to cheer him/her up.
40. Ten people working together as a group can accomplish more than ten individuals working alone.
41. My relationships help define who I am.
42. When others tell me of being very happy or very sad, I feel these emotions along with them.
43. I like to show my friends that I understand their feelings.
44. In a close friendship, you should be able to talk about anything.
45. It energizes me to reach out and help someone else.
46. I would rather work with a group on a project than by myself.
47. If someone in my family accomplished something, I would feel proud.
48. I would be willing to sacrifice in order to help a friend in need.
49. The people who care about me will be happy for me when something good happens.
50. My sense of myself comes partly from my relationships with others.

APPENDIX G

APPENDIX G

Connected Self subscale: Relationship Self Inventory (RSI)

Instructions: Read each statement below and decide how much it describes you. Using the following rating scale, select the most appropriate response and blacken the corresponding circle on the answer sheet.

Not like me at all

Very much like me

1

2

3

4

5

1. Activities of care that I perform seem to expand both me and others.
2. Caring about other people is important to me.
3. Doing things for others makes me happy.
4. If someone does something for me, I reciprocate by doing something for them.
5. I like to acquire many acquaintances and friends.
6. Relationships are a central part of my identity.
7. Those about who I care deeply are part of who I am.
8. It is necessary for me to take responsibility for the effect my actions have on others.
9. Being unselfish with others is a way I make myself happy.
10. I like to see myself as interconnected with a network of friends.
11. I believe that one of the most important things that parents can teach their children is how to cooperate and live in harmony with others.
12. I am guided by the principle of treating others as I want to be treated.

APPENDIX H

APPENDIX H

Affiliation subscale: The Adjective Checklist (ACL)

Directions: Below is a list of adjectives. Please read them and completely blacken in the (1) circle only if you consider it to be self-descriptive. Do not worry about duplications, contradictions, and so forth. Work quickly and do not spend too much time on any one adjective. Try to be frank, and completely blacken the circle for those adjectives which describe you as you really are, not as you would like to be.

1. active,
2. adaptable,
3. appreciative,
4. attractive,
5. cheerful,
6. confident,
7. considerate,
8. contented,
9. cooperative,
10. curious,
11. daring,
12. energetic,
13. good-natured,
14. initiative,
15. kind,
16. loyal,

17. **mannerly,**
18. **mature,**
19. **mischievous,**
20. **optimistic,**
21. **peaceable,**
22. **pleasant,**
23. **poised,**
24. **praising,**
25. **relaxed,**
26. **self-controlled**
27. **sociable,**
28. **talkative,**
29. **thoughtful,**
30. **trusting,**
31. **understanding**
32. **versatile,**
33. **warm,**
34. **wholesome**

APPENDIX I

APPENDIX I

Affiliation subscale: Manifest Needs Questionnaire

Directions: Below are 10 statements that describe various things people do or try to do on their jobs. Which of these statements most accurately describes your own behavior when you are at work. Blacken in the number that best describes your own actions.

1. When I have a choice, I try to work in a group instead of by myself.
2. I pay a good deal of attention to the feelings of others at work.
3. I prefer to do my own work and let other do theirs.
4. I express my disagreements with others openly.
5. I find myself talking to those around me about nonbusiness related matters.

APPENDIX J

APPENDIX J

Complete Questionnaire

Directions: Please use a pencil and completely blacken the circle that best describes your response in each area.

1. Age (Age Grid inserted)
2. How many years have you been in your current position?
3. How many years have you been employed by your company or agency?
4. Gender:
 - (0) Female
 - (1) Male
5. Marital Status:
 - (0) Single
 - (1) Married or Living with Partner
6. Race/Ethnicity
 - (1) African-American
 - (2) Caucasian
 - (3) Native American
 - (4) Asian
 - (5) Hispanic
 - (6) Other
7. What is the highest educational level you have completed?
 - (1) Some high school
 - (2) High school diploma
 - (3) Some college
 - (4) Associate's degree
 - (5) Bachelor's degree
 - (6) Master's degree
 - (7) Doctoral degree
8. What is your combined household yearly income? (including you and your spouse or partner)
 - (1) \$7,500 or below
 - (2) Between \$7,500-\$14,999
 - (3) Between \$15,000-\$24,999
 - (4) Between \$25,000-\$39,999
 - (5) Between \$40,000-\$59,999

- (6) Between \$60,000-\$89,000
- (7) \$90,000 and above

9. Which category best describes your job title?

- (1) Administrative support/Clerical (secretary, computer assistant, bookkeeper, receptionist, clerk)
- (2) Sales/Business Goods & Services (financial services, manufacturing sales rep, technician)
- (3) Handler/Laborer (stock handler, construction laborer, freight handler, packager, other)
- (4) Administration/Manager
- (5) Professional Service Provider (counselor, nurse, social worker, mental health worker, teacher)
- (6) Mechanic, Repairer (machinists, machine repairer)
- (7) Sales/retail (cashier, commodity salesperson)
- (8) Machine Operator/Assembler/Inspector
- (9) Other

10. How would you describe the nature of your job?

- (1) non-supervisory position (you have an immediate supervisor but are not responsible for supervising other employees)
- (2) first level supervisory position (you supervise employees and also have an immediate supervisor)
- (3) middle manager (you supervise supervisors and also have an immediate supervisor)
- (4) upper level supervisory position (you supervise other supervisors but do not have an immediate supervisor)
- (5) other (you do not have an immediate supervisor and/or do not supervise others)

11. Are you a

- (0) Salaried employee?
- (1) Hourly employee?

12. If you could choose between a male or female supervisor, would you choose a

- (1) female supervisor
- (2) male supervisor
- (3) no preference

13. Approximately, how many hours of work-related contact do you have with your immediate supervisor per week (verbal communication, staff meetings, informal discussions, e-mail, phone contact, etc.)?

- (1) less than 1 hour
- (2) between 1-4 hours
- (3) between 5-8 hours
- (4) more than 8 hours

The next set of questions will be about who you are in the workplace.

Directions: Below are 10 statements that describe various things people do or try to do on their jobs. Which of these statements most accurately describes your own behavior when you are at work. Blacken in the number that best describes your own actions.

1 Never	2 almost never	3 sometimes	4 almost always	5 Always
-----------------------	------------------------------	---------------------------	-------------------------------	-------------

14. When I have a choice, I try to work in a group instead of by myself.
15. I pay a good deal of attention to the feelings of others at work.
16. I prefer to do my own work and let other do theirs.
17. I express my disagreements with others openly.
18. I find myself talking to those around me about nonbusiness related matters.
19. I seek an active role in the leadership of a group.
20. I avoid trying to influence those around me to see things my way.
21. I find myself organizing and directing the activities of others.
22. I strive to gain more control over the events around me at work.
23. I strive to be "in command" when I am working in a group.

Directions: The following questions are items that may be used to describe the behavior of your "ideal" supervisor, as you think he or she should act.

This is not a test of ability. It simply asks you to describe what an ideal supervisor ought to do in supervising his or her group. (Note: The term "group" refers to a team, department, division, or other unit of organization which is supervised by your team leader/supervisor.)

- a. Please read each item carefully.
- b. Think about how frequently the "ideal" supervisor/team leader SHOULD engage in the behavior described by the item.
- c. Decide whether he or she should never, seldom, occasionally, often or always act as described by the item.
- d. Completely blacken in the number that shows the answer you have selected.

1= Never	2 = Seldom	3 = Occasionally	4 = Often	5 = Always
----------	------------	------------------	-----------	------------

In your opinion, your IDEAL supervisor SHOULD:

- | | | |
|-----|--|-----------|
| 24. | Do personal favors for group members | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 25. | Make his or her attitudes clear to the group | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 26. | Do little things to make it pleasant to be a member of the group | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 27. | Try out his or her new ideas with the group | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 28. | Act as the real leader of the group | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 29. | Be easy to understand | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 30. | Rule with an iron hand | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 31. | Find time to listen to group members | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 32. | Criticize poor work | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 33. | Give advance notice of changes | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 34. | Speak in a manner not to be questioned | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 35. | Keep to him or herself | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 36. | Look out for the personal welfare of individual group members | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 37. | Assign group members to particular tasks | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 38. | Be the spokesperson of the group | 1 2 3 4 5 |

39.	Schedule the work to be done	1 2 3 4 5
40.	Maintain definite standards of performance	1 2 3 4 5
41.	Refuse to explain his or her actions	1 2 3 4 5
42.	Keep the group informed	1 2 3 4 5
43.	Act without consulting the group	1 2 3 4 5
44.	Back up the members in their actions	1 2 3 4 5
45.	Emphasize the meeting of deadlines	1 2 3 4 5
46.	Treat all group members as his or her equals	1 2 3 4 5
47.	Encourage the use of uniform procedures	1 2 3 4 5
48.	Get what he or she asks for from his or her superiors	1 2 3 4 5
49.	Be willing to make changes	1 2 3 4 5
50.	Make sure that his or her part in the organization is understood by group members	1 2 3 4 5
51.	Be friendly and approachable	1 2 3 4 5
52.	Ask that group members follow standard rules and regulations	1 2 3 4 5
53.	Not fail to take necessary action	1 2 3 4 5
54.	Make group members feel at ease when talking with them	1 2 3 4 5
55.	Let group members know what is expected of them	1 2 3 4 5
56.	Speak as the representative of the group	1 2 3 4 5
57.	Put suggestions made by the group into operation	1 2 3 4 5
58.	See to it that group members are working up to capacity	1 2 3 4 5
59.	Let other people take away his or her leadership in the group	1 2 3 4 5
60.	Get his or her superiors to act for the welfare of the group members	1 2 3 4 5

61. Get group approval in important matters before going ahead 1 2 3 4 5
62. See to it that the work of group members is coordinated 1 2 3 4 5
63. Keep the group working together as a team 1 2 3 4 5

The following sets of questions are more about who you are as a person at work and at home, with friends, family members, etc.

Directions: Below is a list of adjectives. Please read them and completely blacken in the (1) circle only if you consider it to be self-descriptive. Do not worry about duplications, contradictions, and so forth. Work quickly and do not spend too much time on any one adjective. Try to be frank, and completely blacken the circle for those adjectives which describe you as you really are, not as you would like to be.

64. active, (1)
65. adaptable, (1)
66. appreciative, (1)
67. attractive, (1)
68. cheerful, (1)
69. confident, (1)
70. considerate, (1)
71. contented, (1)
72. cooperative, (1)
73. curious, (1)
74. daring, (1)
75. energetic, (1)
76. good-natured, (1)
77. initiative, (1)
78. kind, (1)

- 79. loyal, (1)
- 80. mannerly, (1)
- 81. mature, (1)
- 82. mischievous, (1)
- 83. optimistic, (1)
- 84. peaceable, (1)
- 85. pleasant, (1)
- 86. poised, (1)
- 87. praising, (1)
- 88. relaxed, (1)
- 89. self-controlled (1)
- 90. sociable, (1)
- 91. talkative, (1)
- 92. thoughtful, (1)
- 93. trusting, (1)
- 94. understanding (1)
- 95. versatile, (1)
- 96. warm, (1)
- 97. wholesome (1)

Directions: Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements by selecting the appropriate choice on your answer sheet.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

- 98. I enjoy working as a member of a team. 1 2 3 4 5
- 99. My family continues to play a role in shaping who I am. 1 2 3 4 5

100. I get satisfaction from feeling that I belong. 1 2 3 4 5
101. Being part of a team makes me feel good about myself. 1 2 3 4 5
102. Trying to help friends through hard times is important to me. 1 2 3 4 5
103. Being away from people I love tends to make me sad. 1 2 3 4 5
104. I can get more done with the help of other people than I can by myself. 1 2 3 4 5
105. It would be a terrible pain to lose the people closest to me. 1 2 3 4 5
106. When someone in my family is having a rough time, I tend to feel stressed myself. 1 2 3 4 5
107. My greatest satisfactions come from my relationships with other people. 1 2 3 4 5
108. Close relationships are what give my life meaning. 1 2 3 4 5
109. If a friend is waiting to hear some important news, I tend to feel the suspense myself. 1 2 3 4 5
110. Often, it is not worth the trouble of trying to work with people in a team. 1 2 3 4 5
111. To know the real me, it helps to know my family. 1 2 3 4 5
112. If I had no close relationships, I would feel incomplete. 1 2 3 4 5
113. The way I am in close relationships is the most important part of who I am. 1 2 3 4 5
114. I feel proud if I see that I have helped someone. 1 2 3 4 5
115. I need to know that I have the support of my family. 1 2 3 4 5
116. If I do something well, it brings pride to my family. 1 2 3 4 5
117. A good friend will accept a person for who they really are. 1 2 3 4 5

118. If someone in my family were to fail, I would share in their shame. 1 2 3 4 5
119. My friends share their feelings with me. 1 2 3 4 5
120. I stick with my friends, even if it means accepting some sacrifices or putting up with some unpleasantness. 1 2 3 4 5
121. If a friend was grieving because his/her relative had just died, I would feel like I was grieving, too. 1 2 3 4 5
122. The way I am seen by other people makes a difference in how I see myself. 1 2 3 4 5
123. When I am having a conflict or problem with my family, I tend to feel upset. 1 2 3 4 5
124. The joys of my friends/family are my joys. 1 2 3 4 5
125. A gesture of affection from someone I care about can make my day. 1 2 3 4 5
126. Spending time with a friend tends to make me happy. 1 2 3 4 5
127. If I need to talk over a problem, I would expect the people to whom I feel closest to listen and be supportive. 1 2 3 4 5
128. If I believe I have failed a friend, I feel distressed. 1 2 3 4 5
129. I let my family know how I feel. 1 2 3 4 5
130. Belonging to a group is a basic human need. 1 2 3 4 5
131. I get satisfaction from knowing that I am part of a team. 1 2 3 4 5
132. If something sad were to happen, I would expect my friends to be there for me. 1 2 3 4 5
133. The successes of my friends/family are my successes. 1 2 3 4 5
134. The people who are close to me will accept me no matter what. 1 2 3 4 5
135. I tend to be happy when a friend gets good news. 1 2 3 4 5

136. If I see that a friend is down, I usually do something to try to cheer him/her up. 1 2 3 4 5
137. Ten people working together as a group can accomplish more than ten individuals working alone. 1 2 3 4 5
138. My relationships help define who I am. 1 2 3 4 5
139. When others tell me of being very happy or very sad, I feel these emotions along with them. 1 2 3 4 5
140. I like to show my friends that I understand their feelings. 1 2 3 4 5
141. In a close friendship, you should be able to talk about anything. 1 2 3 4 5
142. It energizes me to reach out and help someone else. 1 2 3 4 5
143. I would rather work with a group on a project than by myself. 1 2 3 4 5
144. If someone in my family accomplished something, I would feel proud. 1 2 3 4 5
145. I would be willing to sacrifice in order to help a friend in need. 1 2 3 4 5
146. The people who care about me will be happy for me when something good happens. 1 2 3 4 5
147. My sense of myself comes partly from my relationships with others. 1 2 3 4 5
148. **Directions:** Please read each of the descriptive paragraphs below and completely blacken the circle next to the one that best describes how you feel about close relationships.

(1) It is easy for me to become emotionally close to others. I am comfortable depending on others and having others depend on me. I don't worry about being alone or having others not accept me.

(2) I am comfortable without close relationships. It is very important for me to feel independent and self-sufficient, and I prefer not to depend on others or have others depend on me.

(3) I want to be completely emotionally intimate with others, but I often find that others are reluctant to get as close as I would like. I am uncomfortable being without close relationships but I sometimes worry that others don't value me as much as I value them.

(4) I am uncomfortable getting close to others. I want emotionally close relationships, but I find it difficult to trust others completely, or to depend on them. I worry that I will be hurt if I allow myself to become too close to others.

Directions: Read each statement below and decide how much it describes you. Using the following rating scale, select the most appropriate response and blacken the corresponding circle on the answer sheet.

- | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
|---|--------------------|----------|---------|-------|-------------------|
| | Not like me at all | Disagree | Neutral | Agree | Very much like me |
| 149. Activities of care that I perform seem to expand both me and others. | | | | | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 150. Caring about other people is important to me. | | | | | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 151. Doing things for others makes me happy. | | | | | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 152. If someone does something for me, I reciprocate by doing something for them. | | | | | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 153. I like to acquire many acquaintances and friends. | | | | | 1 2 3 4 5 |

154. Relationships are a central part of my identity. 1 2 3 4 5
155. Those about who I care deeply are part of who I am. 1 2 3 4 5
156. It is necessary for me to take responsibility for the effect
my actions have on others. 1 2 3 4 5
157. Being unselfish with others is a way I make myself happy. 1 2 3 4 5
158. I like to see myself as interconnected with a network of
friends. 1 2 3 4 5
159. I believe that one of the most important things that
parents can teach their children is how to cooperate and
live in harmony with others. 1 2 3 4 5
160. I am guided by the principle of treating others as I want
to be treated. 1 2 3 4 5

THANK YOU VERY MUCH!!!

After you have completed this questionnaire, please insert it into the enclosed stamped, addressed envelope. It would be most helpful if you could return this to me before February 28 (for the lottery drawing). PLEASE DO NOT FOLD questionnaire.

To be included in the lottery drawing, please send your name, address, and phone number on a separate postcard to Karyn Boatwright 4365 Willoughby Holt, MI 48842.

By sending a separate postcard, your answers will remain confidential.

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