

SURVEY OF GENDER MANAGEMENT  
PREFERENCES OF BANK  
MANAGERS IN  
OKLAHOMA

By

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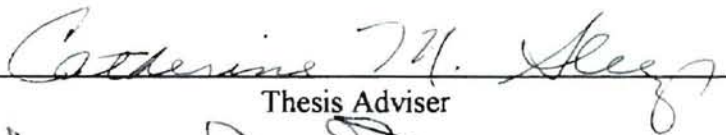
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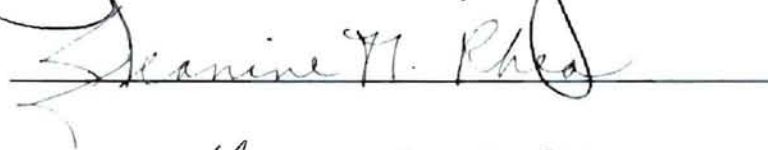
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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

The twenty-first century is less than five years away. Increasingly, the new century is being viewed as one comprising stiff competitive environments in almost every business arena. Given the rate of change, U. S. businesses should, perhaps, begin today to prepare for this new tomorrow.

The average business in the United States has a life span of 40 years (Broersma, 1995). According to Grates (1995), organizations that adapt to change may have a higher survival rate. Benveniste (1994) stated that the rules of business are changing due to a number of variables that are quickly creating a global marketplace, including increased competition and rapid changes in technology. He noted that in order to anticipate change, business enterprises should consider reinventing their roles in the marketplace and redefining the appropriate balance between management and leadership. Grates (1995) also noted that the 1990's have illustrated three primary business realizations: (1) change is here to stay, (2) workers should reapply for their jobs and operate as though they have just started working in their current positions, and (3) business organizations need to make a commitment to change the way they operate. Grates further pointed out that corporate change appears to require more than individual effort: it requires a team effort.

## Transitioning to Meet the Future

Changes in the marketplace may cause necessary alterations in the ways businesses choose to operate and survive. To successfully meet the 21st Century challenges may require business leaders to capture the essence of the changing environment and transition their businesses to adapt with minimal unnecessary chaos. The Royal Society of Arts articulated three types of businesses: (1) those that anticipate change and will therefore flourish, (2) those that react to change and will struggle to survive, and (3) those that ignore change and will not survive (Kennedy, 1995).

Similar findings can be found in the work of Broersma (1995). Broersma contended that businesses must change. Table I synthesizes his view of the old and new rules of business. For businesses to adapt to the 'new rules' may well require new forms of management, strategic planning, and strategic thinking. Businesses in the United States may need to give greater attention to the future of business in general. According to Hamel and Prahalad (1994), senior management in today's U. S. businesses spend less than 3% of their energy on building business perspectives for the future. In most cases, Hamel and Prahalad noted that less than 1% of internal energy was spent on future-thinking initiatives. Yet, as the literature highlights, businesses that choose to ignore the future and refuse to change management initiatives, may have a dim future.

## The Expectations of Tomorrow's Work Force

Another 21st Century survival issue facing businesses is future workers. Who are



Table I

The Issues and Governing Rules of Business

ISSUES	OLD RULES	NEW RULES
Organizational Structures	Vertical	Horizontal
Empowered Workers	Perform discrete tasks	Cross-functional, self-managed teams work together; share leadership
Systems Thinking	Emphasizes bureaucracy	Emphasizes systems
Ego-System Management	No protection of environment	Natural environment is a partner
Quality Focus	Review quality of finished product	Quality control is at all stages of production
Customer Service	Only customer service representatives know customers	Know who customers are

(table continues)

Table 1 (continued)

ISSUES	OLD RULES	NEW RULES
Flexibility	Produced standardized products/services	Speedily develop and deliver products and services, often customizing
Rewards	Pay on length of service	Pay based on knowledge
Organizational Learning	Technical training; basic knowledge only	Training is an investment strategy

they and how do they play a role in redefining business operations?

Labich (1995) noted the changing attitudes of business graduates. He surveyed the 1993 graduate class of Harvard Business School and discovered that the graduates wanted to carve their own niches in the business world rather than slip into opportunities provided by corporations. Further, they ranked salary seventh among the reasons for career choices. Instead, they ranked job satisfaction and level of responsibility as primary concerns, followed by company culture and caliber of colleagues. Labich concluded that these graduates feared being pigeonholed into endless jobs with little flexibility in terms of

schedules or routines. Labich's article also pointed out that the expectations of future workers were high because they desired positions where they were not required to relinquish their personal lives to business demands. In addition, Labich noted that women entering the work force were the most adamant in demanding workplace flexibility. He quoted a university student who had worked for several years as an auditor for a major firm as stating, "There is a way people are supposed to behave at work...and it's based on a male model that is hundreds of years old" (Labich, 1995, p. 50).

In essence, Labich (1995) concluded that employees want growth, variety, challenge, and careers that involve a high level of social responsibility. He also noted that these future employees expected the companies they worked for to care about them personally and professionally.

To gain insight into the differences in management preferences that might better prepare businesses for the 21st Century, research is needed that explores various components of management. This study focuses on one component of management preferences: the similarities and differences in management preferences of men and women.

### Problem Statement

The field of human resource development focuses on the human components that lead to business success. Rosener (1995) stated that in the future of business, companies will be distinguished from one another by their use of human resources. Rosener further

stated that the proper use of human resources is no longer strictly a matter of social justice. It is a bottom line issue.

Godfrey (1992) noted that women entrepreneurs have had equal or greater success rates when compared to male entrepreneurs, in spite of the fact that women are still operating with fewer financial and educational resources. In addition, Birch (in Zeller, 1995) found that businesses owned by women were twice as likely to be stable enterprises. At the same time, the concept of the glass ceiling (the invisible barrier to the advancement of women in the business arena) has been described as an obstruction to women in the corporate arena (Rigg & Sparrow, 1994; Dodd-McCue & Wright, 1996; Jacobs, 1994). Marlowe, Schneider, & Nelson (1996) found that men were more likely to be promoted to executive levels than were equally qualified women. They concluded that hiring and promotional decisions are many times based on inappropriate criteria, such as gender and attractiveness.

In addition to slow promotion, Frieze, Olson, and Good (1990) also noted that female MBA's earned significantly less than male MBA's. Their research has continued to be supported by other research (Jacob, 1992). In addition, Stroh, Brett, and Reilly (1992) discovered that women earned less and were provided fewer advancement opportunities, even though women in their sample exhibited the same career-advancement behaviors as the men.

Knowing whether there are differences between male and female managers and understanding those differences could be key in adapting businesses to better meet the 21st Century paradigm. This study addresses the problem. What are the differences

between male and female managers relative to the issues facing business in the 21st Century? Because gender differences in management preferences could differ by industry, job, and geographic location, this study focused on one population: managers working in banks located in the state of Oklahoma.

### Purpose and Research Question

The purpose of this study was to examine the extent to which males and females differed in their management preferences. The research question for the study was, 'What are the male and female management preferences of bank managers in Oklahoma relative to the anticipated business issues of the future?' The study also examined whether there was a relationship between perception of power and management style. This study provided information on how the preferences, if any, differed for this population.

### Assumptions

In conducting this study, it was assumed that:

1. The human components that lead to business success were affected by management preferences.
2. The managers who participated in this study were honest and reasonably accurate in giving information requested in the study.
3. The 21st Century will require a shift from currently accepted management practices to other forms of management

4. Training is an appropriate solution in some instances for enhancing managerial capabilities.
5. That a manager's preferred management style, as reported in this research, was a reflection of actual application in the working environment.

### Limitations

Findings and conclusions in this study were limited by:

1. The population of managers.
2. The survey instrument (i.e., the wording of certain questions on the survey may make it conducive for answers to fall into the 9,9 preference, and it was given as a self-assessment).
3. The time in which the instrument was administered.
4. The methodology employed by this research study.
5. The fact that the survey was self-reported.
6. The fact that the survey focused solely on gender (other characteristics, such as race, class, ethnicity and salary may play a role in management preference as well).

### Operational Definitions

The following definitions provide the context for this study:

1. Bank manager: A person who currently leads a bank in an overall management/leadership role(s), including the supervision of others in the

workplace. The professional titles used within this research study were senior vice president, executive vice president, vice president, assistant vice president, vice chair and/or head cashier.

2. Banks: Lending institutions that were members of the 1996 Oklahoma Banker's Association.
3. The Managerial Grid: This Grid was originally developed by Blake and Mouton (1981) to examine administrators' behaviors. The Grid was updated by Blake and McCauley (1991) to include viewing the behaviors of administrators associated with managing conflict, initiative, inquiry, advocacy, decision making, and critique. The Grid was designed to view these behaviors from different perspectives and provides an organized way of assessing administrative leadership from the vantage point of concern for organizational/institutional performance and concern for people.
4. Management Preference: An individual's naturally preferred style of management within the working environment. For this study, management preference was examined via concern for production (task) and concern for people. The seven possible preferences were 9,1, 1,9; 9+9; 1,1; 5,5; Opportunism; and 9,9
5. Managerial Dimensions. The six basic elements assessed by the Managerial Grid Questionnaire. They are conflict solving, initiative, inquiry, advocacy, decision making, and critique.

### Summary

This chapter has defined the purpose and emphasized the importance of this study, which focused on male and female management preferences. The specific population selected were managers of banks in Oklahoma who were members of the Oklahoma Bankers Association. Specific objectives and operational definitions guided the study. This was a study designed to explore this topic and extend previous research. The next chapter provides a review of the related literature on this topic.



## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter highlights the projected 21st Century business paradigm. Other instruments used to study gender and/or managerial leadership are also mentioned. A discussion of the Managerial Grid follows. The chapter then overviews male and female management preferences including the management of conflict, the exertion of effort as indicated by initiative, communication as indicated through inquiry and critique in the workplace, the development of advocacy/convictions, and the elements of decision-making.

#### The Projected Twenty-First Century Paradigm

The new rules of business may dictate a change in the way businesses are managed. Godfrey (1992, p. 53) compared new and old business considerations (see Table II). She pointed out that for these new business considerations to take hold and become the way business is routinely done may mean an upheaval in organizational structure. She noted that these new rules indicate a paradigm shift. Her views are complimented by Lee and Zemke (1993), who said that the shift is from looking at knowledge, skills and process behavior to examining values, attitudes and beliefs of the

organization and employees. Lee and Zemke pointed out that for change to occur within an organization, it was conceivable that the change must begin with the organization's people (i.e., employees). Hence, they concluded that the gateway from the old paradigm to the new paradigm might well be the individual. Understanding the management preferences of men and women can provide additional insights into the preferences from both groups that may be most useful for building stronger businesses in the 21st Century.

Table II

New Business Considerations vs. Old Business Considerations

New Considerations	Old Considerations
Work, live, love, learn	Work, work, work
Seek meaning and money	Seek money--alone
Communication with all	Communication with a few
Responsibility to all	No responsibility
Sustain it	Use it or lose it
Grow naturally	Grow fast
Work <u>and</u> family	Work <u>or</u> family

Boyett (1995) summed up the basic business principles of the 21st Century (see Table III). Businesses in the U. S. may need to adapt to a new business management

paradigm in order to successfully compete in the future. The definition of doing business appears to be changing. The picture is complex. Many businesses may need to change numerous practices to compete in the future. It appears that the new business community includes not only domestic competitors, but also foreign competitors. Even smaller

Table III

Basic Business Principles of the 21st Century

PRINCIPLE	DEFINITION
The strongest structure is one without walls	Need fewer 'walls' between people, businesses and customers
Balance of tensions	Remain disciplined, lean, focused, enhance creativity
Creation of new webs	The open corporation is really a school for entrepreneurs
In many cases, the best structure is a temporary one	With outsourcing becoming prevalent, the 'organizational chart' may change from project-to-project
Big is out--small is in	Internal interactions between divisions; no formal hierarchy; spider-web structure

members of the European Union (such as the Netherlands) are beginning to compete (and, therefore, think strategically) on a global basis (Gordon, Morgan & Ponticell, 1994).

Boyett (1995) also pointed out that businesses in the U. S. continue to lag in their willingness to change their existing business paradigms. He studied a group of U. S. companies who had reengineered their businesses. Boyett found that 90% of these companies wanted to reduce expenses; less than one-half were successful. He also found that three-fourths of these companies desired production improvement; only 22% succeeded. In addition, Boyett also recognized that more than one-half of these companies wanted to improve cash flow; less than 25% succeeded. Significantly, more than one-half of the companies surveyed expected to reduce bureaucracy or speed up the decision-making process; only 15% reported success. Many of these companies also sought improvements in customer service, product quality, innovation, and implementation of new technology; less than 10% succeeded. Boyett concluded that, in effect, the attempt by these companies to reengineer in accordance with the predicted future of business was a massive failure. He noted that moving from single centered leadership to multiple centered leadership, from total use of internal sources to outsourcing for expertise, from independent actions to interdependent actions, from vertical directives to horizontal directives, from a uniform structure to a diverse structure, and from an emphasis on efficiency to an emphasis on flexibility required a well-versed approach with multiple dimensions represented and explored. Morrison and Schmid (1994) added to Boyett's findings by noting that actual application is another dimension that requires additional education, people skills, clear communication and incentives for

successful application. Related to this application is the administrative style, or preference, of the individual incorporating these new dimensions in business.

#### Instruments Used to Study Gender and/or Managerial Leadership

Instruments used in studying gender and/or managerial leadership include:

Spence's (1975) Personal Attributes Questionnaire (PAQ), Blake, Mouton and Williams' (1981) Managerial Grid Questionnaire, Hersey and Blanchard's (1974) Leadership Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (LEAD) Self Questionnaire, Fiedler's (1967) Least Preferred Coworker (LPC) Scale, Bem's (1974) Sex Role-Inventory (BSRI)-Short Form, Ziller's (1973) measures of self-esteem and self-complexity, Stogdill's (1963) Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire, and House and Dressler's (1974) ten-item job structure scale. Additional studies of managerial leadership have included the use of the Leader Behavior Analysis II (Blanchard, Hambleton, & Zigarmi, 1991), Bass' (1985) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, and Kouses' and Posner's (1987) Leadership Practices Inventory.

#### The Managerial Grid

According to Blake, Mouton and Williams (1981), administrative style encompasses how an individual works with others throughout a traditional work day routine. They developed a managerial assessment Grid which includes elements of attitudes, sharing of ideas, conflict resolution, individual temperament, level of delegation, and the level to which others are involved in the administrative process. Blake and

McCanse (1991) have updated the Grid and contend that the differences among these administrative styles could be separated by examining the dimensions of conflict, initiative, inquiry, advocacy, decision making and critique. These six dimensions of interactions may convey primary assumptions about the individual's relationships with others.

Since the literature review for this study revealed differences between men and women as they each relate to others (people) and differences between the two groups in the ways they achieve end results for their businesses (production), the Managerial Grid appeared appropriate and relevant.

The Managerial Grid Questionnaire includes six dimensions of leadership. These six dimensions and their definitions, as provided by Blake and McCanse (1991), are as follows:

**Conflict Solving:** Conflict results from differing points of view, and may be either destructive or constructive, depending on how individuals respond to it. Facing conflict and striving to resolve issues may lead to mutual understanding and therefore respect. Coping inappropriately or not at all with conflict may lead to disrespect of co-workers and/or hostility.

**Initiative:** This dimension involves the character and magnitude of effort, or approach, supporting actions that are taken. It measures the degree to which individuals might be inclined to take action, shift directions, or stop an action.

**Inquiry:** Inquiry is the gaining of facts and data from co-workers. Inquiry is asking appropriate questions rather than taking situations for granted.

**Advocacy:** This dimension measures the degree to which an individual may or may

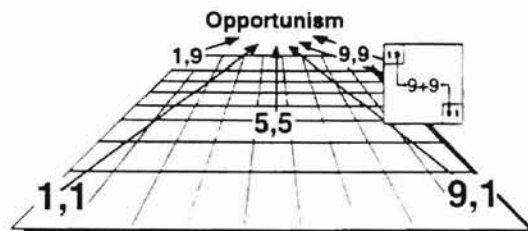
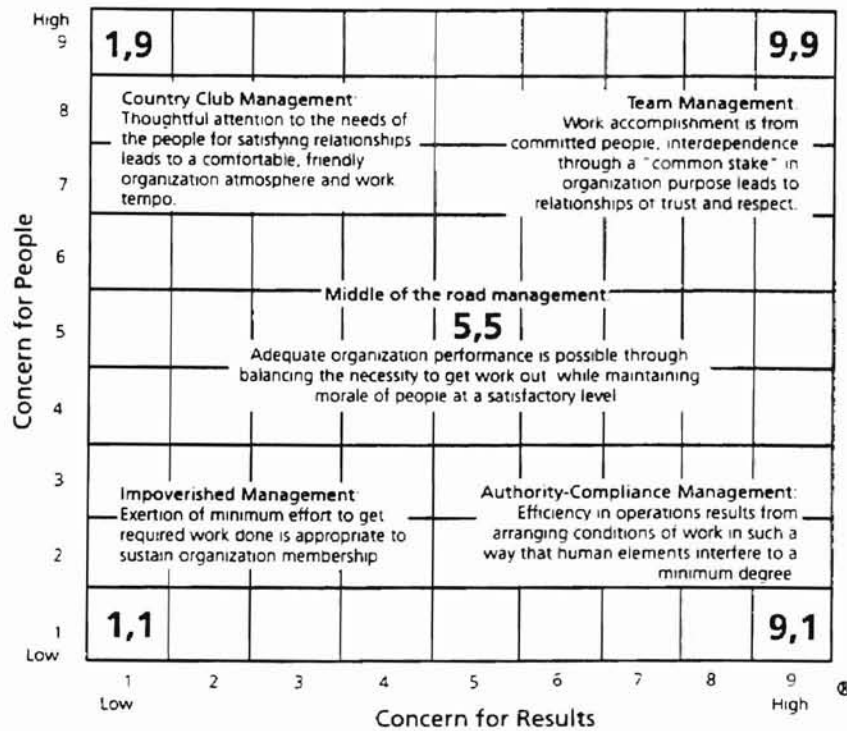
not be willing to take a stand on a particular situation. It evolves around the individual's ability to voice convictions. How an individual advocates his or her convictions in the workplace is what is indicative of that person's leadership preference for dealing with people.

**Decision Making:** When decisions are made, resources are applied to performance. Decisions can be made on varying levels (i.e., by the leader, by delegation to a group of managers, or by a cross-functional team of co-workers). How decisions are made relates to preferred preferences for production and people.

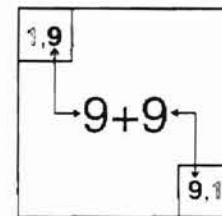
**Critique:** Critiquing a process for strengths and/or weaknesses for purposes of improvement is imperative to organizational success. Critique measures the individual's willingness to step aside and view alternative possibilities to improve performance or to anticipate challenges. It encompasses the concepts of feedback and review.

For this study, individuals completing the assessment were asked to rank seven statements under each dimension listed above from 7 (most likely to engage in this behavior) to 1 (least likely to engage in this behavior). From these rankings, individuals received a score for each of the preferences. According to Blake and McCauley (1991), the preference with the highest score is the individual's dominant leadership style. The highest possible score for a particular style is 42, which would reflect the same amount of concern for production and people. The lowest possible score is 6. The scores were plotted on the Grid, with the results for each individual falling within one of seven styles. A brief description of all seven styles, as relative to managerial preference, follows (refer to Figure 1, the Leadership Grid)

## The Leadership Grid Figure



People adapt and shift to any Grid style needed to gain the maximum advantage. Performance occurs according to selfish gain. Effort is given for advantage or personal gain.



**9+9: Paternalism/Maternalism**  
Reward and approval gain loyalty and obedience to work requirement. Failure leads to punishment.

**Figure 1.** The Leadership Grid. The top grid captures the various management styles envisioned by Blake and McCauley as relative to concern for people and concern for results. Also represented above are the dimensions of Opportunism and Paternalism/Maternalism

Source  
The Leadership Grid® figure, Paternalism Figure and Opportunism from *Leadership Dilemmas--Grid Solutions*, by Robert R. Blake and Anne Adams McCauley (Formerly the *Managerial Grid* by Robert R. Blake and Jane S. Mouton), Houston: Gulf Publishing Company, 1964. Grid Figure, P. 29, Paternalism Figure, p. 30, Opportunism Figure, p. 31. Copyright 1991 by Scientific Methods, Inc. Reproduced by permission of the owner.



1,9: Country Club Management--Considerate attention to the needs of people for fulfilling relationships leads to a comfortable, amiable organizational atmosphere and work pace (Blake & McCauley, 1991, p. 29).

9,9: Team Management--Work achievement is from devoted people; interdependence through a "common stake" in organizational purpose leads to affiliations of trust and respect (Blake & McCauley, 1991, p. 29).

5,5: Middle of the Road Management--Adequate organizational performance is possible through balancing the need to get out work with maintaining morale of people at an adequate level (Blake & McCauley, 1991, p. 29).

1,1: Impoverished Management--Exertion of minimum effort to get necessary work done is appropriate to maintain organizational membership (Blake & McCauley, 1991, p. 29).

9,1: Authority-Compliance--Efficiency in organizational operations result from arranging work conditions so that human elements interfere to a minimum degree (Blake & McCauley, 1991, p. 29).

9+9: Paternalistic/Maternalistic Management--Reward and applause are given to people in return for loyalty and obedience; lack of compliance leads to punishment (Blake & McCauley, 1991, p. 30).

Opportunistic Management: Meshes several or all of the other Grid styles, including paternalism; performance occurs according to a system of exchanges, where effort is given only for an equivalent measure of the same. People within the organization adjust to the situation to gain the ultimate advantage from it (Blake & McCauley, 1991, p.

30-31).

The Managerial Grid has been used to assess leadership styles in the academic world (Blake, Mouton, & Williams, 1981), the political world (Blake & Mouton, 1985), and the organizational world (Broadwell, 1995).

Some concerns have been mentioned with regard to the Managerial Grid. According to Blake (personal communication, October 30, 1996), the aspiration of supervisors should be to develop and maintain the 9,9 (Team Management) style. To do this, Blake suggested that organizations employ training after supervisors rate themselves and after subordinates then rate these supervisors.

Blake's (personal communication, October 30, 1996) thrust is on training. He operates training programs through his company, Scientific Methods, Inc. He firmly expressed his belief that structured training interventions are necessary to close the gap between the 9,9 self-assessment and the ranking given by subordinates. Only then, according to Blake, can the gap between the subordinate assessment and the desired 9,9 management style be narrowed.

In addition, Rachel McKee of Scientific Methods, Inc. (personal communication, April 14, 1997) stated that self-assessment will almost always reveal a 9,9 preference. McKee further contended that most supervisors assess themselves as managing in the 9,9 style (which reveals what they see as best rather than what they actually see in themselves), whereas subordinates many times rank their supervisors otherwise. With the input of subordinates, Blake (personal communication, October 30, 1996) ascertained that many managers/leaders discover that their self-assessed 9,9 management preferences are in

opposition to the style in which subordinates rank them.

Broadwell (1995) pointed out that even after training was employed to develop the 9,9 management style, many supervisors still operated in the 9,1 (Autocratic Management) style. However, McKee (personal communication, April 14, 1997) stated that after a five day intensive training intervention focused on teamwork, critique, and feedback, supervisors shift their self-perceptions away from the 9,9 previous self-assessment. McKee noted that 65% of supervisors ranked themselves as 9,9 managers initially, whereas only 20% ranked themselves as operating from the 9,9 Grid preference after five days of training. Therefore, McKee emphasized that using the Grid as a stand alone measurement tool may not accurately reflect Grid management style that is actually being used in the workplace by the supervisor.

On the other hand, Blanchard (1991) insisted that the maturity of the subordinate as well as the degree of difficulty of the task-at-hand played the major roles in how a supervisor might decide to best supervise. This ability by supervisors to adapt their managerial styles to the needs of the situation is the very premise of Blanchard's situational leadership theory. Blanchard strongly emphasized the importance of supervisors adapting to situations. But, according to Blanchard, "There are still people out there who think there is only one best way to leading people" (p. 23). Although Blake (personal communication, October 30, 1996) stressed the importance of 9,9 (Team Management) leadership skills, Blake and McCause (1991) have also stated that few individuals consistently operate from the same Grid style.

Lester (1991) quoted a colleague as stating, "If all Blake had offered was a

framework, that would have been the end of it. But...he devised the first, most complete and most sophisticated leadership package for those who wished to study organisational development” (p. 96). Lester also stated that with the flattening of organizational structures and with the reduced number of middle managers, the applications for the Managerial Grid could be endless. This view is in direct alignment with Blake and McCauley’s (1996) view of the possible applications for this Grid.

The Managerial Grid Theory has been used as the model for validating other self-report measures of conflict management styles (Van de Vliert & Kabanoff, 1990). Other authors have also referred to the Managerial Grid as the foremost premise in the field of conflict management (Kabanoff, 1987; Pruitt & Rubin, 1986; Rahim, 1986).

Edwards, Rode and Ayman (1989) studied the construct validity of four leadership scales (Fleishman’s Leader Opinion Questionnaire, Blake and Mouton’s Managerial Grid Questionnaire, Hersey and Blanchard’s LEAD-Self Questionnaire, and Fiedler’s LPC Scale). Edwards, Rode and Ayman were particularly interested in obtaining information on whether leadership would be identified for the same individual using all four questionnaires. Their findings suggested that researchers should be prudent in generalizing findings that result from more than one instrument.

Conceptually, Blake, Mouton and Williams (1981) defined the six elements of interactions, or dimensions, which have been updated by Blake and McCauley (1991), as follows.

The first element is the management of conflict. Blake, Mouton and Williams (1981) saw conflict as either disruptive or constructive. They stated that a lack of ability

to cope with conflict in a creative manner would lead to a heightened sense of hostility and strife. In reverse, clear thinking and the ability to cope with conflict in a creative manner would dissolve any sense of favoritism and dogmatism.

Blake, Mouton and Williams (1981) also stated that the emotional tone of managers had a contagious effect on others in the workplace. Temper is “an emotional reaction to stress, tension and strain” (p. 6). The authors further contended that in the midst of a volatile situation, managers who control their emotions tend to gain the confidence of those around them, which reinforces respect for their leadership. On the other hand, managers who show little or no emotion in situations tend to be perceived as not being trustworthy. Managers of this type tend to not understand the full importance of situations and have little or no empathy for others.

An example used to assess conflict is: “When conflict arises, I try to find a reasonable position that everyone can live with” (Blake & McCauley, 1991, p. 18).

The second element is the exertion of effort as indicated by initiative. Blake, Mouton and Williams (1981) stated that productive people create energy in others. Productive managers use their enthusiasm to positively motivate others to have a sense of workplace optimism. When managers do not have this sense of enthusiasm, co-workers have a greater tendency to be apathetic about their work. On the other hand, when managers tend to work frantically, co-workers begin to feel overwhelmed and as if their efforts are limited and carry no weight in the project.

An example of a statement used to assess initiative is. “I expect others to follow my lead and extend positive appreciation to those who support my efforts” (Blake &

McCanse, 1991, p. 18).

Third is communication through the use of inquiry. Inquiry can serve as a buffer for conflict by providing answers to questions. The quality of this process depends on thoroughness. According to Blake & McCanse (1991), a key element in inquiry is asking the right questions rather than taking information for granted.

An example used to assess inquiry is: "I search for and seek to verify information; I invite and listen for ideas and attitudes different than my own; I continuously test the soundness of my own thinking by comparing it with the thinking of others" (p. 19).

The dimension of critique is fourth. Critique is used by managers to study a situation and review potential alternatives. Adequate reflection can prevent adverse consequences. Without feedback and critique, situations are unlikely to change. Insisting on feedback and critique, however, provides a solid foundation for working more effectively with other people to see a task to fruition. Effective critiquing moves resources into measurable results; without critique, managers tend to operate blindly.

An example used to assess the dimension of critique is: "I give informal or indirect feedback to keep others moving forward at an acceptable pace; if I have to say something negative, I make sure I have something positive to say as well" (Blake & McCanse, 1991, p. 22).

Through inquiry and critique, humor may be used as a way to bring unexpressed thoughts and attitudes into focus. Blake, Mouton and Williams (1981) saw humor as a way for managers to neutralize emotions, break stalemates, and provide depth to issues of conflict. Blake, Mouton and Williams saw managers with a positive sense of humor as

building a sense of teamwork in the quest of established goals. In addition, a positive sense of humor may be the hallmark of a creative thinker who can inspire others and create feelings of harmony. Little or no humor by managers, according to the authors, may lead to a lifeless workplace with little sense of connection.

Advocacy/sense of conviction is the fifth element. Blake, Mouton and Williams (1981) stated that managers who are respected tend to think for themselves and tend to hold strong convictions. Accordingly, managers who have strong convictions are seen as having a greater understanding of workplace concerns. In addition, the authors contended that these managers also have a clearer sense of purpose and the ability to appropriately delegate responsibilities to others. Conversely, Blake, Mouton and Williams contended that managers without strong convictions are perceived as “uncertain, anxious, indifferent, or even incapable of addressing the real issues” (p. 5).

An example from the updated Managerial Grid relative to convictions is: “I express my convictions in a tentative way and try to meet others halfway” (Blake & McCauley, 1991, p. 20)

The sixth element is decision making. Decisions define the path for bringing a project to completion. The point where managers make a commitment to follow a particular plan indicates their degree of conviction in choosing that specific plan of action. Managers “who are decisive and can solve problems are viewed as effective leaders, confident and capable” (Blake, Mouton & Williams, 1981, p. 4). The authors also stated that this sense of confidence in leadership promoted respect from co-workers. On the other hand, Blake, Mouton and Williams said that managers who are inconsistent with

their answers and choose to fluctuate from one decision to another are viewed as weak managers.

An example from the Managerial Grid with regard to decision making is: "I search for workable decisions that others find acceptable" (Blake & McCauley, 1991, p. 21).

The sections that follow detail each element described by Blake and McCauley (1991) in terms of gender and current thinking and research.

### Understanding Conflict Between the Genders

Kipnis and Herron (1994) noted that U. S. society is a breeding ground for gender conflict due to vastly differing gender perceptions of what constitutes actual conflict and to deeply engendered socialization patterns. These authors pointed out that U. S. culture tends to clothe itself in a mass of non-verbal cues, and that these cues mean different things to each gender. In addition, Thoits (1987) reported that conflict multiplied its presence with changing times, which may mean adaptations are needed on the part of both genders in order to meet the evolving roles for men and women.

Tempers flare and conflicts arise between the genders as they each try to deal with the double binds that they have created for themselves (Gherardi, 1995). According to Tannen (1990), most men view conflict as a necessary element of life, as a means for negotiating status. Tannen reported that men see conflict as an acceptable form of behavior that should be sought, welcomed, and appreciated

Tannen (1990) reported that women, on the other hand, see conflict as a threat to connectedness and closeness. In addition, Tannen stated that men tend to welcome an air



of contest, struggle and competition. She reported that women, however, tend to mediate conflict and tend to fight for real rather than for ceremonial purposes.

Also leading to misunderstandings and therefore conflicts and expressions of temper is the unfairness that exists between the genders with regard to ethics and moral codes of professional behavior (Gherardi, 1995). Gherardi observed that men were socially allowed the right to lose their tempers, be verbally assertive, and use foul language. In contrast, Gherardi noted that women were not allowed the same negative expressions. Furthermore, Gherardi observed that it was professionally acceptable for men to create business solutions without asking for assistance from other colleagues and that when women called on others for assistance, men confused their request for support with weakness. Gherardi observed the extreme frustration that this and other misperceptions led women to feel. Yet, according to Tingley (1993), men expect women to openly and directly voice their displeasures with male misperceptions. Tingley reported that men become frustrated at women's lack of directed speech. Contrastly, women

“are confused because if they exhibit the direct, confrontive, and assertive behaviors that in male culture are called ‘courage, leadership ability, and directness,’ they are labeled ballbreakers or bitches. Yet, if they are friendly and collegial, then men assume that they are on the make. This double standard is driving women crazy” (Kipnis & Herron, 1994, p. 221).

On the other hand, men are confused because

“they are told that women are a special category of people, from a completely different culture, with a host of special sensitivities and

protocols that are different from the acceptable protocols that men use man to man. Men discover that women often do not clearly communicate just what those protocols are, but expect men to figure them out. If men guess wrong, then they are accused of bad behavior. A women recently won a sixty-thousand-dollar lawsuit against a foreman because he swore at her. A similar suit by a male employee, however, would seem ludicrous” (Kipnis & Herron, 1994, p. 221).

Many researchers say that conflict can be positive and creative (Berndt, 1994). However, Berndt stated that regard for structural conditions is necessary to fully understand the positive and creative nature of temper and conflict. Berndt perceived that the two genders view conflict and the resulting flare of tempers as states that must be resolved in favor of one gender or the other. Until the two genders understand each other’s origins of feelings and communication patterns, neither gender may ever effectively see the creative and healthy components of conflict.

Chusmir and Mills (1989) reported that men and women tended to deal with conflict more competitively at work than at home. At home, both genders were more accommodating to each other. However, these researchers noted that male managers were less likely to compromise at home. Nieva and Gutek (1981) said that “women in leadership positions function similarly to men in the same circumstances” (p. 86). However, they also noted that the ‘circumstances’ were many times not the same due to preconceived perceptions of others.

Chusmir and Mills’ (1989) research revealed that regardless of work position,

women managers used compromise in dealing with conflict first, followed by avoidance, collaboration, accommodation, and competition. Men, on the other hand, used collaboration first, followed by compromise, avoidance, competition, and accommodation. These researchers reported that both genders occupying upper managerial positions were more likely to use the competing mode to deal with conflict, and that this observation was especially true for men. They also discovered that although women competed when necessary, they tended to cooperate and collaborate more often than men.

Chusmir and Mills (1989) concluded that the use of power and use of conflict resolution behaviors may well be related. Their studies revealed that gender difference was not the deciding factor in conflict resolution style. The deciding factor was hierarchical position.

As businesses strive to gain competitive advantages through positive conflict resolution and creative brainstorming processes between the members of its work force, it may be interesting to review the exertion of effort in relation to building viable business organizations.

#### The Exertion of Effort as Indicated by Initiative

The workplace of the future appears to be a new road to travel for most people involved in business enterprises. With regard to the exertion of effort to create better business environments, research centers specifically on business practices and not on gender differences in creating new business environments. Therefore, this section focuses on business practices that relate to exertion of effort including workplace education and

training, and management skills that may be needed to motivate employees.

### Workplace Education and Training

With the new sense of empowerment predicted to exist in more business environments, Turock (1995) predicted more employee 'teams' working together to solve problems and create solutions. However, "Empowerment without training is abdication" (Turock, 1995, p. 104).

As the following discussion reports, America's top business gurus agree that employer-emphasized education is an absolute for a viable work force to exist, especially in light of the increase in competition and the new emphasis on people versus machines, tools and technology. These gurus further agree that the technology exists and that training on proper use of new technology is readily available. They predicted that how technology is used is what will matter. They stated that how technology is used depends on the power of the mind, the level of creativity, brainstorming, exchanging ideas, and product development via teamwork. Work force education to these gurus, then, is inevitable.

According to Drucker (1992), business organizations need to become contemporary thinkers and realize that it now matters whether or not people learn. He further stated that the focus of learning was beginning to shift from schools to employers. In the words of Lester Thurow (1992), "Competition revolves around the following questions: Who can make the best products? . . . Who has the best-educated and best-skilled work force in the world? Without a much better trained work force, they will not

be competitive” (Gordon, Morgan & Ponticell, 1994, p. 194). Naisbitt (1990) stated that capital is becoming a global commodity. The valuable business component, then, becomes human resources. Naisbitt observed that a business’ competitive edge will be in human resources. He further contended that America’s number one economic priority should be education and training.

According to Ray Marshall, former Secretary of Labor, and Marshall Tucker, President of the National Center on Education and the Economy, “The successful firm is the firm that organizes itself as a learning system in which every part is designed to promote and accelerate both individual learning and collective learning--and to put that learning to productive use” (Gordon, Morgan & Ponticell, 1994, p. 195).

Peter Senge (1990) stated that a lack of continuing education in the work force will result in vastly untapped resources. He suggested that innovation in human behavior must be considered a discipline. Any discipline, he contended, requires a continuous effort for improvement. He further insisted that excellence is never permanent, but that the corporation is always in the state of rehearsing the disciplines of learning and of growing to become better or worse.

With regard to the increase in use of work teams, business leaders within the American Management Association recently addressed the concern that self-managed work teams are not working. After in-depth consideration and reviewing the facts, their recommendations included having all employees complete organizational training in basic management skills, problem-solving techniques and decision-making processes. This recommended training is similar to training that has been traditionally saved for managers

(Gordon, Morgan & Ponticell, 1994). As a result, U. S. organizations should consider adopting concrete procedures for meeting the educational challenges of global competition. Companies such as Nucor Steel, Lincoln Electric, Wal-Mart, Motorola, Sara Lee, Harley-Davidson, and GM Electro-Motive have begun to employ the Work Force Education Triad cited by Gordon, Morgan & Ponticell.

The three primary components of Gordon, Morgan, and Ponticell's (1994) triad are (1) education, which consists of cognitive-based instruction in areas such as quality, work teams, problem solving, creativity, technical education, and thinking skills, (2) skills, which encompasses writing, reading, math, English as a second language, and foreign language, and (3) training, which emphasizes behavior and cognitive-based instruction in the areas of basic management, supervision, service, and production behaviors.

### Management Skills

Klubnik (1995) also cited the skills needed to create a new management paradigm for the 21st Century business culture. She suggested that the characteristics consist of observation, listening, whimsy, sensitivity, system-driven skills, and peer-to-peer skills. She pointed out that if these characteristics are coupled with what highly productive employees say motivates them (respect for diversity, desire for empowerment, the sharing of goals, professional training, and open communication), along with the ever-present emergence of the new rules of business, we can begin to visualize the components of individuals who motivate others effectively. These modern, 21st Century components seem to center more on values, meaning, communication and family (both professional and

personal). In fact, the newest pressure facing upper management may well be accountability in areas that possibly affect people as deeply as the nature of their jobs, which is "the degree to which bosses support their efforts to 'have a life' outside work" (Shellenbarger, 1995, p. B-1).

According to Klubnik (1995), recognition is one of the most powerful workplace motivators. She observed that management must begin to walk their talk as they strive to build viable business cultures geared for success. Her notations indicated that management may need to begin to include employees in decisions, to praise individual employees, to share information with employees, and to build relationships with employees.

It may be significant to note characteristics of managers who motivate in modern business America. Champy (1995) reported his interest in management was to assist businesses in improving performance. His premise centered on reengineering functions through managers by teaching them new paradigms for operational processes. According to Champy, reengineering proved to be successful, yet companies still fell far short of their potential. Champy concluded that his revolutionary work omitted an ever-important variable: people. Reengineering 'work', or operational processes, without reengineering 'management' led to less than satisfactory results.

Champy (1995) has since included four initiatives that managers must address if reengineering is to work toward total fruition (1) issue of purpose, (2) issue of culture, (3) issue of process and performance, and (4) issue of people. Champy pointed out that reengineering is the simple realization that the old ways of management (with charts,

company schemes and traditional hierarchies) no longer apply.

In summary, decision-makers in U. S. businesses may be trying to motivate employees with antiquated motivational techniques. According to Berry, "We need ways of motivating people to understand and work within the new organizational structure we've created, and in my mind that kind of motivation is very simple. It boils down to respect for the individual" (Caudron, 1995, p. 13).

A look at the communication patterns of inquiry and critique that are common among each gender may help shed light on many of the misunderstandings (and therefore conflicts) that arise between men and women.

#### Communication as Indicated Through Inquiry and Critique

Related to conflict are the misunderstandings that are wrought by each gender in the areas of inquiry and critique. Common, everyday workplace communications provide a glimpse into gender relationships and conflict development. Gherardi (1995) suggested that this typical communication ground could help researchers make correct representations of gender membership as well as guide them in knowing how to deal with situations when members of a given gender are angered. According to Gherardi, "...the true glue of organizations is the emotional structures that map out the invisible walls and corridors according to the positive and negative feelings that tie people together" (p. 158). Gherardi also stated that understanding aggressive and submissive behavior, gender competition, perceptions of social dominance, anger and fear, and other emotional states provides the key to interpreting the dynamics of survival. This understanding, according



to Gherardi, may provide a rational guide to dealing with misunderstandings that lead to heightened tempers and conflict between genders.

Tingley (1993) pointed out misunderstood communication patterns between the two genders and suggested that these conflicting misunderstandings are both a cause and a consequence of past hostilities and threatened existence. Tingley stated that the five most common workplace communication problems between the two genders are that (1) men are too authoritative, (2) men do not take women seriously in business environments, (3) women are too emotional, (4) men do not accept women as co-workers or bosses, and (5) women often do not speak up. All of these observations seem to be directly or indirectly related to the concepts of inquiry and critique.

Underlying these gender perceptions is a socialization factor. Berndt (1994) reported that friendship was defined differently by young boys and girls. The boys' definitions centered on a competitive spirit; the girls' definition focused on trust and sharing intimate information. In addition, Tannen (1990) reported that boys who had a concern about another boy were not hesitant to say so in front of a group of boys, as well as the other boy. In contrast, Tannen noted that girls who had a concern about another girl tended to talk to each other in the absence of the other girl. Tannen suggested, then, that boys see the girls' way of handling a conflictual situation as talking behind someone's back. Therefore, Tannen stated that men may perceive that women are sacrificing openness and honesty for harmony.

Tingley (1993) concluded that differences in the style and structure of communication (i.e., differing methods of inquiry and critique) lead to conflictual

overtones. Table IV exhibits Tingley's conclusions on the major communication differences that cause the two genders' tempers to flare and hence, conflicts to arise.

Table IV

Gender Communication Differences

Men's Communication	Women's Communication
Express desire to correct/fix the situation	Express desire to understand the situation
See conversation as a competition	See conversation as supportive
Talk to resolve problems	Talk to connect and relate to other people
Are precise and to the point	Are apologetic and vague
Are not interested in the descriptive details	Desire detailed information

Also noting these basic communication differences as a foundation for conflict is Gayle, Preiss and Allen (1994). They noted that, based on socialized communication patterns, men tended to use competition as a conflict management strategy, whereas women tended to use compromise. They also found that both genders used their preferred conflict management strategies across different situations and contexts. Therefore, Gayle, Preiss and Allen concluded that the two conflict management strategies of competition and compromise may be inherently tied to gender roles rather than being strategies that were

evolved over the length of the conflictual interaction.

As a consideration, will men and women understand and accept each other's methods of inquiry and critique more readily if they have worked together longer? Bhatnager and Swamy's (1995) research revealed that increased interaction between the two genders at work did not lead to more positive attitudes by men toward women as managers. However, they reported a significant positive relationship between the men's contentment with the interaction with women and the men's attitudes toward women as managers.

Connected to these different patterns of communication, strategies, and attitudes are the numerous perceptions each gender has of the other. Gherardi (1995) reported that these perceptions were a breeding ground for conflict because the double binds they create lead to gender relationships that many times are in automatic conflict with each other. It was no surprise to Gherardi, then, that the perceptions of both genders about each other were interpreted as antagonistic. Gherardi also stated that the codes of courtesy that guide gender relationships are changing.

Traditionally, women tend to comply with male anger, temper, and frustration as a way to avoid conflict (Tannen, 1990). However, Tannen reported that by avoiding conflict, women opened themselves up to exploitation. Tannen recognized that women desire to get their way as much as men, but that women are not as willing to purchase their way at the cost of conflict. Kipnis and Herron (1994) also ascertained that in modern U. S. culture, women tend to think they are better than men because of their avoidance of conflict and their belief in compromise. Kipnis and Herron found an underlying element of

hostility in women who felt that men were already well cared for, and therefore that men deserved less support. According to Tingley (1993), this underlying hostility may come from women's age-old indignations of harassment, unequal pay and privileges, and inadequate workplace promotions. Tingley also reported that many women were beginning to lack sympathy for men's feelings of hurt, anger and confusion.

Men, on the other hand, regarded their own sense of humanity and justice as superior to women's (Kipnis & Herron, 1994). Kipnis and Herron reported that men equated power with the ability to enter into healthy conflict (which contains elements of both inquiry and critique) and expression of their tempers. These authors found that men were afraid of the psychological, emotional, and sexual power that the newly evolving roles for women might bring forth. Hence, Kipnis and Herron said that men, out of fear of the unknown, sought ways to control women. Ironically, Kipnis and Herron found that men preferred women to be weak and dependent. These same men considered weak and dependent women to be inferior. According to Kipnis and Herron, men are socialized to think that their work is more important than women's work and that they (men) have therefore made more sacrifices than women. Most men in Kipnis' and Herron's study stated that the lives of women are easier, softer and protected. Hence, an underlying hostility for men might be that women owe them something for all their hard work and sacrifices. Berndt (1994) also noted this equation of power and conflict. Power to men, according to Berndt, is perhaps equated in men's views, to the fact that males tend to make more money, have the more demanding jobs, and have the responsibility of being the bread-winner for their families. Berndt concluded, then, that men see money as giving

their earnings more weight, which in turn gives their preferences more weight. Berndt stated that in situations involving increased temper and potential conflict, men are not willing to sacrifice their self-perceived position of power in order to renegotiate the situation.

Gherardi (1995) also noted that men exercised their self-defined sense of power toward women in numerous ways. Gherardi specifically reported that men saw women with careers as working two shifts. With this perception was the connotation of domestic and nurturing work, which negated the career competence of women. The men were, in essence, using their perceived power to verbally deny women citizenship in the infrastructure of business organizations.

According to Kipnis and Herron (1994), men are more aware of the unspoken language that guides action, whereas women are more aware of the unspoken subtleties of feelings. This is a powerful observation since more than fifty percent of human communication is non-verbal (Kipnis & Herron, 1994). However, Tannen (1990) reported that men are more likely to fight playfully, while women are reluctant to fight openly. In addition, Tannen stated that women want to know the why behind conflicts, whereas men express the concern that saying why was intrusive to their independence. Therefore, men and women differ in what they perceive to be appropriate forms of inquiry

Gherardi (1995) also pointed out that when women gain acceptance by men and when their work gains value by men, that men extend communication rituals that are exclusive to the male gender (i.e., slaps on the back) Morrison, White, and Van Velsor (1987) reported that women in managerial positions are many times required to exhibit

behaviors acceptable by their male counterparts. These researchers also noted that women are implicitly required to show more strengths and fewer weaknesses in order to be seen as equals to their male peers.

Gherardi (1995) further insisted that this male acceptance makes women feel as if their femaleness is devalued. In other words, women feel they become accepted as people but devalued as women. Therefore, Gherardi observed that many women become angry at the simple expressions of male acceptance. Gherardi concluded that many women live in a world of contradictory signals. As she stated, women are expected to “be equal but at the same time different” (p. 97). Gherardi further stated that women should always be ready to answer which stereotype gender role they wish to follow.

Thoits (1987) stated that the extent to which men accept women in work situations is directly proportionate to the capability of each gender to come to amiable terms that allow them to constructively mediate solutions to their conflicts. Yet, as Kipnis and Herron (1994) pointed out, “What we love and admire about one another is startlingly similar to what we hate and fear” (p. 197). In addition, Tingley (1993) concluded that men may well be frozen by the changing rules of business, and that men simply do not know what to do or how to act. Women experience discomfort as well (Burke & McKeen, 1996). Burke and McKeen reported that women who occupied upper managerial positions in organizations dominated by men were less job satisfied than women in organizations with fewer men at upper managerial levels.

Tingley (1993) stated that if men and women hope to increase their understandings of one another (inquiry), persuade each other constructively (critique), and create positive

business environments, then each gender may need to become more proficient in adapting its own communicative style with the opposite gender's communicative style. According to Kipnis and Herron (1994), the two genders simply may need to consider valuing the complementary natures of each gender's differences. In fact, as stated by Kipnis and Herron,

“The whole political move toward equality through sameness ignores the practical reality that in any given situation a woman or a man may be the most suited for leadership by virtue of experience and ability, rather than because of any stereotypical gender expectations we might have of them. There are times when a woman or a man must exhibit leadership on the basis of personal characteristics, rather than gender authority” (p. 188).

According to Sharma (1990), leaders in organizations (who are usually men) tend to select management teams made up of individuals with characteristics most like their own. Therefore, the cycle of promoting men over women is difficult to break.

Learning to laugh at one another and accept each gender's differences may be a vehicle for easing the tensions associated with the misperceptions and stereotypes centering around differing methods of inquiry and critique. To this end, a review of gender perceptions with regard to humor is in order.

#### Gender Perceptions of Humor

In reviewing the literature on gender differences in humor, Crawford (1989) noted that numerous flaws exist in the research of humor. Crawford stated that gender has

rarely been a primary research question in the area of humor. In addition, Crawford reported that male and female subjects have tended to be grouped together to discover the degree to which something was considered funny. Crawford concluded that gender differences tend to be ignored in most research studies on humor.

Crawford (1989) reported that the flaws in most experimental designs on humor and gender included (1) a study of humor using strictly public expressions versus private expressions of humor, (2) a focus on the appreciation of humor in place of including any reference to the creation of humor and its use in socially skillful ways, (3) the neglect of spontaneous use of humor in social situations, and (4) the emphasis on set-piece jokes, because this form of humor was more normatively conducive to males than females. Crawford concluded that most research on humor has employed flawed experimental design.

To study humor and gender within its most applicable context, Crawford (1989) developed a lengthy questionnaire that focused on gender differences in humor creation and development. Gender differences reported by Crawford were that men scored higher in creating and expressing enjoyment of hostile jokes, humor, and slapstick comedy, whereas women scored higher in creating and enjoying anecdotal humor. In addition, men rated themselves as having a better sense of humor than women rated themselves. Crawford concluded that women use humor to build friendly relationships and provide support, and that women's humor is usually exhibited through stories or personal experiences. On the other hand, Crawford found that men's humor reinforced performance goals of competition, hierarchical relationships, and self-promotion



Crawford (1989) noted that research by Jenkins revealed that the humor of men “is characterized as self-aggrandizing one-upmanship. There is a greater use of formulaic jokes...which are clearly separate from the ongoing conversation and which involve ‘performance.’ Joking for men establishes them as credible performers and affords them an audience for whom they demonstrate their prowess. Their jokes are less personal, like their social groups, and they can be told in a variety of settings. Men can develop a repertoire of jokes which they can use to compete with other men for audience attention and honors. Their jokes are exclusive in that they more often put down others or are told at the expense of others...” (p. 161).

In addition, Crawford (1989) also observed that women’s humor was “much more context-bound. It is more often created out of the ongoing talk to satisfy the needs of [a] particular group of women. Since the goal of interaction is intimacy, there is not the same need to compete for performance points...[women’s] humor includes and supports group members by demonstrating what they have in common” (p. 161).

In the business environment, Tingley (1993) reported that men and women are extremely different in how they perceive humor. Tingley suggested that communication between the genders on what is and is not funny would serve to reduce gender misperceptions of humor. According to Tingley, many experts saw differences in humor as relating to power, communication and perspective rather than gender.

With regard to power, Tingley (1993) suggested that men were many times more

comfortable in the business work environment, especially in leadership roles. Therefore, Tingley concluded that men are much more secure in finding put-downs humorous. In addition, Marlowe (1989) reported that men preferred aggressive humor (many times with sexual connotations), whereas women preferred light-hearted humor. Marlowe stated that women are socialized to guard their behaviors so as to not anger others. Women, according to Marlowe, are also socialized to smile, to repress awkward facial expressions, and to inhibit body movements (such as pointing). Therefore, Marlowe reported that our gender-based society prevents women from “freely appreciating humor” (p. 147). Marlowe also insisted that inhibition is associated with humorlessness. In addition, Marlowe stated that inhibition tends to halt verbal spontaneity and heighten self-consciousness. Marlowe continued by noting that self-consciousness is incompatible with humor.

Marlowe (1989) further insisted that in business environments, group relations “encompass explicit and implicit understandings of power, hierarchy, dominance, control, behavioral latitude and access to culturally valued space, time, objects, and events” (p. 148). Marlowe revealed that business hierarchies, then, implicitly regulate relations between genders and that (as with other forms of power) humor flows from the top to the bottom of the hierarchical chart. Since most hierarchical charts socially elevate men and socially lower the status of women, Marlowe concluded that the use of humor is a more powerful communicative device for men than it is for women. “Man forgives woman anything save the wit to outwit him” (Barreca, 1991, p. 36)

With regard to communication, Barreca (1991) noted that women use “the humane

humor rule” (p. 13). To accomplish this, Barreca stated that women do not make fun of things or situations that people cannot alter, and that female humor tends to not incorporate people as scapegoats. Instead, Barreca found that women humorously attack the deliberate choices that people make.

Marlowe (1989) established that the acceptable boundaries for humor vary for each gender. For instance, Marlowe reported that it is acceptable for men to engage in humor directed at women, and that it is more socially acceptable for men to curse. According to Marlowe, if women use strong language, they are considered socially forward and inappropriate. Marlowe reported that women are expected to control their humor in the presence of men, but men are considered socially appropriate to freely express humor at any time. In addition, Marlowe revealed that men may readily laugh at women, whereas women are expected to laugh at themselves.

According to Tingley (1993), the put-down humor of men is viewed as appropriate and acceptable by society in the United States. In contrast, Tingley also reported this same type of humor was not conducive to the socialization of most women

With regard to perceptions, Tingley (1993) suggested that assumptions lead to miscommunication between genders. Tingley found that women, for instance, many times assumed that men knew that their male humor was offensive. When women expressed this perception to men, Tingley reported that men tended to excuse their remarks as mere jokes

According to Tingley (1993), women tended to ignore uncomfortable comments made by men rather than openly and directly state their dissatisfaction. Tingley observed

that women tend to be socialized to believe that being assertive was not feminine. Therefore, Tingley ascertained that women tend to be indirect and apologetic with their comments to men regarding the use of humor. In essence, “women are the experts at euphemism...” (p. 98).

Tingley (1993) also found that women worried about the unflattering perceptions that open and direct statements of concern might encourage. Yet, Tingley noted that men said they preferred women to be open and direct in expressing their thoughts. The men also reported to Tingley that although they might resent women for their directness initially, that they would get beyond it in a short period of time. Tingley noted, however, that the women simply did not trust this reassurance from men.

In reviewing other sources, Tingley (1993) found that there are vast differences in the ways young boys and girls reacted to humor. According to Tingley, boys scored much higher in introducing and receiving humor. Tingley also reported that young boys tended to exhibit more giddiness, teasing, roughhousing, slapstick jokes, making faces, and telling of hostile jokes. Girls, on the other hand, were reported by Tingley to have told more stories and giggled, with much less teasing. In addition, Tingley also found that girls did not exhibit roughhousing or hostility in their humor.

Tingley (1993) concluded that men and women have different perceptions about what constitutes humor, which may perhaps be rooted in socialization. Tingley speculated, then, that women’s humor is more for relationship building and serves a connectedness function. On the other hand, Lorber (1994) concluded that sexist joking keeps men from revealing their emotional bonds with each other.

In summary, Tingley (1993) stated that a better understanding between the genders on what is and is not humorous would help in reducing misperceptions of humor in the workplace. In addition, Crawford (1989) suggested that an increase in broadly empirical research on humor be implemented to complement experimental research endeavors on gender and humor. With more empirical research, Crawford stated that a greater understanding of how the genders create humor, use humor conversationally, and intend for humor to be received could be reached.

At this point, a review of each gender's formation of convictions is in order.

### Gender and the Development of Convictions

More than two decades ago, according to Jamieson (1995), psychological studies concluded that 'masculine' traits were perceived to be associated with mental health and psychological maturity. Jamieson noted that these masculine traits included being direct, logical, and able to make decisions easily. Moir and Jessel's (1991) observations supported these differences between men and women. Men, according to Moir and Jessel, were more greatly motivated by high achievement in the workplace, competition, single-mindedness, and hierarchies. In contrast, Moir and Jessel reported that women tended to be motivated by interests, solid and caring relationships, the nature of an occupation versus the achievement or financial success offered by an occupation, and the accepted mix of work and family. In addition, they found that men tended to base their self-esteem on financial success as well as their positions on organizational charts, whereas women tended to esteem themselves based on their perceived esteem from others. In 1990,

Chodorow suggested that "...men develop a self based more on denial of relation and on a more fixed, firmly split, and repressed inner self-object world" (Wood, 1994, p.47).

Schein, Mueller, Lituchy, and Liu's (1996) research revealed that women managers perceived females to be just as likely as men to possess the characteristics necessary to be successful managers. These researchers found that men, however, perceived managerial positions to require masculine characteristics. These researchers concluded "that think manager-think male is a global phenomenon, especially among males" (p. 39).

Moir and Jessel (1991) also found that men were willing to make sacrifices (personal happiness, health, time, friendships, and relationships) in order to achieve and maintain power, status and success. These authors further stated that women traditionally were not willing to make these sacrifices. They suggested that women business leaders and entrepreneurs tend to value lasting friendships and are comfortable with building relationships. According to their book, Moir and Jessel suggested that in the business world, women use this advantage in building relationships with employees, vendors, customers, and suppliers, and that women are comfortable when they are 'in touch' with the world around them. They also reported that women tend to create business environments that give employees the space and opportunity they need to become fully comfortable with their working environment. They also pointed out, however, that women are still hesitant to bring these attributes to the workplace because these are the very attributes that are not valued in the traditional world of business. The hesitancy to bring these female-oriented values into the workplace may be unwarranted. Warren

Bennis noted that "At bottom, becoming a leader is synonymous with becoming yourself" (Godfrey, 1992, p. 37).

Moir and Jessel (1991) studied women-owned businesses and found that good labor relations were virtually apparent across the board in these companies. The authors found a noticeable absence of petty rules, regulations and hierarchical order, which they said directly contradicts the male value system of business. Moir and Jessel contended that successful women are running their businesses on the economics of housekeeping (no waste and no extravagance), and they are also incorporating new values into the definition of leadership. Moir and Jessel observed that women are insisting that leadership involve encouragement, support, trust, delegation, and independence. As one successful businesswoman said,

"My whole philosophy (as a mother) was to find out the strength of the children and to go in that direction, and I apply the same philosophy to my employees. A person may be hired for one area and we see how he turns out and then move him on to something else. But once we trust him in the job he is left to do it on his own with the least interference" (Moir & Jessel, 1991, p. 175)

Rosener (1990) surveyed members of the International Women's Forum and matched them with men who held comparable executive or entrepreneurial positions. She noted that women's business relationships were more often based on trust, empathy and engagement in conversation, whereas men's relationships were more likely to be based on power or hierarchical arrangements of the organization. She also pointed out that the

female style of leadership centered on interaction with employees and others, on encouraging participation, and on sharing of power and information. Her study further revealed that men's leadership tended to be centered around transactions, exchanges of punishment and reward for performance, and the expectation of exhibiting power over others coupled with a noticeable discomfort in empowering employees. In addition, Rosener found that enhancing the self-worth of employees was seen as extremely important to female executives. It is interesting to note that Wood (1994) reported that young girls were taught to be nurturers and care-givers, to be unselfish and to think of the needs of others. She also noted that parents did not tend to emphasize selflessness, caring and responsiveness in their sons. Zellner (1995) linked this socialization of nurturance and supportive behaviors to women's preferences to use these characteristics as attributes in the business world. Zellner continued to point out that women "may offer distinctive lessons in management styles that are now being embraced by Corporate America as it strives to improve its global competitiveness" (p. 101).

In a similar study of men and women in executive or entrepreneurial positions, Klein said that

"...the women were more effective as leaders. Although the men leaders were older and more experienced in their fields, the women leaders appeared to be better at helping group members learn about such things as organizational dynamics and how a group affects a task" (Taylor, 1989, p 51).

Sekaran and Kassner's (1991) research found that female employees accepted and



trusted their male supervisors more readily than their female supervisors. Jeanquart-Barone and Sekaran (1994) also found that women employees trusted their male supervisors over their female supervisors. These researchers expressed concern for these findings in light of the fact that women are predicted to be entering the work force in vast numbers. Their findings may also be rooted in work-related gender perceptions and perhaps the feeling of betrayal (if the female supervisors were perceived by female subordinates to have compromised the traditional values associated with being female).

Another male perception is that career women are overly stressed and depressed (Beatty, 1996). Beatty's research revealed that women did not exhibit overdue stress due to their managerial position. In addition, successful women in the workplace did not have lower levels of marriage and parenthood. Beatty found that these women also did not have higher levels of divorce. Women's depression was, instead, associated with lack of spousal support. On the contrary, Beatty's research found that women in upper management may experience better overall health. This research is consistent with Karasek and Theorell's (1990) research which showed that stress was lower under situations employing high control over low control.

Hite (1993) noted that men and women seem to live in different worlds. She found that each world has its own set of values, and that the values existing within the culture of women are quite contrary to the values within the culture of men. Hite reported that whereas men value working independently, women value working with others; where men value acquaintances, women value friendship (and loyalty); where men value self-reliance, women value listening with empathy; where men value head-to-head competition,

women value striving to work with competition. Therefore, according to Hite, men tend to apply values of competition and winning to both personal and professional relationships; women value sharing information, receiving input from others and building relationships.

Godfrey (1992), Burke and McKeen (1996), and Schein, Mueller, Lituchy, and Liu (1996) reported that there are few women in leadership positions within businesses. Wood (1991) recognized that for women, there is a double bind presented when they desire to enter the work force as managers or business owners. Wood stated that the traditional managerial scheme centers on characteristics afforded and valued in men, and not the characteristics afforded in women. She identified the epicenter of the dilemma as stemming from the fact that the assigned roles women have been granted in U. S. culture carry very little clout with men in the 'professional' world. According to Wood, women have the qualities of purity, compassion, empathy and other traits that set them apart from men and suit them naturally to attending to others. She indicated that in our current world of business, organizational leaders do not consider these aforementioned values worthwhile.

With differing value systems dictating what is and is not relevant in organizations, it would seem appropriate to view the decision-making processes of men and women.

### The Elements of Decision-Making

Decision-making plays an important role within organizations. Moir and Jessel's (1991) studies revealed that men have been shown to make quicker decisions than women

The decisions of men tend to be based on what is right. Women, however, take more time to make decisions, which usually leaves them being considered indecisive and emotional. Moir and Jessel noted that women's patience with decision-making is due to their perception that more information is needed, and that this perception originates from the relationships they have formed with others around them--others who might be affected by the decision. Therefore, Moir and Jessel concluded that women tend to make their decisions based on what is responsible. Their studies also observed that women asked more questions than men to gain pertinent information and, therefore, were better able to provide more comprehensive answers. They reported that men, on the other hand, were separated from the 'human' elements of most decisions. Moir and Jessel stated that men, therefore, made decisions based on a fewer number of resources than did women. According to Moir and Jessel, men extracted the key elements associated with the topic at hand, worked with essential points and provided solutions. In contrast, women inherently tended to envision a larger picture, to take in complex concerns and attempt, therefore, to understand the problem. In short, Moir and Jessel stated that the decision-making process in women is extremely elaborate. They insisted that before the eloquence of female decisions can be rendered valuable, their process must be granted viability by men.

Helgeson (1990) equated women's views of organizational structure to a spider's web. Rather than traditional boxes, Helgeson's web represents a circular organizational system that is inclusive rather than exclusive. This circular management, as noted by Helgeson, cannot be split into single lines or separate parts without ripping the whole web, which would be detrimental to the whole organization. Helgeson stated that managers,

then, are at the center of the web (rather than at the top of a traditional box chart). The circular management web allows for extended communications and relationships with all the human resources within a business. According to Helgeson, the web allows the leader to reach out, collect and synthesize information, then reach a decision.

Harris and Sutton (1995) studied the ethical decision-making process of male and female MBA students. They found that the ethical value judgments of the women, much more than the men, more closely resembled the decisions of long-term executives. In addition, the females were less tolerant when it came to compromising ethics.

Dodd-McCue and Wright (1996) found that experiences at work were different for men than for women, but were crucial in magnifying the attitudinal commitment of employees (more so than components linked to gender). Therefore, these researchers concluded that organizational decision-makers should orchestrate tasks and structures so as to heighten the attitudinal commitment of employees. To this end, the researchers observed that women responded with increased commitment when rewarded and encouraged by their professional association because women tended to identify more with their profession than with their organization. Men, on the other hand, responded with increased commitment when rewarded and encouraged with regard to organizational factors because they tended to identify with the organizations that employed them (rather than with their professions).

Studying the genders with regard to management preference may show all or some of these gender characteristics as applicable to the predicted management paradigm of the

21st Century. Perhaps a greater understanding of these characteristics will lead us to the assets that both genders may bring to the U. S. workplace as it transitions into the future.

### Summary

Breaking old business paradigms may be more difficult than anticipated. Business opportunities in the United States appear to be tremendous, and the resources are available to build strong, viable enterprises for success in the future market place. If there are gender differences in management preferences, then perhaps each gender's preference may jointly offer solutions to the changing business paradigm puzzle. How U. S. businesses choose to utilize any resource (management preference or otherwise) during the times of change is perhaps the most critical consideration. Change appears inevitable. It is the ability to adapt that may well dictate the future of the corporate U. S.

## CHAPTER III

### METHODOLOGY

This chapter details the method for conducting this study of male and female management preferences. The topics in this chapter include: the type of research used in the study, the population and sample, the data analysis, the instruments used for data collection, and the summary of purpose.

#### Type of Research

This was a descriptive study that assessed male and female management preferences and the possible impact of these preferences on management in the workplace of the 21st Century. The study focused on the preferred management preferences of men and women in leadership positions within banks that were members of the Oklahoma Bankers Association

The independent variable in this research study was the gender of the managers surveyed. Dependent variables were conflict solving, initiative, inquiry, advocacy, decision making, and critique.

Demographic factors included in the assessment were gender, age, salary range, type of organization, size of organization, number of individuals supervised, educational

background, race, number of years employed with their current organization, and title.

### Population and Sample

The population for this study was women and men from banks that were members of the Oklahoma Bankers Association. The job titles for the population included senior vice president, executive vice president, vice president, assistant vice president, vice chair, and/or head cashier of banks in Oklahoma.

Defining a population for this study was difficult due to the lack of women in leadership positions in Oklahoma companies. To perform a t-test, a minimum response rate of 25-30 was necessary. Yu and Cooper (1983) reported the average response rate for mail surveys to be 47.3%. Therefore, it was decided that a minimum of 125 surveys mailed to each gender was needed to ensure an adequate return rate. Populations within Oklahoma that were considered, but eliminated due to the limited number of women in upper-managerial positions were accounting firms, architectural firms, colleges/universities, engineering firms, manufacturing firms, law firms, public companies, hospitals, construction firms, and securities firms. However, the number of women in leadership positions in Oklahoma banks was deemed sufficient.

In order to draw a sample from this population, men in this study were individually assigned odd numbers and women were individually assigned even numbers. All odd numbers were drawn first (men), then even numbers were drawn (women). A total of 125 men and 125 women were randomly drawn. These individuals became the sample population for this study.

## Data Analysis

Blake, Mouton, and Williams' (1981) Managerial Grid (updated by Blake & McCauley in 1991) was used to assess the management preferences of the sample population. A sample of 125 men and 125 women who served as senior vice presidents, executive vice presidents, vice presidents, assistant vice presidents, vice chairs and/or head cashiers in banks across Oklahoma were asked to complete an adapted version of Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid Assessment. The assessment was mailed to each participant with a cover letter explaining the research study.

The statistical procedures used to evaluate the responses were t-tests, chi-square and univariate analysis of variance. To assess any significant differences in male and female management preferences, a t-test was conducted. A t-test was used because this type of statistical analysis shows the differences between two groups (i.e., male and female) on one dependent variable (i.e., management preference). The Managerial Grid employs seven management preferences. Therefore, seven t-tests were performed. A t-test was also performed to assess gender differences in perceived power.

In addition, a chi-square analysis was used to assess differences in frequencies between men's and women's preferred management styles. This statistical technique was used because it is appropriate for categorical data. Therefore, this analysis was performed on each of the seven management styles (i.e., 1,9, 9,9, etc.) by dimension (i.e., conflict solving, initiative, etc.).

This study also examined whether there was a relationship between perception of



power and management preference. A univariate analysis of variance was used to assess this relationship. This analysis permitted the identification of the effect of an independent variable on several dependent variables (i.e., the managerial preferences across the three designated levels of perceived power).

To meet the research requirements of a 25-30 response rate for each gender group, it was deemed that a total sample of 125 males and 125 females was needed to guarantee adequate participation.

#### Data Collection

Blake and McCauley's (1991) Managerial Grid was adapted for this study. This Grid appraises attitudes with regard to concern for people and concern for production (output).

The Managerial Grid was chosen for this study because of its relevance to an individual's concern with people and/or production. The instrument was also deemed to have face validity for this study by David Schrader, Ph.D., Associate Professor of Speech Communication at Oklahoma State University, and Jim Rhea, Ph.D., President of Greenwood Performance Systems.

For this study, 125 men and 125 women holding management positions within Oklahoma banks (that were members of the 1996 Oklahoma Bankers Association) were randomly selected. A cover letter explaining the survey was placed on top of each questionnaire, as was a Personal Data Sheet requesting demographic information (refer to Appendix A). In addition, the professional title of each respondent was also noted for

demographic purposes. The randomly selected sample population was mailed an adapted Managerial Grid Questionnaire. Appendix B contains a copy of Blake and McCauley's (1991) Managerial Grid Questionnaire. Appendix C contains a copy of the modified Managerial Grid Questionnaire used in this study. The subtitles from the questionnaire were removed to avoid bias on the part of the participants.

Each questionnaire was coded to allow tracking of responses. Once the deadlines were reached and respondents were tracked (in case follow-up initiatives were necessary), all codes were destroyed to assure confidentiality.

Before mailing the questionnaire to the randomly selected sample population, permission was obtained from the Oklahoma State University Internal Review Board to proceed with the study. This permission was granted and the survey was then mailed to the sample population (refer to Appendix D).

The assessment was mailed to each participant with the request that it be completed and returned to the researcher within approximately five days. Each assessment included a stamped, self-addressed return envelope.

To examine non-respondent bias, six non-respondents (three men and three women) were contacted by phone and asked to complete the questionnaire. The completed surveys of non-respondents were compared to the original respondents' questionnaires to examine how closely the non-respondents' management preferences were to the respondents' preferences.

## Summary

The purpose and objectives of this study called for a descriptive and statistical data collection process. The research design was presented in this chapter. The results of each stage of the study are reported in the following chapter.

## CHAPTER IV

### FINDINGS

This chapter contains a description of the sample, the results of the various t-test analyses used in the study, the results of chi-square analysis for viewing the extent to which males and females differ in their management preferences, and a univariate analysis of variance for looking at the extent to which perceived power affects managerial preferences. Responses made to the assessment are statistically presented and summarized.

#### Implementation of Survey

The sample drawn from this population was men and women in leadership positions within banks that were members of the Oklahoma Bankers Association. These individuals carried one of the following titles: senior vice president, executive vice president, vice president, assistance vice president, vice chair and/or head cashier. A total of 250 managerial questionnaires were mailed (125 to men and 125 to women).

Each questionnaire was accompanied by a cover letter explaining the research study. In addition, a Personal Data Sheet (asking for demographic information such as salary range and age) was attached to the questionnaire. The professional title of

respondents was also noted. The demographic items on the Personal Data Sheet were tallied and the percentages calculated.

The findings of the study are presented in the following section.

### Findings

The demographic information of the participants as reported in Table V shows that 37 women responded and 46 men responded. However, 9 of the female questionnaires and 15 of the male questionnaires were omitted due to mismarked forms. These included forms where participants had assigned duplicate numbers to each unit of seven items rather than ranking the items from one to seven as per the survey directions. Thirty-one men and 28 women responded correctly and were used in the analysis.

#### Demographic Data

The respondents were comprised of 31 males (52.5%) and 28 females (47.5%). Participants ranged from 20-29 years of age (3.4%) to over 60 years of age (3.4%), with the age range of 40-49 years as the most frequent age of the participants (42.4%). Salary ranges of the respondents were between \$20,000-\$29,000 per year (15.3%) to over \$59,000 per year (22%). Most of the sample respondents supervised from one to ten employees (69.5%). Educational background varied, with 47.5% of the respondents having received bachelor's degrees and 6.8% having master's degrees. Thirteen percent of the respondents had education other than (or in addition to) higher education, such as certification in financial planning and savings institution management, as well as

Table V

Frequencies for Demographic Data

Demographic Data		Frequency	Percent
<b>Gender:</b>	Male	31	52.5%
	Female	28	47.5%
<b>Age:</b>	20-29 years	2	3.4%
	30-39 years	16	27.1%
	40-49 years	25	42.4%
	50-59 years	14	23.7%
	Over 60 years	2	3.4%
<b>Salary:</b>	\$15,000-\$20,000	0	0%
	\$20,001-\$29,000	9	15.3%
	\$29,001-\$39,000	15	25.4%
	\$39,001-\$49,000	13	22.0%
	\$49,001-\$59,000	9	15.3%
	\$59,001 and up	13	22.0%

(table continues)

Table V (continued)

Demographic Data	Frequency	Percent
<b>Number of People Supervised:</b>		
0	1 (due to "teams")	1.7%
1-5	26	44.1%
6-10	15	25.4%
11-15	6	10.2%
16+	11	18.6%
<b>Education:</b>		
High School	11	18.6%
Associate Degree	8	13.6%
Bachelor's Degree	28	47.5%
Master's Degree	4	6.8%
Doctorate Degree	0	0%
Other	8	13.6%
<b>Race:</b>		
Caucasian	56	94.9%
Native American	3	5.1%

(table continues)

Table V (continued)

Demographic Data	Frequency	Percent
<b>Years Employed by Current Employer:</b>		
0-1 year	0	0%
1-3 years	7	11.9%
3-6 years	9	15.3%
6-9 years	5	8.5%
9 or more year	38	64.4%
<b>Title:</b>		
Assistant Vice President	11	18.6%
Vice President	30	50.8%
Executive Vice President	11	18.6%
Senior Vice President	7	11.9%

attendance and/or graduation from graduate banking schools. Most of the respondents were Caucasian (94.9%). Native American's constituted the remainder of the sample (5.1%). The respondents had been employed by their current employer for at least one to three years (11.9%), with the majority having worked for their current place of employment for nine or more years (64.4%). Titles of the respondents were assistant vice president (18.6%), vice president (50.8%), executive vice president (18.6%), and senior vice president (11.9%).



In addition, cross references of gender with demographic variables were also examined. Appendix E contains this information and reveals that the majority of men responding held the title of vice president, whereas the women were more evenly distributed among the titles of assistant vice president, vice president, and executive vice president. Male respondents were primarily between the ages of 30 and 59 years, as were most of the female respondents. The male respondents tended to earn more than most of the female respondents, with ten of the males reporting annual earnings of \$60,000 per year and up, compared to only three of the female respondents. Four male respondents earned \$29,000 to \$39,000 annually, with 11 females reporting this annual salary. Only one male respondent earned between \$20,000 and \$29,000, whereas eight women reported their annual incomes to be within this same range.

Twelve men reported supervising between one and five employees, as compared to 14 women. Nine men reported supervising between six and ten employees, as compared to six women. Four male respondents reported supervising eleven to fifteen people, while two female respondents reported supervisory duties at this level. Six men supervised 16 or more subordinates, and five women supervised 16 or more individuals.

With regard to educational levels, four men had high school diplomas, as did seven women. Six men had received associate's degrees as compared to two women. Eighteen men reported having their bachelor's degrees and ten women reported having received their bachelor's degrees. None of the men had master's or doctorates, whereas three of the women had master's degrees. Additional education centered on attending professional development banking schools, with three men and five women reporting this type of

educational background.

The vast majority of men (29) were Caucasian, as were the majority of the female respondents (27). Two men were Native American, and one woman was Native American.

In looking at number of years employed by their current employer, 16 men and 22 women reported having been employed for nine or more years by the same employer.

### Non-Respondent Bias

To address non-respondent bias, six non-respondents were randomly selected and contacted. They were asked to complete a questionnaire for purposes of demonstrating validity of those who responded. Five of the six non-respondents returned questionnaires (three women and two men). Two of these questionnaires were not used in this portion of the analysis due to mismarked forms. Similar to some of the original respondents, these two individuals assigned duplicate numbers to each unit of seven items rather than ranking the items from one to seven as per the survey directions. The remaining three individuals all exhibited a management preference of 9,9 (Team Management), as did the majority of the original respondents. This indication of similarity between respondents' and non-respondents' assessments provided information that the survey did not elicit responses from a unique subset of the population.

### Male and Female Differences in Management Preferences

To examine individual male and female differences in management preferences, a

chi-square analysis was performed on each of the seven management preferences of the Managerial Grid ( i.e., 1,9, 9,9, etc.). Table VI illustrates the frequency of most preferred managerial preferences for individual male and female respondents. The chi-square for these data was 9.57 (df=8),  $p > .05$ , indicating there was no gender difference for

Table VI

Frequencies of Most Preferred Managerial Preferences for Individual Male and Female Groups

Management Preferences	Male	Female
1,9 (Country Club Management)	0	1
9,9 (Team Management)	18	23
5,5 (Middle of the Road Management)	4	4
1,1 (Impoverished Management)	2	0
9,1 (Authority-Compliance Management)	0	0
9+9 (Paternalistic Management)	3	0
Opportunistic Management	0	0
Ties for Dominant Preferences:		
5,5/9,9	3	0
9,9/1,9	1	0

management preference. As can be seen in Table VI, no men were 1,9 (Country Club Management), and only one woman was of this preference. Eighteen men and 23 women were of the 9,9 (Team Management) preference, while four men and four women reported management preferences of 5,5 (Middle of the Road Management). Two men, but no women, reported a 1,1 (Impoverished Management) preference. Three men were of the 9+9 (Paternalistic Management) preference, and no women were of the 9+9 preference. Four men had tying scores for their dominant management preferences (5,5/9,9 and 1,9/9,9).

To assess gender differences in self-reported management preferences, rankings for each dimension were summed for each of the seven managerial preferences resulting in seven scores per participant. Male and female means were computed from these scores, and seven t-tests, one for each management preference by gender, were performed (see Table VII for means and standard deviations)

Specifically, the 1,9 management preference had a t-value of -.70 with the probability being .489. The 9,9 preference exhibited a -1.73 t-value and a .089 probability. The 5,5 preference revealed a t-value of -.63 with a probability of .529. The 1,1 managerial preference reported a t-value of .80 and a probability of .429. Preference 9,1 resulted in a t-value of .25 and the probability was .800. Preference 9+9 resulted in a t-value of 1.55 and a probability of .126. Management preferences centered on Opportunism received a .28 t-value with a .779 probability. As this data indicates, no significant gender differences were found with regard to management preferences.

In addition, a chi square analysis indicated no gender differences in managerial

Table VII

Means and Standard Deviations for Gender Differences in Self-Reported Management Preferences

Management Preference	Gender	
	Male	Female
1,9 (Country Club Management)	24.51 (4.27)	25.35 (4.99)
9,9 (Team Management)	33.61 (8.25)	36.57 (3.90)
5,5 (Middle of the Road Management)	30.35 (4.69)	31.03 (3.38)
1,1 (Impoverished Management)	13.64 (7.30)	12.46 (2.97)
9,1 (Authority-Compliance Management)	19.74 (5.10)	19.42 (4.23)
9+9 (Paternalistic Management)	26.58 (4.80)	24.64 (4.75)
Opportunistic Management	18.38 (3.76)	18.14 (2.75)

preference across the dimensions. However, an examination of Table VIII reveals differences in various cells for the dimensions studied.

### Perceived Power

To extend the scope of this study, the respondents were asked to rank their perception of power relative to coworkers with comparable titles. A t-test revealed that  $t(57)=.82$ ,  $p=.41$ , which indicated no significant difference between males and females in perceptions of their own power as compared to others with comparable titles. The mean for males was 4.06, with a standard deviation of .814, and the mean was 3.89 for females, with a standard deviation of .786.

To assess the effects of perceived power on management style preference, the responses on the five point rating scale were divided into three levels of power for the purpose of analysis: (1) moderate (those responding from 1-3 on the scale), (2) high (those responding with 4), and (3) very high (those responding with 5). Using the three levels of perceptions as the independent variable, a separate univariate analysis of variance was run for each of the managerial preferences (which were the dependent variables). For the 1,9 preference,  $F(2,56)=.23$ ,  $p=.78$ . The 9,9 preference exhibited an  $F(2,56)=.04$ ,  $p=.95$ . The 5,5 management preference exhibited  $F(2,56)=.55$ ,  $p=.57$ .  $F(2,56)=.17$ ,  $p=.83$  was indicated for the 1,1 preference. For the 9,1 management preference category,  $F(2,56)=.40$ ,  $p=.66$ . The 9+9 preference revealed an  $F(2,56)=.03$ ,  $p=.96$ , with the final management preference of Opportunism revealing an  $F(2,56)=.11$ ,  $p=.89$ .

Table IX shows the means and standard deviations for each management

Table VIII

Gender Differences in Managerial Style for Each Dimension

Dimension/Sex	Managerial Preference						Oppportunism
	1,9	9,9	5,5	1,1	9,1	9+9	
Conflict Solving							
Males	3	<b>12</b>	<b>12</b>	1	2	2	0
Females	4	<b>12</b>	<b>9</b>	1	0	2	0
Initiative							
Males	<b>12</b>	4	3	1	3	<b>7</b>	1
Females	<b>9</b>	<b>8</b>	2	0	3	<b>6</b>	0
Inquiry							
Males	1	<b>14</b>	4	1	1	6	4
Females	0	<b>19</b>	4	0	1	2	2
Advocacy							
Males	1	<b>17</b>	3	1	0	<b>8</b>	1
Females	1	<b>20</b>	5	0	0	1	1

(table continues)

Table VIII (continued)

Dimension/Sex	Managerial Preference						Opportunism
	1,9	9,9	5,5	1,1	9,1	9+9	
Decision Making							
Males	0	<b>24</b>	1	2	1	3	0
Females	0	<b>23</b>	2	0	1	2	0
Critique							
Males	3	4	<b>19</b>	1	1	1	2
Females	3	<b>9</b>	<b>15</b>	0	1	0	0

(Bold indicates significant responses for each dimension)

preference as associated with perception of power. This data indicates that perceived power does not significantly affect management preference.

### Summary

Results of t-tests, chi-square analysis and univariate analysis of variance were reported in this chapter. A description of the sample was provided and gender comparisons of various management preferences and management dimensions were presented. These data were used as the basis for the final discussion and recommendations as presented in Chapter V.



Table IX

Means and Standard Deviations for Management Preferences as Associated with Perception of Power

Management Preference	Level of Perceived Power		
	Moderate	High	Very High
1,9 (Country Club Management)	25.00 (5.08)	25.25 (5.07)	24.25 (3.29)
9,9 (Team Management)	35.46 (4.27)	34.85 (6.52)	34.87 (8.84)
5,5 (Middle of the Road Mgmt)	30.40 (3.68)	31.25 (3.96)	29.93 (4.78)
1,1 (Impoverished Management)	13.13 (2.32)	12.67 (6.08)	13.75 (7.17)
9,1 (Authority-Compliance Mgmt)	19.33 (4.41)	19.21 (4.74)	20.50 (4.96)
9+9 (Paternalistic Management)	25.40 (5.97)	25.82 (4.38)	25.62 (4.74)
Opportunistic Management	18.00 (3.68)	18.25 (2.20)	18.56 (4.53)

## CHAPTER V

### SUMMARY, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

#### Problem and Purpose

The field of human resource development centers on the human elements that lead to successful business organizations. Studying whether there are differences between the genders in management preferences and understanding those differences could be essential in helping businesses adapt to better meet the predicted 21st Century business paradigm. The study addressed the problem of discerning the differences between male and female managers relative to the issues facing business in the 21st Century. Since gender differences in management preferences could differ by industry, job, and geographic location, this study focused on one population: managers working in banks located in the state of Oklahoma.

The purpose of this study was to examine the extent to which males and females differed in their management preferences. The research also sought to find the male and female management preferences of bank managers in Oklahoma relative to the anticipated business issues of the 21st Century. This investigation was intended to be a study designed to provide information on how these preferences might differ for this population.

The sample drawn from the population studied was men and women in leadership

positions within banks that were members of the 1996 Oklahoma Bankers Association. These individuals carried one of the following titles: senior vice president, executive vice president, vice president, assistance vice president, vice chair and/or head cashier.

Out of 250 questionnaires mailed to the randomly selected participants (125 men and 125 women), thirty-seven women responded and forty-six men responded. Fifteen of the male respondents and nine of the female respondents were eliminated due to incorrectly completing the survey (i.e., the directions for appropriate ranking were not followed). Thirty-one men and twenty-eight women filled out the survey per directions and these responses were used in the analysis.

The statistical methods used to assess the respondents' questionnaires were t-tests. Chi-square and univariate analysis of variance were also used.

#### Implications for Research and Practice

If, as Rosener (1995) stated, businesses of the future will be distinguished from one another by their use of human resources, then the study of this population has proven interesting.

It might be intriguing to discuss the possibilities as to why the results of this study revealed no significant gender differences with regard to management preference. Since both genders overwhelmingly reported an overall management preference for the 9,9 style, it might also be interesting to discuss that when a diversion from the 9,9 preference occurred, it occurred for both genders.

The literature review presented in Chapter II revealed significant findings and

observations with regard to gender differences. Such information might lead to the assumption that gender differences are certain to exist in most any working environment. But the population studied in this research paper appeared to be a polar opposite of what we might have expected to find.

Moir and Jessel's (1991) observations that women desire leadership to encompass encouragement, support, trust, delegation, and independence are supported at best in the Managerial Grid's 9,9 (Team Management) preference. Indeed, it was Blake's (personal communication, October 30, 1996) contention that the 9,9 preference should be every manager's goal. Since 9,9 was the overall dominant management preference in this study for women, these leadership qualities are supported. However, the research results from this study also included men in this observation (since their dominant and most preferred management style was also the 9,9 preference).

It is also interesting to note that Rosener's (1990) research, which showed that male leadership centered on exchanges of punishment and reward for performance of subordinates as well as men's discomfort with the empowerment of their employees, was not supported by this research study when looking at the overall preferred management style of men in this population. To the contrary, men reported themselves to desire the elements of a team orientation and delegation of responsibility. However, Rosener's research was supported when looking at certain managerial dimensions (i.e., the dimension of initiative)

In addition, Tingley (1993) and Burke and McKeen (1996) commented that both genders appeared lost as to how to treat one another in the workplace. This study

exhibited findings contrary to these observations by Tingley and Burke and McKeen because both genders exhibited the same management preference of 9,9 in this study. In addition, when deviations for individual management dimensions occurred, they occurred for both genders. On the contrary, these same deviations may exhibit evidence that indeed the two genders are at a loss on how to treat each other. The deviations themselves may be caused on the part of both genders by feelings of confusion and inadequacy on how to deal with the opposite gender.

Although the overall management preference for both genders was 9,9 (Team Management), there were deviations from the 9,9 preference when viewing the six managerial dimensions individually. A brief assessment of each dimension, as well as an overview of perception of power, may help summarize this study's observations.

### Conflict Solving

With regard to conflict resolution, both genders reported the 9,9 (Team Management) preference. Many of the respondents, however, diverted to the 5,5 (Middle of the Road Management) preference for the dimension of conflict solving. However, many members of both genders diverted for this dimension to the 5,5 preference. Since many of the respondents reported the 9,9 preference and many others reported the 5,5 preference for this dimension, it may be that confusion exists between the genders on the dimension of conflict resolution. Because the genders varied in their preferences within this particular dimension, Tannen's (1990) observations that each gender exhibits different behaviors in conflictual situations may be relevant. Other examinations of gender

differences in dealing with conflict might also be supported (i.e., Gherardi, 1995; Tingley, 1993; Kipnis & Herron, 1994).

The shift by many individuals of both genders for this dimension may have been caused by confusion in the workplace brought on by modern circumstances, as reported by Kipnis and Herron (1994). But because the reactions of both genders corresponded, Nieva and Gutek's (1981) observation that women leaders functioned similarly to male leaders in the same environment may have credence.

The findings of Chusmir and Mills (1989) that gender differences may not be the deciding factor in conflict resolution preference may also be supported by this research. Conflict solving preferences may depend on other factors (such as hierarchical position, organizational culture, etc.). The results of this study can also be compared to Gayle, Preiss and Allen's (1994) observations of two conflict management strategies, competition for men and compromise for women. This study found both genders melding any distinctions they each might have into the same management preference (the 9,9 Team Management preference), and defaulting to other management preferences where conflict solving, initiative, and critique were concerned. The consistency to shift management preferences for these dimensions appeared for both genders in this study, which may mean that factors other than gender are the cause for shifting preferences.

### Initiative

With regard to the dimension of initiative, neither gender overwhelmingly preferred the 9,9 preference, although eight women fell into this preference. The male respondents

exhibited a preference within this dimension for the 1,9 (Country Club Management) and the 9+9 (Paternalistic Management) preferences, as did many women. Due to the extremely scattered preferences within the dimension of initiative, this finding might exhibit an internal disparity among the individuals and/or their organizations. The organizational atmosphere may be amiable and consistent, but relatively status quo. An individual who takes too much initiative to move the organization forward may face consequences with regard to reward and punishment (which is the base from which a 9+9 manager operates). Therefore, a question revealed by this study was whether the supervisors surveyed felt pressured by those in upper management to not take initiative and therefore not to expect it themselves from their subordinates, or whether this is simply a common characteristic of the managers surveyed.

These findings also bring to question the way in which these managers are motivating people. Klubnik's (1995) notations of the new management paradigm for the 21st Century coupled with what employees say motivates them may be in jeopardy for this population, based on the findings for this dimension.

### Inquiry and Critique

The Managerial Grid's dimensions of inquiry and critique center heavily on internal communication flow. The 9,9 (Team Management) preference of both genders for the dimension of inquiry possibly exhibited comfort on the part of men and women in gathering facts and data from colleagues of the opposite gender. The similarities between the genders on the dimension of inquiry may challenge some previous thinking on the

perceptions that each gender has of the other and how these perceptions negatively dictate levels of inquiry (i.e., Tingley, 1993; Gherardi, 1995).

With regard to critique, both genders diverted from the 9,9 preference to the 5,5 preference. Both genders, then, may believe in the concept of positive reinforcement and may avoid negative feedback. Both genders in this population may tend to bury any negative comments between two positive comments, or simply approach negative feedback to subordinates in vague terms. Once again, since both genders exhibited a discomfort with direct and open constructive feedback, a variable other than gender may be responsible. This finding may have been expected for women (as seen in the observations of Tannen, 1990). However, men have been observed in previous studies to exhibit directness and a comfort with conflictual situations. The fact that men have been shown to exhibit directness (i.e., Tingley, 1993; Gayle, Preiss, & Allen, 1994) is a contradiction to the finding in this study. It is also possible, however, that the men in this population are using indirect feedback as a way to control subordinates (by withholding information) and to create a sense of competition in the workplace.

### Advocacy

The results for both genders on this dimension showed the highest level of results was for the 9,9 preference. Therefore, both genders exhibited support for open and honest communication with subordinates regarding organizational commitment and direction. Both genders, then, were assertive and self-assured while also being open to opposing viewpoints. Based on several observations (i.e., Jamieson, 1995; Moir & Jessel,



1991), we might have expected this of women but not of men. Hites' (1993) notation that men applied the concept of competition versus sharing of information to interpersonal relationships may be challenged by this study.

### Decision Making

Both genders were also strongly supportive of the 9,9 (Team Management) preference with regard to decision making. Perhaps the organizational structure of the banks in this study was more conducive to producing a team managed atmosphere. This assumption would support Dodd-McClure and Wright's (1996) findings that the crucial element to loyal and affiliated employees was the attitudinal commitment of the employees (more so than gender). Perhaps decision makers in these banks were organizing the internal operations and structures to heighten the attitudinal commitment of employees (which would include the supervisors in this study). This research also lent support to Helgeson's (1990) study of circular management, which she contends is a female preference. The 9,9 preference emphasizing team management and the affiliation of trust and respect, however, were shown to exist for both genders in this study, carrying Helgeson's notations into another dimension. Once again, this finding failed to support much of the gender research to date.

### Perception of Power

With regard to perception of power, data revealed no significant differences cited in this study. However, this finding may be population specific. This may indicate, once

again, that this population has provided itself the opportunity to overcome many perceptions of gender that result in feelings of less power or gender-related feelings of defeat. Men and women are more equally represented at the management level in this population, which may indicate that stereotypic perceptions of gender are somewhat diminished. This would support Bhatnager and Swamy's (1995) research that a more positive relationship between men's contentment with their interactions with women was achieved when the two genders worked with one another over a period of time.

### Summary

Finding enough women in leadership positions made defining a population for this study difficult. Since banks were the one population where women in greater numbers have advanced, it might be surmised that many of the researched gender differences are simply less apparent in this population. Women and men may have found more camaraderie in this population because they may have moved beyond gender specific strategies. Tingley's (1993) observation about women's feelings of unequal pay, slighted privileges and inadequate workplace promotions may be more readily evident in other populations where women have not advanced to the same degree.

However, this study relates interesting information with regard to Thoits' (1987) viewpoint. Thoits postulated that the extent to which women were accepted at work was equivalent to the ability of both genders to come to amiable terms and deal with differences constructively. Further research is needed that examines the relationship between the proportion of women in a population, management preferences, and their

corresponding acceptance at work.

The research findings and the observations cited in Chapter II weave the common thread that men and women operate from different assumptions. It may be that banks, as surveyed in this study, are managing to bring the strengths of both genders together. Thus, men and women in these environments have possibly discovered organizational challenges to be greater than gender challenges.

The survey instrument was a self-reported assessment, which raises several issues that cannot be studied without subordinate assessment as well. In addition, this research calls for future study because salary differences experienced by women, decision making power, job titles, etc., call into question that more research is needed. However, this study may reveal that women, because of their more equal status in greater numbers within this population, may have gained a greater acceptance by men and that their work has gained more value by men. Gherardi (1995) concluded that this acceptance was necessary in order for men to become open communicators with women.

With more women in leadership positions, as in this population, perhaps behaviors become more modified on both sides. Men may accept, for instance, that some humor is inappropriate and women may become more comfortable with behaviors encompassed in the dimensions of initiative and critique. The presence of women in management may have tempered this population by lightening the burden of each gender.

Marlowe's (1989) observation that business hierarchies implicitly regulate relations between the genders may have merit. With the population in this study, the business hierarchies appeared non-traditional in that numerous women were represented at

supervisory levels. Therefore, these organizations may have managed to regulate relations between the genders to the point that no significant gender differences appeared in their management preferences.

Finally, the study raises questions about the instrument. It may be that the wording of certain questions on the Managerial Grid Questionnaire makes it conducive for answers to fall into the 9,9 (Team Management) preference. As stated earlier, Blake (personal communication, October 30, 1996) indicated that most respondents would fall into the 9,9 preference. Perhaps adapting the questions to better achieve a more accurate self-analysis is in order. For instance, statements such as, "I pinpoint weaknesses or failure to measure up; in the event of a mistake, I assess blame" or "I stand up for my convictions because I know I am right. If others oppose me, I try to prove that they are wrong" may be too directly stated for self-evaluation. Perhaps these and other statements could be written to measure the same response in a better way. So far, the results described in this section have assumed that the instrument is useful for assessing gender differences in management preferences. If gender differences in fact do exist in the workplace, a different, more finely tuned instrument may be needed to capture these differences.

#### Recommendations for Future Research

The findings of the study were that no significant differences exist between the genders with regard to management preference. Most respondents' self-assessment was a dominant management preference of the 9,9 style. It is recommended that a follow-up

study be performed with the same questionnaire being provided to leaders and subordinates of those who responded. Such analysis could provide information about the correspondence of self-perceptions with the perceptions of subordinates.

Another recommendation is that this assessment be given to leaders in organizations other than banks or organizations that are in other geographic locations. Although the results of this study indicated no significant gender differences in management preferences, such differences might be apparent in other types of organizations. Differences and similarities between organizations would provide a broader understanding of the topic. Such research could lead to additional questions and potential answers.

In addition, another study of a population of bankers outside of Oklahoma would provide additional insight. Such a study could potentially tap gender and cultural differences that vary geographically.

Finally, a study of the dynamics behind working relationships between the genders might be interesting. With no significant differences in management preferences exhibited in this study, and with the most preferred management style of both genders being 9,9 (Team Management), assessments of male views on women in the workplace (as cited by Beatty, 1996) and subordinate trust in male versus female supervisors (as cited by Sekaran & Kassner, 1991) are needed. Additionally, it is recommended that any such future study link an examination of values (based on gender) to the assessment. This would provide more in-depth information for purposes of comparison to the works of Hite (1993) and others (Godfrey, 1992; Burke & McKeen, 1996; Schein, Mueller, Lituchy & Liu, 1996)

The power of research is that it helps us challenge our assumptions. This study sheds light not only on individual differences in management preferences, but also on how an entire population differed from basic gender assumptions with regard to management preferences. This study highlights the complexity of understanding and measuring men's and women's management preferences. Attributing characteristics to one gender without having a clear view of the preferences for each gender on specific management dimensions could be futile. With this and other information gleaned from future studies, the summary of information may provide more multi-dimensional considerations of factors that relate to gender issues in the workplace.

### Conclusion

With regard to the extent to which males and females differ in their management preference, no significant difference was noted. It was observed, however, that for a few of the managerial dimensions studied, some fluidity existed for both males and females. This might suggest that for any one dimension, both genders might employ a management preference that was different from their overall dominant management preference.

With regard to perception of power, no significant differences were found in this study. Both men and women perceived themselves to have power equivalent to their counterparts with equivalent titles. In addition, perceived power did not seem to significantly affect management preference.

As the literature review in Chapter II exhibited, the rules governing U. S. business appear to be changing as we approach the 21st Century. The changes are predicted to

pivot around increased communication in workplaces, more flexibility within organizations, and more direct internal interaction between all members of a company. If these rules apply, then the 9,9 management preferences exhibited by most of the respondents to this study might indicate that banks are better prepared to meet these changing edicts in a more positive manner.

With change appearing inevitable for the U. S. workplace, how these companies now choose to continue nurturing their human resources toward increased productivity through the strength and flexibility of their human resources may prove crucial to their organizational survival in the 21st Century.

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APPENDIX A

COVER LETTER AND PERSONAL DATA SHEET



February 1, 1997

FIELD(NAME)

FIELD(BANK)

FIELD(ADDRESS)

FIELD(CITY STATE ZIP)

RE: Questionnaire for Master's Degree  
Research on Management Preferences

FIELD(SALUTATION)

I am a graduate student at Oklahoma State University in the area of Adult Education/Human Resource Development. I would appreciate your participation for my thesis research. As one of the individuals who has a leadership position in a lending institution within the state of Oklahoma, you are the subject of my graduate research.

**Your participation will take only 15 minutes.**

The purpose of my research is to assess the formation and development of management preferences and to draw conclusions as to how these preferences may or may not be conducive to business in the 21st Century. As FIELD(TITLE) you are in a favorable position to assist with this research. Your involvement in this research may also help to promote more meaningful management directives for the success of other businesses in general.

Your participation in this study would involve responding to the enclosed questionnaire. A summary of this research will be made available to you and the College of Education at Oklahoma State University following the conclusion of the survey.

If you agree to take part in this research:

1. Please complete the Personal Data Sheet and the questionnaire (both enclosed) and return them to me by February 10, 1997. A return envelope is also enclosed for your convenience.
2. You will receive a summation of the completed information by May 30, 1997 if you indicate you would like to receive this information (on the Personal Data Sheet).

Because of the nature of this study, your responses to the questionnaire will remain **confidential**. The questionnaire has been coded for the purposes of checking their return and segmenting information received into categories for analysis. Once all questionnaires have been received and the information has been segmented, the codes will be destroyed and your responses will not be linked with your code or your name.

Page 2

I appreciate your understanding that discussion with individuals associated with your business has the potential of skewing the final outcome. For this reason, I ask that you please not confer with your fellow colleagues or business associates.

I realize that this is a busy time for you. For this reason, I appreciate even more the fact that you are so willing to give of your time. Your time with this research project is also indicative of your support to the educational process, as well as of your dedication to furthering the understanding of the vital elements employed by successful business management.

Please feel free to call me at (405) 372-5509 if you have any questions. Once again, thank you for your support.

Sincerely,

Cathy Bolton  
Graduate Student, OAED  
204 Willard Hall  
Oklahoma State University  
Stillwater, OK 74078  
(405) 372-5509

Catherine Sleezer, Ph.D.  
Thesis Adviser

enclosures

P S. This research project has been reviewed and approved in accordance with Oklahoma State University's Internal Review Board (IRB) and their established human subjects guidelines. If you have any questions about this process, please feel free to contact Gay Clarkson, IRB Executive Secretary, 305 Whitehurst Hall, Stillwater, OK, 74078, 405/744-5700.

PERSONAL DATA SHEET  
 Master's Research Study by Cathy Bolton  
 204 Willard Hall, Oklahoma State University  
 Stillwater, OK 74078  
 405/372-5509

Please circle the appropriate answer to each of the following (information is desired for demographic organization). Once completed, continue to the next page.

DEMOGRAPHICS

<b>Your gender:</b>	Male	Female				
<b>Your age:</b>	20-29	30-39	40-49	50-59	60 and older	
<b>Your current salary range:</b>	\$15,000-\$20,000		\$39,001-\$49,000			
	\$20,001-\$29,000		\$49,001-\$59,000			
	\$29,001-\$39,000		\$59,001-and up			
<b>Number of individuals you supervise:</b>	0	1-5	6-10	11-15	16 or more	
<b>Your educational background:</b>	High School Diploma		Master's Degree			
	Associate's Degree		Doctorate Degree			
	College Degree (Bachelor's)					
	Other (i.e., Certificate, etc.): _____					
<b>Your race:</b>	Caucasian	Afro-American	Hispanic	Asian		
	Native American		Other: _____			
<b>Number of years you have been employed by your current employer:</b>	0-1 year	1-3 years	3-6 years	6-9 years	9 or more years	
<b>Within your organization, how much power do you feel you have as compared to others with comparable titles?</b>						
high power	5	4	3	2	1	low power

-----  
*AN ANALYSIS OF YOUR MANAGEMENT STYLE!!*

**AS MY "THANK YOU"** for helping with this survey. I would like to send you your management preference plotted on a managerial style grid. Would you like to receive the results of this survey as well as an analysis of your management style preference? Yes \_\_\_\_\_ No \_\_\_\_\_

If yes, what is your preferred mailing address?

\_\_\_\_\_  
 Name

\_\_\_\_\_  
 Address

\_\_\_\_\_  
 City

\_\_\_\_\_  
 State

\_\_\_\_\_  
 Zip

Thanks again!

APPENDIX B

BLAKE AND MCCANSE'S (1991) MANAGERIAL GRID QUESTIONNAIRE

BLAKE & MCCANSE'S MANAGERIAL GRID  
(Blake & McCanse, 1991)

**Conflict Solving**

- \_\_\_\_\_ When conflict arises, I acknowledge it but reemphasize the importance of what I propose to bring others around to my point of view.
- \_\_\_\_\_ I maintain a neutral stance or try to stay out of conflict altogether.
- \_\_\_\_\_ When conflict arises, I shift and turn in an effort to get around it; I avoid getting caught head on.
- \_\_\_\_\_ When conflict arises, I try to find a reasonable position that everyone can live with.
- \_\_\_\_\_ When conflict arises, I seek out reasons for it in order to resolve underlying causes of tensions.
- \_\_\_\_\_ When conflict arises, I try to cut it off or win my position.
- \_\_\_\_\_ I avoid generating conflict, but when it appears I try to soothe feelings to keep people together.

**Initiative**

- \_\_\_\_\_ I exert vigorous effort and others enthusiastically join in.
- \_\_\_\_\_ I drive myself and others.
- \_\_\_\_\_ I initiate whatever actions might help and support the efforts of others.
- \_\_\_\_\_ I expect others to follow my lead and extend positive appreciation to those who support my efforts.
- \_\_\_\_\_ I put out enough to get by, generally in response to requests from others.
- \_\_\_\_\_ I seek to maintain a steady pace and confine my effort to the tried and true.
- \_\_\_\_\_ I initiate actions that are in my own best interest by seeking a trade-off with others. I help them get something that they want if they'll help me get something I want.

### **Inquiry**

- \_\_\_\_\_ I dig out areas of vital private concern to me in an inquisitive but nonthreatening way.
- \_\_\_\_\_ I expect others to keep me informed and I show appreciation when they do; I look with disfavor upon those who fail to keep me up to date.
- \_\_\_\_\_ I search for and seek to verify information; I invite and listen for ideas and attitudes different than my own; I continuously test the soundness of my own thinking by comparing it with the thinking of others.
- \_\_\_\_\_ I stay on top of information to be sure that I am in control and doublecheck everything I hear to be sure that others are not making mistakes.
- \_\_\_\_\_ I search for information that suggests all is well. For the sake of harmony, I am not inclined to challenge what others say.
- \_\_\_\_\_ I solicit information in order to see where others stand on an issue; this lets me know whether my own thinking is on track.
- \_\_\_\_\_ I rarely ask questions. Usually I just go along in a more or less tongue-in-cheek way with whatever others tell me.

### **Advocacy**

- \_\_\_\_\_ I keep my own counsel but respond to questions when asked. I rarely reveal my convictions because then I don't have to stand behind them.
- \_\_\_\_\_ I tell others what they want or expect to hear.
- \_\_\_\_\_ I express my convictions in a tentative way and try to meet others halfway
- \_\_\_\_\_ I feel it is important to express my concerns and convictions in order that others can know what I am thinking. I respond to ideas sounder than my own by changing my mind
- \_\_\_\_\_ I stand up for my convictions because I know I'm right. If others oppose me, I try to prove that they are wrong
- \_\_\_\_\_ I embrace the ideas of others even though I may have private reservations. I feel it's better to be supportive than right

**Advocacy (continued)**

\_\_\_\_\_ Although I seldom back off my own convictions, I do permit others to express their ideas so I can understand where they are coming from and help them see the error of their thinking.

**Decision Making**

\_\_\_\_\_ I search for decisions that maintain good relations and encourage others to make the decisions for me when possible.

\_\_\_\_\_ Although I seek the final say in decisions, I still listen to what others have to say. In this way they get the benefit of my thinking but I maintain their loyalty.

\_\_\_\_\_ I let others make decisions or else leave it to fate.

\_\_\_\_\_ I lobby my point of view to others in order to “sell” my position; I may use persuasion or indirect threat to ensure that my wishes are carried out.

\_\_\_\_\_ I search for workable decisions that others find acceptable.

\_\_\_\_\_ I place high value on arriving at sound decisions; I seek input from others and work for understanding and agreement.

\_\_\_\_\_ I place high value on making my own decisions and am rarely influenced by what others have to say

**Critique**

\_\_\_\_\_ I pinpoint weaknesses or failure to measure up; in the event of a mistake, I assess blame

\_\_\_\_\_ I give encouragement and offer praise when something positive happens but avoid saying anything negative.

\_\_\_\_\_ When I give others feedback, I expect them to appreciate it because it is for their own good

\_\_\_\_\_ I avoid giving feedback and rarely critique the work of others or myself

**Critique (continued)**

- \_\_\_\_\_ I use critique to motivate and inspire others to further action that is in my best interest; I tend to discount negative aspects of performance as this lowers the level of enthusiasm.
- \_\_\_\_\_ I give informal or indirect feedback to keep others moving forward at an acceptable pace; if I have to say something negative, I make sure I have something positive to say as well.
- \_\_\_\_\_ I encourage two-way feedback to strengthen operations. I place high value on critique and it is evidenced in everything I do.

**GRID STYLE ANALYSIS**

	9,1	1,9	9+9	1,1	5,5	Opp.	9,9
Conflict Solving.....	F	G	A	B	D	C	E
Initiative.....	B	C	D	E	F	G	A
Inquiry.....	D	E	B	G	F	A	C
Advocacy.....	E	F	G	A	C	B	D
Decision Making.....	G	A	B	C	E	D	F
Critique.....	A	B	C	D	F	E	G
Total Points.....	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
Dominant Style:_____	Back-Up Style:_____						



APPENDIX C

MODIFIED MANAGERIAL GRID QUESTIONNAIRE USED IN THIS STUDY

## MANAGERIAL GRID QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Complete the personal data sheet (next page).
2. Complete the Managerial Questionnaire: To rank your own management style, rank the paragraphs from most typical to least typical as descriptions of your behavior, with 7 as the most typical, 6 as the next most typical, and so on to 1 as the least typical. When you finish ranking the paragraphs, there should be only one of each number from 7 to 1. There can be no ties. Each unit of questions is on a separate page. Read each of the paragraphs on one page, then go back and assign your rankings for that page. Continue with each of the six pages in the same manner. Every page should have rankings from 7 to 1.

Remember: There are no right or wrong answers; therefore, please take your time and be as honest as possible. Answer the questions in accordance with your work environment, based on what **most describes you**. ALL ANSWERS ARE CONFIDENTIAL. Do not skip any questions.

3. Once you are finished, place the Personal Data Sheet and Questionnaire in the enclosed, self-addressed, stamped envelope and mail. Thank you for assisting with this research effort.

**SECTION 1:** Rank from 7 (most typical) to 1 (least typical)

- \_\_\_\_\_ When conflict arises, I acknowledge it but reemphasize the importance of what I propose to bring others around to my point of view.
- \_\_\_\_\_ I maintain a neutral stance or try to stay out of conflict altogether.
- \_\_\_\_\_ When conflict arises, I shift and turn in an effort to get around it; I avoid getting caught head on.
- \_\_\_\_\_ When conflict arises, I try to find a reasonable position that everyone can live with.
- \_\_\_\_\_ When conflict arises, I seek out reasons for it in order to resolve underlying causes of tensions.
- \_\_\_\_\_ When conflict arises, I try to cut it off or win my position.
- \_\_\_\_\_ I avoid generating conflict, but when it appears I try to soothe feelings to keep people together.

**SECTION 2:** Rank from 7 (most typical) to 1 (least typical)

- \_\_\_\_\_ I exert vigorous effort and others enthusiastically join in.
- \_\_\_\_\_ I drive myself and others.
- \_\_\_\_\_ I initiate whatever actions might help and support the efforts of others
- \_\_\_\_\_ I expect others to follow my lead and extend positive appreciation to those who support my efforts.
- \_\_\_\_\_ I put out enough to get by, generally in response to requests from others.
- \_\_\_\_\_ I seek to maintain a steady pace and confine my effort to the tried and true
- \_\_\_\_\_ I initiate actions that are in my own best interest by seeking a trade-off with others. I help them get something that they want if they'll help me get something I want

**SECTION 3:** Rank from 7 (most typical) to 1 (least typical)

- \_\_\_\_\_ When making an inquiry into areas of vital private concern to me, I do so in an inquisitive but nonthreatening way

**Section 3 (continued)**

- \_\_\_\_\_ I expect others to keep me informed and I show appreciation when they do; I look with disfavor upon those who fail to keep me up to date.
- \_\_\_\_\_ I search for and seek to verify information; I invite and listen for ideas and attitudes different than my own; I continuously test the soundness of my own thinking by comparing it with the thinking of others.
- \_\_\_\_\_ I stay on top of information to be sure that I am in control and doublecheck everything I hear to be sure that others are not making mistakes.
- \_\_\_\_\_ I search for information that suggests all is well. For the sake of harmony, I am not inclined to challenge what others say.
- \_\_\_\_\_ I solicit information in order to see where others stand on an issue; this lets me know whether my own thinking is on track.
- \_\_\_\_\_ I rarely ask questions. Usually I just go along in a more or less tongue-in-cheek way with whatever others tell me.

**SECTION 4: Rank from 7 (most typical) to 1 (least typical)**

- \_\_\_\_\_ I keep my own counsel but respond to questions when asked. I rarely reveal my convictions because then I don't have to stand behind them
- \_\_\_\_\_ I tell others what they want or expect to hear
- \_\_\_\_\_ I express my convictions in a tentative way and try to meet others halfway
- \_\_\_\_\_ I feel it is important to express my concerns and convictions in order that others can know what I am thinking. I respond to ideas sounder than my own by changing my mind.
- \_\_\_\_\_ I stand up for my convictions because I know I'm right. If others oppose me, I try to prove that they are wrong.
- \_\_\_\_\_ I embrace the ideas of others even though I may have private reservations. I feel it's better to be supportive than right

**Section 4 (continued)**

\_\_\_\_\_ Although I seldom back off my own convictions, I do permit others to express their ideas so I can understand where they are coming from and help them see the error of their thinking.

**SECTION 5:** Rank from 7 (most typical) to 1 (least typical)

\_\_\_\_\_ I search for decisions that maintain good relations and encourage others to make the decisions for me when possible.

\_\_\_\_\_ Although I seek the final say in decisions, I still listen to what others have to say. In this way they get the benefit of my thinking but I maintain their loyalty.

\_\_\_\_\_ I let others make decisions or else leave it to fate.

\_\_\_\_\_ I lobby my point of view to others in order to “sell” my position; I may use persuasion or indirect threat to ensure that my wishes are carried out.

\_\_\_\_\_ I search for workable decisions that others find acceptable.

\_\_\_\_\_ I place high value on arriving at sound decisions; I seek input from others and work for understanding and agreement.

\_\_\_\_\_ I place high value on making my own decisions and am rarely influenced by what others have to say.

**SECTION 6:** Rank from 7 (most typical) to 1 (least typical)

\_\_\_\_\_ I pinpoint weaknesses or failure to measure up; in the event of a mistake, I assess blame

\_\_\_\_\_ I give encouragement and offer praise when something positive happens but avoid saying anything negative.

\_\_\_\_\_ When I give others feedback, I expect them to appreciate it because it is for their own good

\_\_\_\_\_ I avoid giving feedback and rarely critique the work of others or myself

**Section 6 (continued)**

- \_\_\_\_\_ I use critique to motivate and inspire others to further action that is in my best interest; I tend to discount negative aspects of performance as this lowers the level of enthusiasm.
- \_\_\_\_\_ I give informal or indirect feedback to keep others moving forward at an acceptable pace; if I have to say something negative, I make sure I have something positive to say as well.
- \_\_\_\_\_ I encourage two-way feedback to strengthen operations. I place high value on critique and it is evidenced in everything I do

## GRID STYLE ANALYSIS

	9,1	1,9	9+9	1,1	5,5	Opp.	9,9
Conflict Solving.....	F	G	A	B	D	C	E
Initiative.....	B	C	D	E	F	G	A
Inquiry.....	D	E	B	G	F	A	C
Advocacy.....	E	F	G	A	C	B	D
Decision Making.....	G	A	B	C	E	D	F
Critique.....	A	B	C	D	F	E	G
Total Points.....	___	___	___	___	___	___	___
Dominant Style.....	_____						

APPENDIX D

INTERNAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL

OKLAHOMA STATE UNIVERSITY  
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD  
HUMAN SUBJECTS REVIEW

Date: 10-24-96

IRB#: ED-97-030

Proposal Title: GENDER CONSIDERATION IN MANAGEMENT  
PREFERENCES

Principal Investigator(s): Catherine Sleezer, Cathy Bolton

Reviewed and Processed as: Modification

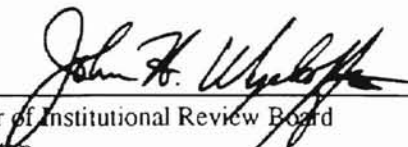
Approval Status Recommended by Reviewer(s): Approved

ALL APPROVALS MAY BE SUBJECT TO REVIEW BY FULL INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD AT NEXT MEETING, AS WELL AS ARE SUBJECT TO MONITORING AT ANY TIME DURING THE APPROVAL PERIOD.  
APPROVAL STATUS PERIOD VALID FOR DATA COLLECTION FOR A ONE CALENDAR YEAR PERIOD AFTER WHICH A CONTINUATION OR RENEWAL REQUEST IS REQUIRED TO BE SUBMITTED FOR BOARD APPROVAL.  
ANY MODIFICATIONS TO APPROVED PROJECT MUST ALSO BE SUBMITTED FOR APPROVAL.

---

Comments, Modifications/Conditions for Approval or Disapproval are as follows:

Signature:

  
Chair of Institutional Review Board

Date: February 7, 1997

cc: Cathy Bolton



To Whom It May Concern:

The title of this research study was changed after approval of the Internal Review Board. The change was made at the recommendation of all three committee members. The title was changed to better reflect the content of the study.

The new title: Survey of Gender Management Preferences of Bank Managers in Oklahoma.

APPENDIX E

CROSS REFERENCES OF GENDER WITH DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

## CROSS REFERENCES OF GENDER WITH DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

Gender	Title			
	Assistant VP	Vice President	Executive VP	Senior VP
Male	2	19	4	6
Female	9	11	7	1

VP=Vice President

Gender	Age				
	20-29 years	30-39 years	40-49 years	50-59 years	60 years & up
Male	0	9	14	6	2
Female	2	7	11	8	0

Gender	Salary					
	15-20*	20-29*	29-39*	39-49*	49-59*	60* & up
Male	0	1	4	9	7	10
Female	0	8	11	4	2	3

\*in thousands of dollars

Gender	Number of Individuals Supervised				
	0	1-5	6-10	11-15	16 & up
Male	0	12	9	4	6
Female	1	14	6	2	5

Gender	Educational Background					
	HS*	Associate's Degree	Bachelor's	Master's	Doctorate	Other
Male	4	6	18	0	0	3
Female	7	2	10	4	0	5

\*High School

Gender	Race					
	Caucasian	Native American	Afro-American	Hispanic	Asian	Other
Male	29	2	0	0	0	0
Female	27	1	0	0	0	0

Gender	Number of Years Employed by Current Employer				
	0-1 year	1-3 years	3-6 years	6-9 years	9 or more
Male	0	5	6	4	16
Female	0	2	3	1	22

## VITA

Catherine Ann Bolton

Candidate for Degree of

Master of Science

Thesis: SURVEY OF GENDER MANAGEMENT PREFERENCES OF BANK MANAGERS IN OKLAHOMA

Major Field: Occupational and Adult Education

Area of Specialization: Human Resource Development

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Tulsa, Oklahoma on July 23, 1953.

Education: Graduated from Memorial High School, Tulsa, Oklahoma, in May 1971; received Bachelor of Science degree in Psychology from Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma in December 1983. Completed the requirements for the Master of Science degree with a major in Occupational and Adult Education (with emphasis in Human Resource Development) at Oklahoma State University in May 1997.

Experience: Business Management Specialist at Meridian Technology Center, 1990 to present; proprietor, Cathy's Cookies, Etc., a gourmet bakery and cafe, from 1985-1991; numerous presentations on small business at local, state, and national levels; appointed by Congressman Bill Brewster as delegate to the 1995 White House Conference in Small Business; involved in numerous community activities.

Professional Memberships: Academy of Human Resource Development, 1995-96, Stillwater Area Human Resource Association, 1996 to present; American Business Women's Association, 1986-present; Board of Directors, Stillwater Chamber of Commerce, 1993-1997, Board of Directors, Stillwater Medical Center Foundation, 1992-1997, Oklahoma Chamber Small Business Council, 1993-present