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A STUDY OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN
LEADERSHIP STYLE AND GENDER

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A thesis presented to the Faculty of the U.S. Army
Command and General Staff College in partial
fulfillment of the requirements for the
degree

MASTER OF MILITARY ART AND SCIENCE

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Fort Leavenworth, Kansas
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The opinions and conclusions expressed herein are those of the student author and do not necessarily represent the views of the U.S. Army Command and General Staff College or any other governmental agency. (References to this study should include the foregoing statement.)

ABSTRACT

A STUDY OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADERSHIP STYLE AND GENDER BY MAJ Susan P. Kellett-Forsyth, USA, 95 pages.

This study's thesis is that women officers in the U.S. Army use a more participative style of leadership than their male counterparts. The research methodology was designed to determine the predominant leadership style of thirty men and thirty-four women. The subjects were students enrolled in the resident phase of the Command and General Staff Officers Course during 1992-1993.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

James MacGregor Burns, winner of the Pulitzer Prize for his book Leadership wrote that "leadership is one of the most observed and the least understood phenomena on earth."¹ The topic of leadership, and eventually the question of what is effective leadership, permeated American society and other nations most recently during the 1992 Presidential race between then President George Bush and Governor Bill Clinton. The unprecedented number of eligible voters that actually voted in the 1992 election (101 million) illustrated the population's concern about the country's future leadership. Each candidate's past and current leadership abilities and their corresponding results were carefully scrutinized and dissected by the American people during the campaign. Ultimately, the people of the United States voted for a change in leadership by selecting Governor Clinton for President. What exactly then is leadership and why is it so important?

At every level, leadership has shaped the world's existence. Without leadership, there would be no process of influencing people to reach necessary goals. This

application can range from a small company meeting its annual goals to stay in business to a country working its way out of a depression. History presents an infinite number of examples that show how leadership has influenced events and shaped outcomes. Regardless of a person's station in life, he or she is directly or indirectly affected by leadership.

There are probably as many definitions of leadership as people who have either studied leadership complexities or as people who have been in leadership positions. A recent survey turned up 130 definitions of leadership.³ Webster's Dictionary has no precise definition for leadership and provides a variety of choices ranging from a leader's position and his capacity to lead, to the essence of leadership being a successful resolution of problems.³ Bernard Bass, in the revised and expanded edition of Stogdill's Handbook of Leadership, writes that a definition should do more than just identify leaders and the way they acquired their positions. It should also consider the maintenance and continuity of leadership. He broadly defines leadership as "an interaction between members of a group. Leadership occurs when one group member modifies the motivation or competencies of others in the group."⁴ What becomes obvious is that the study of leadership and its definition are very complicated.

The military environment is one prime example. Military leadership separates itself from the leadership of

other institutions based on each service's mission and particular requirements. The military's primary task is to deter war by being prepared to fight and win on the battlefield.⁵ When an individual joins any military service, he takes an oath "to protect and defend the Constitution of the United States, against all enemies, foreign and domestic." By taking the oath, the individual is saying that he is prepared to ultimately give his life for his country. In the military, the leaders must inspire their followers "to risk their lives for some greater end and have the courage to demand that they do so. The military obligation (the profession of arms) demands a greater commitment. It demands that men agree to die if necessary in fulfilling their task."⁶ In a recent address, former Secretary of the Army, John O. Marsh, Jr., said, the "professional soldier must put the welfare of the nation and the accomplishment of the assigned mission before individual welfare."⁷ No other organization requires such a potential sacrifice from its members. This responsibility makes leadership in the military unique because it requires the leader to put his subordinates' lives at risk if necessary. Most other occupations do not need this type of commitment in order to meet an organization's goals.

All services of the Armed Forces exercise military leadership with differences consistent to each service's mission. The Army is the land force and its mission is to

ultimately win the battle by closing with and destroying the enemy. Leading soldiers in the face of danger requires a greater degree of determination and intensity. The Air Force and the Navy project air and sea power in support of the land forces. The unique leadership challenges facing the Army demands constant study and refinement to ensure the future development of its leaders. This study will examine leadership in the Army.

There appears to be as many definitions for military leadership as leadership in general. In the August 1992 Leadership Issue of Military Review, the many definitions of leadership, although similar, were never the same. All contributors agreed, however, that leadership was the one necessary ingredient, "without which the nation would not have an Army, but an armed mob and an unreliable one at that."⁸ Field Manual 22-100, the Army's leadership manual, defined leadership as "the process of influencing others to accomplish the mission by providing purpose, direction, and motivation."⁹ In this process there are four factors involved: the leader, the led, the environment, and communications. Field Manual 22-103, Leadership and Command at Senior Levels, defined leadership as "the art of direct and indirect influence and the skill for creating the conditions for sustained organizational success to achieve the desired result."¹⁰ In comments to the first graduating Officer Candidate School class on 27 September 1941 General

George C. Marshall described leadership as the skill that merged people, organizations, equipment, and doctrine and let them function effectively in an era of rapid technological and political change. As presented earlier, the definition of leadership is a two-way influence process between the leader and the led operating in a particular environment. The particular environment in this study is the United States Army.

The Army Command and Management Theory and Practice manual published by the US Army War College, addressed three levels of leadership: direct leadership, senior leadership, and strategic leadership. In this study's examination of Army leadership, the general focus is on direct and senior leadership. Direct leadership in the Army generally occurs from squad to battalion level and is characterized by work that is controlled, structured, and task-oriented. The leader exerts influence through personal interaction with his subordinates in an environment that is relatively stable and defined. The leader's focus is normally on the present or near future and feedback to actions is immediate. Senior leadership exists from the brigade to corps level and involves both direct and indirect leadership. Tasks are more complex and diverse, and the leader is influenced by tasks both internal and external to the organization. Since the commander works through a large staff, results to decisions

are less immediate or predictable. Feedback in this case is also not immediate.¹²

Why is the study of leadership in the Army important? Field Manual 100-5, Operations, the Army's keystone manual governing warfighting doctrine, states "the most essential element of combat power is competent and confident leadership."¹³ The dynamics of combat power: maneuver, firepower, protection, and leadership, decide the outcome of campaigns, major operations, battles and engagements. The leader selects the proper combination of maneuver, firepower, and protection that will ultimately defeat the enemy. There are no "cookie-cutter" solutions or templates that govern the proper employment of these elements. The leader is the one who makes the decisions and employs his unit's assets. His leadership is critical to the success of any of his efforts. "In the current conditions of combat, no challenge exceeds leadership in importance."¹⁴ The better the Army leader understands leadership and how to achieve effective leadership, the better he or she will be able to apply it when the outcome is a matter of life or death. "Leadership is the most important consideration to setting the stage for victory."¹⁵ The Army's mission is to deter war and when deterrence fails, to go to war and defeat the enemy. Combat has been the traditional role of the Army. As stated in FM 22-100, "quality leadership must exist throughout the force if the nation is to have an Army ready for combat."¹⁶

While defining leadership in the Army, four factors of leadership are important: the leader, the led, the situation, and communications. These four factors are always present but affect each other differently dependent on the situation. Each of these elements must be carefully studied to maximize leadership effectiveness. The study concentrates on the factor of the leader.

The leaders in today's Army are men and women who are extremely diverse coming from all parts of the world and from a variety of ethnic, economic, and religious backgrounds. The total integration of women in the Army continues today. Since the assimilation of the Women's Army Corps in 1978 and the admission of women to the United States Military Academy in 1976, the role of women leaders has been closely monitored, studied, and questioned. Women composed over 11 percent of the active duty armed services at the start of the Gulf War and their participation in Operations Desert Shield and Desert Storm now brings more attention to their presence in the Army and the other services.¹⁷ A presidential commission was appointed to study the effects of women in combat and to determine if the combat exclusion rule should be changed to allow women to serve in all branches of the Army. At the end of fiscal year 1989, women comprised 11% of the active force, filling 11,110 positions out of 91,443 overall. Of the officer specialties, 96 percent are open to women. Women are represented in every career management

field except Infantry, Armor, and Special Operations. A significant population of women (proportional to their distribution in the Army) are just now reaching the field grade ranks. Few studies have solely focused on the female Army leader and the way she leads.

The systematic study of leadership has occurred in a number of frameworks. One example is a body of theories that have been developed to explain types of leadership and their general relationship to the demands and functions of society. Trait theories initially focused on the leader and his personal traits and characteristics that separated him as a leader from his followers. Trait theorists believed that leaders could be identified by exhibiting certain traits of character and personality. Trait theories were one dimensional as they only focused on the leader and did not take the situation or the leader's followers into consideration. While trait theorists looked at leaders in terms of traits, behavior or style theorists focused on what leaders did when they actually led. "According to the leadership style approach, leadership is 'the behavior of an individual when he [or she] is directing the activities of a group toward a shared goal' (Hemphill & Coons, 1957, p.7)."

Another approach to leadership that was different from trait and leadership style theorists who concentrated solely on the leader, were the situational theorists who considered leadership as a role. "Roles are expectations about how all

people in a given position should think or act (Hollander, 1981)."¹⁹ Individuals do not create the roles they fill; the roles are formed as a result of the situation. As the situation changes, so do the dimensions of the leadership role. The task and the environment determine the type of leadership that will be demonstrated. The patterns of leadership traits will vary with each situation. Task demands and group members also modify the type of leadership displayed. "If there are general traits which characterize leaders, the patterns of such traits are likely to vary with the leadership requirements of different situations."²⁰

As leadership theory evolved, personal-situational theories were developed to link trait and situational theories. In a discussion of personal-situational theories, Bass writes that theories about leadership must contain elements of both persons and situations. "Any theory of leadership must take account of the interaction between situation and individual."²¹ With the advent of personal and situational theory, the study of leadership focused on the relationship between the leader, the follower, and the environment in which they interacted.

Interaction-expectation theories moved beyond the relationship between the leader, the follower, and the environment and looked at matching the leader's behavior to a particular situation, defined by the structure of the task and the subordinates ability level to enhance leadership

effectiveness and follower motivation. Path-goal theory and contingency theory are examples of Expectancy theory. Path-goal theory explains how a leader can increase a subordinate's motivation to accomplish organizational goals. It matches the appropriate leader behavior to the situation by examining the structure of the task and the subordinate's ability to accomplish the task. On the other hand, contingency theory examines leader-member relations, task structure, and position power in order to predict a leader's effectiveness.

Humanistic theories look less at matching the leader to the organization and focus on the development of effective and cohesive organizations. Leadership, in this case, is used to modify the organization to simultaneously allow individuals to fulfill their own needs as well as work towards accomplishing the goals of the organization.²²

This survey of leadership theories illustrates the complexity of the subject. These theories are vital because in order to arrive at a workable definition of leadership, it is essential to consider what others have discovered and written about the subject. In this review of theories, an evolution for leadership development becomes apparent as one-dimensional points of view became multi-dimensional and as the variables to consider in leadership theory formulation continue to increase. For the purpose of this study, leadership will be defined as a two-way influence process

between the leader and the follower or group of followers. The structure or environment, task, and goals of the situation will be viewed as having a significant influence in the leadership process. Effective leadership will be measured by the leader's ability to influence his subordinates to reach goal attainment.

In the study of leadership, understanding the relationship between power and leadership is valuable. Leadership is an influencing process, and power is closely linked to this influencing process. In all relationships between leaders and followers, some form of power is present and is either available to the leader or to the follower or group. There are two major categories of power to consider: personal power and position power. These two basic categories can be broken down into six more specific bases of power developed by French and Raven (1959, 1965).²³ Personal power focuses on the interpersonal relationship between the leader and the follower and includes information, expertise, and goodwill power. In contrast, position power focuses on the power provided by an individual's position in the organization and includes authority, reward, and discipline power. Leaders and followers in the influence process use power to some extent. How the power is applied determines leadership effectiveness.

In its examination of Army leadership, this study will concentrate on the female leader and the way she interacts

with her subordinates in comparison to her male counterpart. FM 22-100 defined leadership style as the personal manner and approach of leading that provides purpose, direction, and motivation. "It is the way leaders directly interact with their subordinates."²⁴ Ken Blanchard in "Leadership and the One Minute Manager" defined leadership style as the pattern of behaviors one uses when trying to influence the behaviors of others as perceived by them.²⁵

Leadership styles have been described in many different terms. The most enduring are the autocratic and democratic leadership styles. Autocratic leaders centralize power in themselves and dominate the decision-making process of the group. A leader uses an authoritarian leadership style when he is very directive and tells his subordinates what he wants done and how he wants them to accomplish the task. In FM 22-100, a leader demonstrates an autocratic leadership style when he uses his legitimate authority and position power to get results. The manual currently uses the term of a directing leadership style to describe a leader who tells his subordinates "what he wants done, and when he wants it done, and then supervises closely to ensure they follow his directions."²⁶ In Ken Blanchard's Situational Leadership II model, directive leadership is defined as the extent a leader engages in one-way communications to spell out to his followers what to do, where to do it, when to do it, and how to do it; all under the close supervision of the leader.

Three words define a directive leadership style: structure, control, and supervise.³⁷ For the purpose of this study, the terms autocratic, directive, and task-oriented will be used synonymously to describe the leadership style as explained above.

A leader who uses a democratic leadership style, shares his power and responsibilities with group members. Although the leader involves one or more of his subordinates in the decision-making process, he is still the one who must make the final decision. In FM 22-100, a leader demonstrates a democratic leadership style when he uses his personality to persuade his subordinates and involves them in the decision-making and problem-solving process. The manual currently uses a participative style to describe a leader who involves his soldiers in determining what to do and how to do it. The leader receives advice from his subordinates prior to making the final decision.³⁸ In Blanchard's Situational II model, a democratic or participative leadership style would be related to the supportive leader behavior model. A supportive leadership style is defined as the extent a leader engages in two-way communications to listen and provide support, and encouragement, to facilitate interaction, and to involve the follower in the decision making process. Three words define this style of leadership: praise, listen, and facilitate.³⁹ For the purpose of this study, the terms democratic, participative, supportive, and relations-oriented will be

used synonymously to describe the leadership style as explained above.

The study focuses on women leaders in the US Army and the styles of leadership they employ when interacting with their subordinates. The premise is that women officers in the United States Army use a more participative style of leadership than their male counterparts. Another area of consideration will be the examination of the relationship between leadership style, gender, and branch category: Combat Arms, Combat Support, and Combat Service Support. The importance of this study is to identify the female leader's predominant leadership style in order to maximize the skills that a female leader brings to her profession. In turn, this could maximize leader effectiveness, and the more effective a leader, the better the military organization and the more prepared the Army is to accomplish its mission.

Additionally, this study is of personal significance. As an Army officer, who also happens to be a women, I am interested in determining if women use a more participative leadership style. Since the start of this research, I have become more attuned to demonstrated leadership styles and have discovered that a participative leadership style is more effective for me, especially when working with my peers in my staff group. In retrospect, I have also been able to better evaluate the effectiveness of my leadership style when applied in Army units.

Throughout this introduction, leadership has been defined as an influence process, and leadership effectiveness has been measured by the leader's ability to influence his subordinates to reach goal attainment. The more a leader understands about leadership style and influence; the better he becomes at reaching goal attainment.

The first leadership principle listed in FM 22-100, Military Leadership, is: know yourself and seek self-improvement. This study will provide a way for women to measure and evaluate their own style of leadership and to better understand how they lead and influence their subordinates. It will provide some insight on leadership styles to those women who are currently in the Army and to those preparing to enter the Army. This study will not only assist women in ascertaining their leadership styles, but will also provide information to their male counterparts as well. In any organization, it is important to have a better understanding of how everyone leads in the organization. This comprehension will allow all leaders in the Army to maximize their individual leadership styles and skills and will provide necessary insight into the exercise of effective leadership. This determination of whether women leaders use a more participative style of leadership is just one-step towards a better understanding of the complicated process of leadership.

Endnotes

¹James MacGregor Burns, Leadership (New York: Harper & Row, 1978), 2.

²Ibid.

³Philip B. Gove, ed., Webster's Third New International Dictionary (Springfield, Mass: G&C Merriam Company Publishers, 1976). 1283.

⁴Bernard M. Bass, Stogdill's Handbook of Leadership (New York: Free Press, 1981), 16.

⁵Department of the Army, FM 100-1 The Army (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1991), 18.

⁶Robert L. Taylor and William E. Rosenbach, eds., Military Leadership: In Pursuit of Excellence (Boulder, CO: Westview Press, 1984), 17.

⁷Peter Maslowski, "Army Values and American Values," Military Review Vol.LXX No.4 (April 1990): 11.

⁸"Leadership: Views from Readers," Military Review Vol.LXXII No.8 (April 1992): 53.

⁹Department of the Army, FM 22-100 Military Leadership (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1990), 1.

¹⁰Department of the Army, FM 22-103 Leadership and Command at Senior Levels (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1987), 3.

¹¹George C. Marshall, "Leadership in Perspective," Marine Corps Gazette Vol.75 No.2 (February 1991): 14.

¹²Department of Command, Leadership and Management of the U.S. Army War College, Army Command and Management Theory and Practice (Carlisle Barracks, PA: U.S. Army War College, 1991), 5-2.

¹³Department of the Army, FM 100-5 Operations (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1986), 13.

¹⁴Ibid., 14.

¹⁵Department of the Army, FM 100-5 Operations: Preliminary Draft (Fort Leavenworth, KS: Command and General Staff College, 1992), 4-4.

¹⁶FM 22-100, 0.

¹⁷Rosemary Bryant Mariner, "A Soldier is A Soldier," (Monograph diss., National War College, 1992), 1.

¹⁸Jerome Adams and Janice D. Yoder, Effective Leadership for Men and Women (Norwood, NJ: Alex Publishing Corp, 1985), 4.

¹⁹Ibid.

²⁰Stogdill's Handbook of Leadership, 408.

²¹Ibid., 29.

²²Ibid., 33.

²³Stogdill's Handbook of Leadership, 170.

²⁴FM 22-100, 69.

²⁵Kenneth H. Blanchard, Leadership and the One Minute Manager (Escondido, CA: Blanchard Training and Development, 1985), 1-2.

²⁶FM 22-100, 69.

²⁷Leadership and the One Minute Manager, 2.

²⁸FM 22-100, 69.

²⁹Leadership and the One Minute Manager, 2.

CHAPTER TWO
LITERATURE REVIEW

This study's premise is that women Army officers use a more participative leadership style than their male counterparts. In his book, Effective Leadership for Women and Men, Jerome Adams stated that only in the last 15 years has systematic research on women as leaders been carried out. He wrote of about L. R. Bender who, in a study conducted in 1979, cited that much of the early literature on leadership was done by men using male subjects.¹ There is very little research available that deals with the leadership style of women officers in the Army. A significant amount of research on leadership style and gender has been conducted in the academic, and management/business fields. Social scientists have conducted numerous studies that consider all aspects of leadership and gender. Individuals with extensive experience in organizations and management have written books and articles on what they have observed in terms of leadership. For the purpose of this study, computer searches were conducted using the key words leadership and leadership style linked with the terms gender, women and sex differences. Military periodicals were checked under the terms leadership

and women in the Army. This study has carefully examined research related to the study of leadership in order to isolate data that can be applied to women leaders in the military environment.

One of the most significant reports considered in this literature review was, "Gender and Leadership Style: A Meta-Analysis" by Alice H. Eagly and Blair T. Johnson. This meta-analysis was published in "Psychological Bulletin" in 1990. The bulletin reviewed 161 research studies that compared the leadership styles of women and men and interpreted evidence found for both the presence and absence of differences between the sexes. Results showed a divergence of course between experts in organizations who believed there was a feminine mode of management; and the social scientists who believed that women and men who occupied leadership roles in organizations did not differ. Eagly and Johnson found that these two contradicting schools of thought were based on different kinds of data. The popular writing by the organizational expert was based on the individual's own experience and on interviews conducted with practicing managers. The social scientists based their conclusions on more formal studies of managerial behavior. Eagly and Johnson, therefore, conducted a meta-analysis that provided a systematic, quantitative integration of the available research in which the leadership styles of men and women were compared and statistical analyses were performed.²

In a theoretical analysis of sex differences in leadership style, Eagly and Johnson gave reasons to expect the absence and presence of sex differences in leadership style. They believed that the men and women who were in leadership positions in organizations had been selected and socialized for those leadership roles, and it was reasonable to assume that the male and female leaders who occupied the same organizational role should differ very little. There were several reasons for the presence of differences that were not nullified by organizational selection or socialization. "In particular, men and women may come to managerial [or leadership] roles with a somewhat different set of skills."³ They considered that women as a group may have more advanced social skills and these skills allow them to perform managerial roles differently than men. Skillful interpersonal behavior promotes a leadership style that is participative. The characteristics of collaborative decision making introduce interpersonal complexity that is not encountered by autocratic leadership.⁴ Another difference was attributed to a spill over of gender roles onto organizational roles. Individuals in an organization may have gender based expectations that are different for female and male managers. This effect is also demonstrated when individuals who hold positions in organizations have negative attitudes about women in managerial or leadership roles. These negative attitudes can create an atmosphere of doubt

about the female manager's abilities and lead to a nonsupportive environment. Finally, the women in an organization may have token status which increases visibility and can have a number of negative implications of how these women are perceived and treated. "As relative newcomers in many managerial roles" there could be subtle differences in the structural position of men and women in an organization.

In the results of their meta-analysis, the largest overall sex difference occurred on the tendency for women to adopt a more democratic or participative style and for men to adopt a more autocratic or directive style. Ninety-two percent of available comparisons were in the direction of more democratic behavior from women than from men. These findings were consistent in laboratory experiments, organizational studies, and assessment studies that assessed leadership styles of individuals not in leadership roles.

The tendency for women to adopt a more democratic style is in line with the reasoning for differences as discussed earlier. They have more fully developed social skills and these skills are better utilized with a participative style of leadership. They gain acceptance by using a collaborative decision making process that encourages and solicits input from their subordinates. And finally, as they become more accepted and experienced as managers, they gain more self-confidence in their abilities as leaders.

Eagly and Johnson found that the tendency for a female to use a more interpersonal and more democratic style of leadership decreased if the role was male dominated. Their findings suggest that in an extremely male dominated role, women lose authority if they adopt a distinctively feminine style of leadership. In order to survive in these male dominated roles, the women would probably adopt the style of a typical male role model.

Arthur Jago and Victor Vroom conducted another important study that looked at participative leader behavior. This study was considered in the meta-analysis discussed above and is also significant on its own. In their study, "Sex Differences in the Incidence and Evaluation of Participative Leader Behavior", Jago and Vroom conducted two experiments. The first experiment indicated the level of subordinate participation that the subjects of the experiment would encourage in 30 hypothetical decision making situations. The second experiment evaluated autocratic versus participative behavior. In the first experiment, both the female students and managers were found to be more participative in leadership style than their male counterparts. In the second experiment, males and females who were believed to be participative were rated favorably, while females who were perceived to be more autocratic received negative evaluations. Males perceived to be autocratic were given modest but positive evaluations. This

illustrates another reason why women are more participative in their interaction. When they behave in an autocratic manner, they "evoke misgivings in both sexes." Women will use a more participative style to avoid negative evaluations.

In their paper "Leadership in the U.S. Army: A Frame Analysis," Dr. Dick Heimovics, Professor of Organizational Behavior at the University of Missouri-Kansas City and U.S. Army Majors James Foster, Kenneth Maddox, Timothy Stroud, and Michael Street examined and compared the espoused and demonstrated leadership of thirty-four U.S. Army officers. Using criteria developed from Lee Bolman and Terrence Deal's multi-frame orientation, they first evaluated statements that described each officers espoused theory of effective leadership. They then evaluated narratives that described how each officer had dealt with a critical leadership event and compared the results from each evaluation. The multi-frame orientation which Bolman and Deal based on major schools of organizational research and theory was used to evaluate both statements. "Their framework defined four distinct organizational perspectives that leaders may adopt to understand the many realities of organizational life: structural, human resources, political, and symbolic." A more detailed explanation of the frames follows in Chapter Three: Research Methodology.

In general, the study found "the human resource frame was used as much as it was espoused, and used much more than

the structural frame. It was the dominant frame found in the narrative of critical leadership events."⁷ The structural and symbolic frames were espoused much more than they were actually used. On the other hand, while the political frame was rarely espoused, it was often used in the description of the critical leadership event.⁸

Dr. Heimovics wrote that it was not surprising that the political frame was not frequently espoused. "It is rarely included in institutional leadership training and is not readily referenced in Army publications on leadership."⁹ In his analysis of the difference in the use versus the espousal of the political frame, Dr. Heimovics wrote "without acknowledging the political aspect of leadership effectiveness, it may be implied that those who can adapt and adopt a political orientation without espousing it may more likely be successful."¹⁰

Social scientists have made and continue to make significant contributions to the study and understanding of leadership. Their studies play an important role in the research conducted in other areas. Another prolific and valuable source is in the field of business and management. Leadership in organizations is widely researched, discussed, and published. In 1990, Harvard Business Review published "Ways Women Lead" which sparked a tremendous amount of debate on the subject of how women lead. The importance and impact of the article was evident in this review of literature as it

was referenced in most management articles following its publication. Judy B. Rosener, a faculty member at the Graduate School of Management at the University of California, Irvine, wrote the article. The Leadership Foundation commissioned Rosener to conduct a study of men and women leaders. The International Women's Forum created The Leadership Foundation to help women advance and to educate the public about the contributions women can and are making in government, business, and other fields. The study consisted of an eight page questionnaire and was sent to all of the International Women's Forum (IWF) members. The IWF was founded in 1982 to give prominent women leaders around the world a way to share their knowledge. Each respondent was asked to supply the name of a man in a similar organization with similar responsibilities. He, in turn, received the same questionnaire to fill out. Rosener had 465 respondents in her sample. The questionnaire asked questions about the individual's leadership style, organization, work-family issues, and personal characteristics.

At the conclusion of her study, Rosener presented several intriguing findings. She found that women were more likely than men to use transformational leadership. Transformational leadership was leadership that motivated "others by transforming their self-interest into goals of the organization". Rosener found that women were more likely than men to use personal power as opposed to position power.

As defined in the introductory chapter, personal power focused on the interpersonal relationship between the leader and the follower and included information, expertise, and goodwill power. On the other hand, position power focused on the power provided by one's position in the organization and included authority, reward, and discipline power. Rosener found that women used power based on charisma, work record, and contacts. She found that most men and women describe themselves as having a mix of traits that are considered feminine, masculine, and gender-neutral. Women who described themselves as being predominantly feminine or gender-neutral, reported a higher level of followership among their female subordinates than women who described themselves as masculine.¹¹ This follows with the findings of Jago and Vrooms' study on appropriate gender behavior.

Rosener's article was based on the results of her study. In her article, she described a second generation of managerial women who were finding success in organizations "not by adopting the style and habits that have proved successful for men but by drawing on the skills and attitudes they developed from their shared experience as women."¹² These women were drawing on what was unique to their socialization as women. Again, Rosener found that women tended to describe themselves as transformational. She called their demonstrated leadership style "interactive leadership" in contrast to the traditional command and

control style of leadership characteristic of men. Interactive leadership encourages participation and the sharing of power and information. It goes beyond the principles of participative management and works to energize followers and to enhance their feelings of self-worth. Many of the women that Rosener interviewed described their participatory style of leadership as coming naturally to them. They did not feel that they had adopted this style of leadership for its business value. These leaders recognized some of the disadvantages of participatory leadership: it took more time; it required giving up some control by asking others to participate in the decision making/information sharing process; and the leader was more vulnerable to criticism. The women preferred using a participative style of leadership but could use other forms of leadership when necessary.

Rosener attributed her subjects' tendency toward interactive leadership style to socialization and career paths. Prior to the 1960s, expectations for men and women were different. Women were expected to be wives, mothers, teachers, nurses and community volunteers. These roles required that they be cooperative, nurturing, supportive, gentle and kind. On the other hand, men were expected to be strong, competitive, decisive and in control. Rosener believed that since women were cooperative, emotional, and supportive, they were more likely than men to use interactive

leadership. In terms of their career opportunities, when women first entered the business world, their jobs were consistent with what they had been doing at home and when volunteering in the community. They were more likely to work in a staff position or in communications or human resources. These positions just reinforced their natural skills.

The IWF survey showed that a nontraditional leadership style would be effective in organizations that accepted this style. Rosener did not look at large traditional institutions but looked at women in medium sized organizations that experienced fast growth and change. By their very nature, these organizations created opportunities for women and were hospitable to their nontraditional management style. Not all individuals agreed with the findings of Rosener's article. In the following issue of Harvard Business Review, many readers offered their opinion on the issue of leadership and gender. Cynthia Fuchs Epstein, a distinguished Professor of the Graduate Center at the City University of New York, wrote that Rosener's research was flawed because she relied on the leader's self-assessment. She stated that "much current research shows that men and women tend to stereotype their own behavior according to cultural views of gender-appropriate behavior, as much as they stereotype the behavior of other groups." Frederica Olivares, president and publisher of her own publishing company and founder and president of The European

Foundation of Women wrote, that "adopting a leadership style that draws on what is unique to their experience as women is less new and surprising for European observers." European countries that have strong family-focused socialization or a vigorous women's movement make it possible for women in management to retain a gender-conscious style in organizations.¹⁴ Bernard Bass, distinguished Professor of Management at the Center for Leadership Studies, State University of New York at Binghamton, and author of the revised and expanded edition of Stogdill's Handbook of Leadership agreed with Rosener's results. In his studies, he also found that women were somewhat more likely to be transformational leaders characterized by charismatic leadership, inspirational leadership, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration. While Bass agreed with Rosener's approach to interactive leadership, he did not like her label since leadership is usually defined as an interactive process. He substituted the term relations-oriented leadership versus task-oriented leadership. He also suggested that while the general differences between sexes exist, by the time a woman has reached the higher management levels, she has socialized herself to operate in the dominant male mode so no real differences between men and women would emerge in task and relations orientation.¹⁵ This finding is consistent with what was discussed in Eagly's and Johnson's meta-analysis on Gender and Leadership Styles.

The review of literature found many articles that looked at the ways men and women lead. In "Nation's Business," Sharon Nelton's article, "Men, Women and Leadership", addressed a new generation of women leaders who were bringing with them a style described as more consensus building, open, and encouraging of participation. This style of leadership was based on greater interaction and was especially suited to the contemporary work force. Nelton wrote that women can meet the challenge because they are comfortable with persuading, encouraging, and motivating people. Nelton wrote about Ellen Richstone, Chief Financial Officer of Bull HN Information Systems, an otherwise all male corporate inner circle. Richstone who supervises 700 employees stated that her "feeling is that the women who will do the best in the long run are the ones who are comfortable being themselves" and not clones of their male counterparts. Nelton wrote that two types of leadership have appeared and these types have grown out of different experiences. Men's leadership styles have been developed in the military and on the playing field, while women's have been developed in managing the home and nurturing husbands and children. In her article, Nelton also addressed the issue that gender does not play a role in leadership style, but presents the belief of leadership style as a function of personality and life experiences. Less emphasis should be placed on the leadership differences between men and women.¹²

A number of articles addressed the issue of leadership differences between men and women. Jan Grant, in "Organizational Dynamics" considered the current leadership situation in her article titled "Women as Managers: What They Can Offer To Organizations. In HR Magazine, Jonathan Segal wrote about "Women on the Verge...of Equality." He believed that women were more likely than men to encourage a subordinate's participation in decision making since inclusion is at the core of women's interactive leadership style. In his article, he asserts that it is only when men realize that women have different interactive styles that they will be able to appreciate a women's strengths.¹⁷ Mark Powell of the University of Connecticut in his article, "One More Time: Do Female and Male Managers Differ?", wrote that his review of studies did not support a different view of sex differences in management.¹⁸

This review of literature demonstrates that there is fierce polarity on the issue of leadership style and gender. The articles and studies that have been referenced do, however, indicate that women are different than men in how they lead. In particular, research generally seemed to support the premise that women used a more participative style of leadership. At this time, there is no definitive research on how women leaders in the Army might differ from their male counterparts. It is still the focus of this study to research this aspect of leadership.

Endnotes

¹Jerome Adams and Janice D. Yoder, Effective Leadership for Men and Women (Norwood, NJ: Alex Publishing Corp, 1985), 43-45.

² Alice H. Eagly and Blair T. Johnson, "Gender and Leadership Style: A Meta-Analysis," Psychological Bulletin Vol.108 No.2 (1990): 234.

³Ibid., 248.

⁴Ibid., 235.

⁵Arthur Yago and Victor Vroom, "Sex Differences in the Incidence and Evaluation of Participative Leader Behavior," Journal of Applied Psychology Vol.67 No.6 (1982): 776.

⁶Dick Heimovics, "Leadership in the U.S. Army: A Frame Analysis" (University of Missouri-Kansas City, 1992), 4.

⁷Ibid., 17.

⁸Ibid., 15.

⁹Ibid., 19.

¹⁰Ibid., 20.

¹¹Judy B. Rosener, "Ways Women Lead," Harvard Business Review (November-December 1990): 121.

¹²Ibid., 119.

¹³"Debate: Readers and Authors Face Off Over HBR's Last Issue.", Harvard Business Review (January-February 1991): 150.

¹⁴Ibid., 151.

¹⁵Ibid., 152-153.

¹⁶Sharon Nelton, "Men, Women and Leadership," Nations Business (May 1991): 19.

¹⁷Jonathan Segal, "Women on the Verge...of Equality," HR Magazine (June 1991): 118.

¹⁸Mark Powell, "One More Time: Do Female and Male Managers Differ?," Academy of Management Executive Vol.4 No. 3 (1990), 74.

CHAPTER THREE
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study's premise is that women officers in the United States Army use a more participative leadership style than their male counterparts. In general, the research design examined the effect of gender on leadership style. A quasi-experimental design was selected to create and execute a research design that allowed the evaluation of leadership style based on gender. The quasi-experiment is distinguished from the classical experiment primarily by the lack of random assignment of subjects to an experimental group and to a control group.¹ In this study, an experimental group and a control group were not feasible since men and women's leadership styles were being compared. The independent variable in this experiment was the gender of the subject. The dependent variable was his or her demonstrated leadership style, either participative or autocratic. This research design evaluated leadership style using two different instruments; the Command Philosophy statement and The Leader Behavior Analysis II survey developed by Blanchard Training and Development.

The first instrument was the command philosophy statement. This statement was selected for evaluation of leadership style because an individual's command philosophy generally reflects his or her predominant leadership style. In a study titled "Command Philosophy Development," LTC Vernon Hatley defined "command philosophy as a set of general principles governing a commander's conduct and thought which can be transmitted orally or in writing, formally or informally to groups or through key subordinates."² A command philosophy statement allowed subordinates to learn about their leader's standards, expectations, and personal leadership style. The Army War College's Command and Management Theory and Practice Reference Text stated:

A command philosophy should describe what the commander considers to be the most important and provide insight into how the commander goes about doing his job . . . focus should be broad enough to provide reference points for ethical personal leadership style and managerial style preference issues.³

In his study, LTC Hatley cited a survey of 20 commanders at Fort Benning during a three year period from 1985-1988. The commanders surveyed believed that a command philosophy should include objectives, values, purpose and mission, a vision, and an outline of leadership style.⁴ LTC Hatley also discovered that additional similar surveys reinforced and validated the results of the Fort Benning survey.

Closely linked to a leader's command philosophy was his vision. FM 22-103, Leadership and Command at Senior Levels described vision as the unit's desired end state. It was only when the commanders understood their unit's long term objectives that they could effectively prepare and clearly communicate precise statements of intent. The commanders that had a well-developed vision and understood the requisite leadership responsibilities were able to develop the desired leadership depth in the organization.⁵ It was also the senior leader's responsibility to coach and develop his subordinates. Therefore, leadership and leadership style played an integral role in the development of a vision and command philosophy.

The intent of this research design was to determine an individual's leadership style in terms of gender. The primary tool used to accomplish this intent was the assigned command philosophy writing requirement. As part of the resident phase of the Command and General Staff Officer Course's (CGSOC) core curriculum in leadership instruction, the Center for Army Leadership (CAL) required each student enrolled in the CGSC to develop and write a command philosophy. The Center for Army Leadership designed an open-ended writing requirement to allow each student the latitude to freely express what he or she believed was an appropriate command philosophy. (See Appendix B for assignment, dated 17 July 1992, Subject: Writing Requirement Guidance, AY 92-93.)

Students wrote their papers from the perspective of a senior level leader, brigade commander or higher, commanding a large, complex organization, be it combat, combat support, or combat service support.⁶ The only mandatory portion of the assignment was the writing of a vision statement at the beginning of each command philosophy. The vision statement had to clearly communicate the desired end that the commander wanted his unit to achieve. The second portion of the paper examined components that the leader used to develop his command philosophy to attain his or her end state. Students selected topics that supported their command philosophy and vision. The assignment suggested several topics to include command climate, direct and indirect influence, leader development, and leadership theory, to name a few. Students were not restricted to the suggested topics, but were allowed to address topics that they felt were essential to their command.

Students did not write their philosophies without some preliminary instruction. The Center for Army Leadership designed its curriculum to support the writing assignment. All students received the same instruction. Papers were due at the start of lesson ten and had the nine preceding lessons as a base and reference to assist them in writing their command philosophies.

The first lesson discussed the foundations of leadership and focused on developing a positive command

climate. Lesson Two looked at ethics and the senior leader and Lesson Three concentrated on equal opportunity. Lesson Four examined the military application of leadership theory. Lesson Five dealt with leader development while Lesson Six focused on command philosophy development. Lesson Seven discussed senior level leadership and Lesson Eight considered the leadership challenges of combat. During Lesson Nine, senior leaders from outside the classroom, conducted leadership seminars for the staff groups in the Command and General Staff Officer Course. The seminars allowed the students to query the senior leaders about their experiences, their expectations of subordinate leaders, and their effective leadership style(s). This session also gave the students the opportunity to discuss the Command Philosophy statements with a senior leader. The practical advice offered by the senior leaders helped the students to better understand the importance of an effective Command Philosophy statement.

This research design selected the assigned command philosophy papers as a way to determine leadership style based on the assumption that a student's statement would reflect his or her prominent leadership style. In order to evaluate these command philosophies, a multi-frame orientation developed by Lee Bolman and Terrence Deal was used. Their book, Modern Approaches to Understanding and

Managing Organizations discussed the multi-frame model in detail.

Bolman and Deal identified and described four frames that they based on the major schools of organizational thought. These frames consisted of the structural frame, the human resource frame, the political frame, and the symbolic frame.

The structural frame operated under the assumption that "organizations existed primarily to accomplish established goals." Each organization had an appropriate structure that maximized its environment, technology, goals and participants. "Coordination and control in the structural frame were accomplished best through the exercise of authority and impersonal rules."⁷

The human resource frame focused on the people of the organization. "The frame started from the premise that people were the most critical resource in an organization."⁸ This frame looked at ways of matching and satisfying peoples' needs, skills, and values with the goals of the organization.

The political frame "saw organizations as coalitions that included a diverse set of individuals and interest groups. Because they were coalitions, organizations inevitably had multiple, conflicting goals, which changed as the balance of power in the organization shifted."⁹

The final frame discussed was the symbolic frame. "From a symbolic perspective, organizations were judged not

so much by what they did as by how they appeared."¹⁰ When people could not understand something, they created symbols to explain whatever they were unable to comprehend. In the symbolic frame,

leaders evoked ceremonies, rituals, or artifacts in order to create a unifying system of beliefs. This frame called for charismatic leaders to arouse 'visions of a preferred organizational future' and evoked emotional responses that enhanced an organization's identity and transformed it to a higher plane of performance and value. (Bass, 1985).¹¹

This application of Bolman-Deal's multi-frame orientation to analyze Army leadership was not new. Dr. Dick Heimovics, Professor of Organizational Behavior at the University of Missouri-Kansas City, and U.S. Army Majors James Foster, Kenneth Maddox, Timothy Stroud, and Michael Sweet, set the precedence when they published a study titled, "Leadership in the U.S. Army: A Frame Analysis." This study used the multi-frame orientation developed by Bolman and Deal to examine the differences between how mid-career U.S. Army officers described their command philosophies and how they actually applied their espoused philosophies when dealing with "critical leadership events."

Dr. Heimovics and his fellow researchers evaluated the command philosophies of 34 officers who attended the ten month resident phase of the Command and General Staff Officer Course at Fort Leavenworth, Kansas. They compared these

findings to results from their analysis of narratives by the same control group that described how each individual had actually dealt with a critical leadership event. In general, Dr. Heimovics and his group examined the difference between the individual's espoused leadership philosophy and his demonstrated leadership philosophy.

Dr. Heimovics used the multi-frame orientation to code the frame responses in both sets of statements, espoused and demonstrated. In reference to the structural frame, the researchers found that "obedience to the chain of command and conformity to rules and policies were dominant in this frame as they applied in the military."¹²

In a military environment, the human resource frame identified the soldier as the most critical resource. Dr. Heimovics wrote:

The effective human resource leader searched for the balance between the goals of the unit of command and the hopes and aspirations of its soldiers by paying close attention to the soldier's aspirations, feelings and preferences This frame defined problems and issues in interpersonal terms and encouraged open communications, team building and collaboration.¹³

In an analysis of the political frame, Dr. Heimovics found that there was a significant difference between the officers' espoused theory and theory in use as it applied to the political frame. Most officers did not include a political frame in their command philosophy statements but did refer to it when discussing their theory in use as it applied to the critical leadership event. "Those who used

the political frame exercised their personal and organizational power. They were also sensitive to the external factors which had influence upon internal decisions and policies."¹⁴

Finally, the Heimovic Leadership study found that Army officers espoused the symbolic frame far more than they actually applied it to their leadership practices. With its unit insignias, awards, unit colors, ceremonies and hand salutes, the U.S. Military has clearly been steeped in the symbolic framework. The military used symbols to rally its forces. During battle, a unit's colors were always protected. If the colors were captured, the unit was considered lost and defeated. A soldier's rank and position of authority has been worn on his collar. Junior officers showed respect to their superiors with a hand salute. Military personnel have worn their awards and badges designating certain skill qualifications on their uniforms for everyone to observe. A certain behavior was expected of military personnel, they were always soldiers, "it was not a job, it was a profession and a way of life."

To identify the appropriate frames, Dr. Heimovics and his research team developed a criteria for coding the frame responses. They based their criteria on each frame's related issues and actions: structural, human resource, political, and symbolic. This criteria was used to evaluate the command philosophy statements in this study as well.

The structural frame considered issues that dealt with coordination and control; clarity or lack of clarity about established goals, expected roles or expectations; any references to planning, budgeting, and evaluation; discussion of analysis or the absence of analysis; and the development or reliance on policies and procedures. Actions related to the structural frame included the reorganization, implementation or clarification of existing policies and procedures; the development of new information, budgeting or control systems; and any addition of new structural units and planning processes.

The issues related to the human resource frame dealt with discussions of individuals' feelings, needs, preferences or abilities; any reference to the importance of participation, listening, open communications, the extent of involvement in decision making, and morale of personnel in a unit; discussion of interpersonal relationships; an emphasis on collaboration, and a sense of family, team, or community. The corresponding actions to this frame were processes that emphasized participation and involvement; training and recruitment of new staff; empowerment; organizational development; and emphasis on quality of life programs.

The political frame highlighted issues that dealt with focusing on the conflicts or tension that existed among different constituencies, interest groups, or organizations; competing interests and agendas; evidence of disputes over

allocation of scarce resources; and games of power and self interest. Corresponding actions in this frame considered the use of bargaining, negotiation, advocacy and the building of alliances; as well as networking with other key players.

The symbolic frame focused on issues that pertained to any discussions of institutional identity, culture, or symbols; discussion of the image that would be projected to different audiences; discussion of the symbolic importance of existing practices, rituals, and possessions; and an emphasis on influencing how different audiences will interpret or frame an activity or decision. The actions that corresponded to the symbolic frame were the creation or revitalization of ceremonies and rituals; working to develop or restate the institution's vision, working on influencing the organizational culture; and using one's self as a symbol. As an example, the military leader could represent duty, honor, and demonstrated ethical leadership.¹⁵

The research design in this study used the command philosophy statement to identify an individual's preferred leadership style. Command philosophy statements were classified as either more participative or more autocratic. To accomplish this task, each frame response was evaluated and associated with the most applicable leadership style, participative or autocratic.

The structural frame was more closely related to an autocratic leadership style than to a democratic style. One

of the words used to define a directive or autocratic style was "structure." The leader relied on the structure to direct the actions of the subordinate. The subordinate did not have any freedom to vary from what the structural frame of the organization dictated.

The human resource frame related more closely to a participative leadership style. The participative leader shared the decision making process with his subordinates, and encouraged participation and interaction. He provided support to his subordinates and used two way communications to facilitate accomplishing the organization's goals.

The political and symbolic frames were less obvious in their relationship to a particular leadership style. A political frame could be present for both types of leadership style. The political frame was used to measure the degree to which autocratic or participative leadership style was manifested in each statement. The symbolic frame also did not favor one leadership style over another. If the leader relied on a symbol to control the actions of a subordinate or an organization, the symbolic frame was coded as being more autocratic.

Two volunteers, a female and a male student currently attending The Command and General Staff Officer Course, received training in the application of the multi-frame analysis criteria. Statements were collected from 30 men and 34 women. (The selection process used to obtain these

statements will be discussed in greater detail later in this chapter.) The author of this study removed any reference of gender in each of the statements. This prevented any biases on the part of the evaluators. The statements were assigned a random number from one to sixty-four for later identification. Each volunteer coded the command philosophies by identifying discrete words, phrases, or sentences within the statements that corresponded to the issues and actions identified in the criteria for each frame. Throughout the evaluation and coding process, the evaluators discussed potential discrepancies and made adjustments when necessary during a reconciliation phase. During this phase they found that their coded frame responses were similar and also discovered that there were very few discrepancies.

The second instrument selected to support this study's research design was the Leader Behavior Analysis II Self-A (LBALII Self-A), perceptions of leadership style survey developed by Kenneth Blanchard, Ronald Hambleton, Drea Zigarmi and Douglas Forsyth for Blanchard Training and Development, Incorporated. The LBALII Self-A was designed to provide individuals with information about their perceptions of their leadership style. The instrument consisted of twenty typical job situations that involved a leader and one or more staff members. Each situation was followed by four possible actions that the leader could take. Each of the available responses was associated with one of four possible

leadership styles; S1-High Directive, Low Supportive Behavior, S2-High Directive, High Supportive Behavior, S3-High Supportive, Low Directive Behavior, and S4-Low Supportive, Low Directive Behavior. The instrument was used for two reasons. First, it provided another means to identify each test subject's predominant leadership style. Second, the results from the survey were used as a means for analysis and comparison to the results achieved from the coded frames of the command philosophy statements.

The LBAIL Self-A helped explain the results of the multi-frame analysis. Each person who provided a command philosophy statement for evaluation also completed the LBAIL Self-A. The survey had a corresponding scoring sheet which was used in order to identify each subject's leadership style. Of the four leadership styles the survey identified and categorized, the S1 style which was described as highly directive with low supportive behavior was most closely aligned with an autocratic leadership style. The S3 style was most analogous to a participative leadership style. The S2 style was both highly directive and highly supportive while S4 was at the opposite end of the continuum with exhibited low directive and low supportive behavior. In the analysis of demonstrated leadership style, the S1 and S3 styles of leadership were considered as most applicable to this study. However, the study considered the results of all

four leadership styles, which included comparisons made by gender, branch category, and gender by branch category.

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS/PC+ V2) was used for statistical computing. The SPSS/PC+ is a powerful statistical and information analysis system that can run on a main frame or personal computer. It offers a wide range of specialized statistical capabilities. This program was designed to assist the decision maker in analyzing data to help make well-informed decisions based on the results.

The subjects of this study were selected from a population of 990 U.S. Army officers who were attending the ten month resident phase of the 1992/1993 Command and General Staff Officer Course (CGSOC). Of the 990 U.S. Army officers, 88 were women. The Command and General Staff Officer Course is part of the Army's Professional Military Education (PME) process. Its completion, either by attendance to the resident phase or by correspondence, is a prerequisite for continued promotion. Selection to the resident phase is highly competitive and selectees are considered to be in the upper half of their year group.

Although CGSOC is primarily for Army personnel, all branches of the Armed Forces are represented. International students also attend the course. During the 1992/1993 ten month resident course, there were 52 U.S. Air Force officers, 20 U.S. Marine Corps officers, 49 U.S. Navy officers, and 86

International officers from 66 countries. The average age of the U.S. Army officer was 35 years old. Their average years of active commissioned service was 13 years. Seventy-five percent held the rank of major, twenty-five percent were captains, and less than one percent were lieutenant colonels. Most of these officers had commanded at the company level and had held staff positions at battalion level or higher; all had been in leadership positions.

The organization of the Command and General Staff Officer Course was by division, section, and staff group. There were four divisions: A, B, C, and D. Each division had five sections. Each section had four staff groups. The section population was 64 students with 16 students per staff group. The College used a definitive criteria to organize and array the year's class.

The criteria stressed developing balanced staff groups to enhance the learning experience in a small group environment. The primary goal throughout the process was a fair and equitable mix of expertise and experience in each division, section, and staff group.¹⁶

The distribution of students was based on several parameters. In general, the distribution of Army officers in the regular course was by branch categories; Combat Arms (CA), Combat Support (CS), Combat Service Support (CSS), and Specialty Branch. The Combat Arms grouping consisted of the following branches: Infantry, Armor, Field Artillery, Air Defense Artillery, Aviation, Special Forces, and Engineers. The Combat Support grouping consisted of the following

branches: Signal Corps, Military Police, Military Intelligence, and Chemical Corps. Combat Service Support was broken down into two groups. Group one consisted of the following branches: Ordnance, Quartermaster Corps, Transportation Corps, and Medical Service Corps with field experience. Group two consisted of: Adjutant General Corps, Finance Corps, and Medical Service Corps without field experience. The Specialty Branch grouping consisted of the following branches: Army Nurse, Chaplain Corps, Dental Corps, Judge Advocate Corps, Medical Corps, Specialty Corps, and Veterinary Corps.

Another consideration was recent field experience. While the College wanted to ensure an appropriate mix of branches, it also considered the student's most recent field experience. Recent field experience was defined as "anyone who had served in a TOE Division, Brigade, Battalion, or Company since 1 June 1989."¹⁷ Other considerations included balancing combat experience to include Desert Shield and Desert Storm, and a balanced distribution of women. This study only considered U.S. Army officers and it did not focus on the criteria for the placement of students in the other categories (Sister Services and International Officers)..

For the purpose of this study, the sample group consisted of 30 men and 34 women. In accordance with the Central Tendency Theorem, it took at least 30 subjects to support any findings or trends as valid. Since the study

involved a comparison of leadership style based on gender, the sample group had to consist of at least 30 individuals of each sex. All of the study's participants were volunteers. The men were assigned to the same section, Section 14, Division C. The section was large enough to support the male population of the sample for the study. Based on the criteria used to organize CGSOC, the assumption was made that an individual section was representative of the general population enrolled in the course. The author of this study was also a member of Section 14. She enlisted the participation of the male Army officers in her section to assist her in this research. A sufficient number of men submitted their command philosophies. The Leader Behavior Analysis II was distributed to the same individuals who had submitted statements. Of the 60 men in Section 14, 45 were U.S. Army officers. Of these 45, 30 (or 67 percent) participated in the research project.

While all of the men could be acquired from the same section, it was not as easy to fulfill the requirement for the women participants. Out of the 1111 U.S. members of CGSOC, 96 (8.6 percent) were women. Of the female population, 88 (92 percent) were U.S. Army officers. Based on the criteria for organizing a balanced staff group, women were dispersed throughout all 80 staff groups. Each staff group had at least one woman. Although in some cases, there were two women per staff group. A letter explaining the

purpose and scope of the research was sent to all female U.S. Army officers enrolled in the Command and General Staff Officer Course. The letter requested a copy of their command philosophy papers to support the study. Personal interaction was also used to enlist the assistance of the appropriate number of female participants. The Women Officers' Network, established to address areas of interest for women officers enrolled in the course, was also used as a forum to inform available officers about the project. Once enough statements had been collected, the Leader Behavior Analysis II survey was distributed to the same individuals who had submitted their command philosophies. This ensured continuity when comparisons between the two instruments were made.

The selection process for the sample was not random since the population of subjects consisted of volunteers, although for the most part, not what one would consider the typical volunteer. Many of the officers who participated in the research were individuals who would not have normally volunteered to take part in any type of survey or study. This was particularly true of the male population. They willingly provided input to this project because of their interaction with the study's author. Her request for support was not anonymous and people stated that they felt more obligated to provide support. This did not negate the fact that a section was still representative of the course's population. A greater number of the women subjects could

have been classified as more typical volunteers because many provided input without having made the acquaintance of the study's author. Since more than one third of the female population participated in the study, the assumption was made that the women subjects were also representative of the U.S. Army female population enrolled in the course.

The research methodology presented here was designed to test the validity of the premise that women officers in the U.S. Army used a more participative style than their male counterparts. Based on the knowledge acquired from the Chapter Two, The Literature Review, and an analysis of the research instruments used, the results were expected to show that women prescribed to a more participative style of leadership. Both the Command Philosophy Statement and the Leader Behavior Analysis Survey were expected to reveal differences in leadership style that were attributable to gender differences.

Endnotes

¹Earl Babbie, The Practice of Social Research, 4th ed., (Belmont, CA: Wadsworth Publishing Co., 1986), 305.

²Vernon Hatley, "Command Philosophy Development," in Fundamentals of Senior Level Leadership in Peace and War (Fort Leavenworth, KS: Command and General Staff College, 1990), 117.

³Ibid., 122-123.

⁴Ibid., 130.

⁵Department of the Army, FM 22-103, Leadership and Command at Senior Levels (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1987), 8.

⁶Richard E. Zak, "Memorandum for Students, C710: Fundamentals of Leadership in Peace and War, Subject: Writing Requirement Guidance, AY 92-93," (Fort Leavenworth, KS: Center for Army Leadership, 1992), 1.

⁷Lee G. Bolman and Terrence E. Deal, Modern Approaches to Understanding and Managing Organizations (San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass Inc., 1984), 31-32.

⁸Dick Heimovics, "Leadership in the U.S. Army: A Frame Analysis," (University of Missouri-Kansas City, 1992), 5.

⁹Heimovics, 5-6.

¹⁰Heimovics, 6.

¹¹Heimovics, 7.

¹²Bolman, 32.

¹³Bolman, 64.

¹⁴Bolman, 110.

¹⁵Bolman, 148-150.

¹⁶Kenneth W. Teasdale, "Memorandum Subject: Class Organization and Array Criteria for AY 92/93," (Fort Leavenworth, KS: Command and General Staff Officer Course Class Director, 1992), 1.

¹⁷Ibid., 2.

CHAPTER FOUR

ANALYSIS

The research methodology for this study was designed to determine whether women officers in the United States Army use a more participative leadership style than their male counterparts. The tools that provided the data used to relate leadership style to gender were the Command Philosophy Statement and the Leader Behavior Analysis II Self-A (LBAII Self-A), Perceptions of Leadership Style survey. The command philosophy statements were analyzed using a multi-frame orientation and the results were expressed in terms of the study's participants' frequency of use of the structural frame, the human resource frame, the political frame, and the symbolic frame. The LBAII Self-A surveys identified the subject's predominant leadership style. Leadership styles were categorized as S1: high directive, low supportive; S2: high directive, high supportive; S3: low directive, high supportive; and S4: low directive, low supportive. These instruments were discussed in detail in Chapter Three. Sixty-four U.S. Army officers participated in this project. Of the sixty-four, thirty-four were women and thirty were men. Of the men, seventy-three percent were combat arms

officers; ten percent were combat support officers; and seventeen percent were combat service support officers. Of the women, twenty-nine percent were combat arms officers; twenty-six percent were combat support officers; and forty-four percent were combat service support officers. All were students currently attending the 1992-1993 resident phase of the Command and General Staff Officers Course at Fort Leavenworth, Kansas. The breakdown by branch category and gender are found in Table 1 below.

Table 1.--Subject by Branch Category

	Combat Arms	Combat Support	Combat Service Support	Row Total
Men	22	3	5	30
Women	10	9	15	34
Column Total	32	12	20	64

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) handled all statistical computations required for this study. Cross tabulations were computed by gender and each frame of the multi-frame analysis; by branch category and each frame; by gender, branch category and each frame; by gender and leadership style; by branch category and leadership style; and finally, by gender, branch category, and leadership style. The SPSS/PC+ also correlated all of these variables and identified all significant relationships. Significance

was defined as $p < .01$ and $p < .001$. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was used to measure the strength of the relationships between these variables.

This study's thesis was that women officers in the U.S. Army use a more participative leadership style than their male counterparts. However, the results of the frame analysis and leadership style survey showed very similar figures for both the men and the women. These findings indicate no significant difference between frame analysis and leadership style.

Table 2 shows the average frequency of responses per frame by gender. For men and women, the human resource frame was clearly used more than any of the other frames. In fact, men referred more to the human resource frame than women. The structural and symbolic frame were used much less frequently than the human resource frame but were more evenly matched by gender. The political frame was the least used frame.

Table 2.--Average Frequency of Frame Response by Gender

	Structural Frame	Human Resource Frame	Political Frame	Symbolic Frame
Men	2.83	6.13	.2	1.6
Women	2.73	5.17	.35	1.3

Table 3 shows preferred leadership style by gender. Sixty percent of the study's participants were rated higher

in the S3 leadership style and thirty-four percent were rated higher in the S2 leadership style. Those rated higher in the S1 or S4 leadership style represented six percent of the study's population.

Table 3.--Leadership Style by Gender

	S1	S2	S3	S4	Total
Men	1	12	15	2	30
Women	0	10	23	1	34
Column Total	1	22	38	3	64

One explanation for the high incidence of S2 and S3 ratings is that most people are more comfortable with one of those particular leadership styles. The S2 leadership style represents a balance between a highly directive and highly supportive leadership style, while an S3 style emphasizes a highly supportive, but less directive style. Most individuals do not seem to want to be directive without providing some support. Based on this study's findings, it appears that most leaders use one form or another of a highly supportive style of leadership.

This study's research methodology made the assumptions that frequent use of the human resource frame and the S3 leadership style were indicative of participative leadership. Therefore, based on these assumptions, the overwhelming use of the human resource frame and the predominant rating of the

S3 leadership style by both men and women clearly indicated the use of a participative leadership style.

It was not surprising that both men and women wrote more about the human resource frame than any other frame. The Army is a people oriented organization and its soldiers are its most valuable asset. The Army's Professional Military Education (PME) system was designed to maximize a leader's ability to effectively use the resources available to him. Moreover leadership training is emphasized throughout the Army at every level of command.

The structural, political, and symbolic frame were mentioned less frequently than the human resource frame. The structural frame may not have been referred to as often because of a general familiarity with the Army's hierarchical system. The officers writing the command philosophy statements have worked within the Army system for an average of thirteen years and may consider its organization and procedures as common knowledge. Any references to structure may be considered redundant or simply unnecessary. It is reasonable to assume that the authors of the command philosophy statements felt that since their subordinates would be very familiar with the unit's organization, it did not seem necessary to address structure or organization in any detail in their command philosophies.

While the structural frame may not have been addressed due to a familiarity with the Army system, the political

frame may not have been described because of the potentially negative connotation that is associated with its use. Understanding the political environment is considered an essential element for leadership effectiveness. The study found that there is an unwillingness to openly express the importance of the actions and issues that make up the political frame. Most individuals realize that it is critical to be able to fully understand the position and power of the personnel they deal with in their organizations. They avoid expression of the political frame because its use gives the perception that they are manipulating the Army system for personal gain through associations and not through demonstrated performance and merit. The measure of their success is their ability to effectively adapt to the political situation without having to talk about it.

In this study, the type statements that were representative of the political frame dealt with networking and co-opting the support of the leader's superior.

While references to the symbolic frame were less frequent than to the structural or human resource frame, every participant referred to the symbolic frame at least one time. The symbolic frame was most frequently used by individuals who cited themselves or their units as symbols. They wrote that they would set the example for their subordinates to follow and that they would establish high standards for the organization. In this way, the unit would

serve as a symbol since it would represent the capabilities and standards of the soldiers within the organization. In fact, the symbolic frame was related to the human resource frame in that it considered the soldier, the primary human resource, to improve or change the organization. Similar to the structural frame, most individuals are familiar with the symbolic aspects of the Army. Most leaders include comments attributed to the symbolic frame because these comments evoke the patriotic feelings that inspire motivation and esprit de corps. This ultimately contributes to overall unit readiness and unit effectiveness.

Following the statistical computation and correlation of all variables, three relationships were identified. First, the correlation between the use of the human resource frame and gender was significant at the .01 level. Second, the correlation between the use of the human resource frame and the use of the political frame was significant at the .01 level. Third, the correlation between gender and branch category was significant at the .001 level.

Table 4 shows the findings from the correlations of all variables; gender, branch category, leadership style (S1, S2, S3, S4), and the four frames of the frame analysis. Equally important to the study were the correlations between variables that were not identified as being significant. While the negative correlation between the human resource frame and gender, represented by the value $-.3163$, was

significant, none of the other correlations between gender and the remaining frames were significant. The negative correlation between use of the human resource frame and use of the political frame, represented by the value $-.3382$, was also the only one of significance out of the correlations between the other frames. Finally, there were no correlations of significance between branch category and the other variables, except for the one between branch category and gender.

Table 4.--Correlations of All Variables

	Structural Frame	Human Resource Frame	Political Frame	Symbolic Frame
Male/Female	-.0365	-.3163*	.1580	-.2260
Structural	1.0000	.2567	.1433	.0257
Human Resource	.2567	1.0000	-.3382	.0175
Political	.1433	-.3382*	1.0000	.0447
Symbolic	.0257	.0175	.0447	1.0000

($p < .01^*$, $p < .001^{**}$)

Table 4.--Correlation of All Variables (Cont.)

	Branch Category	Leadership Style
Male/Female	.4040**	.1149
Structural	.0975	-.0515
Human Resource	.1861	-.0416
Political	-.0596	.0499
Symbolic	-.1034	-.0211

Closer analysis of the correlation between use of the human resource frame and gender showed that men had a higher incidence of using the human resource frame than women

especially at the higher level of responses. Forty percent of the men wrote command philosophy statements that had seven or eight references to the human resource frame versus twelve percent of the women in that same category.

This study assumed that use of the human resource frame indicated a participative leadership style. Based on this assumption and the study's thesis that women use a more participative style, the expectation was that women, in general, would express the human resource frame more often than their male counterparts. Results that showed women using the human resource frame more frequently than men would have supported the thesis. However, analysis of the data indicated that men chose the human resource frame more frequently than women. These findings do not support the study's thesis that women use a more participative leadership style than their male counterparts. There are several reasons that might explain these results.

One explanation is the nature of the command philosophy statement assignment. One male participant said that he considered the instructor who was grading his work when he wrote his command philosophy. In his particular case, he was writing for a chaplain and because of that, he added some additional human resource type statements that he would not have otherwise included if writing his statement as an actual commander.

Another reason for the difference was the type of statement that received credit in the human resource frame. In accordance with the published criteria, statements were coded as representative of the human resource frame if they referred to "processes of participation and involvement, training, empowerment, organization development, and quality of work and life programs."¹ In their statements, men generally made more comments that were training related while women generally made more comments about open communications. Women made training related statements, as well. The difference between the quality of the remarks may be important but may also require a more refined criteria before any definitive conclusions can be made. The fact that men focused on training does not make them more participative since all commanders consider unit training an important function intrinsically related to mission accomplishment.

Instead of focusing on the differences in the results of the use of the human resource frame, another perspective was gained by considering the similarities. While the findings showed that men had a much greater incidence of using the human resource frame at the higher level of responses, the results changed at mid-level and when mid- and high-level responses were combined. Sixty-four percent of the women made reference to the human resource frame at the mid-level range versus fifty percent of the men. The mid-level range was characterized by five or six responses per

command philosophy statement. When the number of mid- and high-level responses were combined, the frequency of responses were twenty-seven or ninety percent for the men and twenty-six or seventy-six percent for the women. These figures, while showing a slight difference between men and women, supported the idea that the way women lead varies little from the way their male counterparts lead.

It was reasonable to expect that there might not be any great difference between the men and women in the study. The women participants were considered to be successful Army officers and had been able to adapt and function in the Army for the past thirteen years or so. In fact, they were all judged to be "successful" by the same standard as the men; selection to attend the resident phase of the Command and General Staff Officers Course.

In the course of their Army careers, the women may also have had to adopt the leadership style of their male superiors and peers in order to survive in the predominantly male organization. These reasons might explain why women's leadership styles do not appear to vary much from the leadership styles of their male counterparts. The similarities in use of the human resource frame also reenphasized the fact that the men and women in the study have received very similar training in leadership throughout their careers as specified by the PME system. After thirteen years of training, it is possible that the results would

indicate a somewhat similar leadership style for both men and women.

Finally, a logical explanation for the differences in results centered around the assumption made relating the human resource frame to a participative leadership style. Simply, the assumption that the use or lack of use of the human resource frame indicated a more or less participative leadership style was not a valid assumption. While the frame analysis was important in its own right and the results from the coding process offered many interesting relationships and trends, the command philosophy statements, and the results from the coding of these statements using the multi-frame orientation were not able to effectively measure or predict leadership style.

The second correlation found to be significant at the .01 level was between the use of the human resource frame and the political frame. Further analysis indicated a negative correlation or inverse relationship between the use of the human resource frame and the political frame. The more an individual discussed the human resource frame, the less he espoused a political frame. The less an individual espoused the human resource frame, the more he espoused the political frame. In fact, women had a much higher incidence of using the political frame in comparison to men. The combat arms women used the political frame the most, followed by the combat support women and then the combat service support

women. In every case, the women in each branch category used the human resource frame less and the political frame more. Responses that were coded as political dealt with "bargaining, negotiation, advocacy, building alliances, networking with other key players, and games of power and self-interest."² As an example, a woman aviator discussed the issue of probability coding, select positions in combat aviation were coded in a way that barred women from filling those positions. She wrote: "specifically, it [probability coding] breeds discontent in the unit and disrupts the harmony." Another woman aviator wrote "I must be able to co-op my bosses' support. The more I can buffer the unit or co-op support, the more smoothly operations will run." References to the political frame by women in the branch category of combat support included statements such as: "a commander must be careful not to send the wrong message. It will be 'us' (enlisted) against 'them' (officers)." and "cultivate these associations like you do the maneuver units." A woman in a combat service support branch wrote that she encouraged the development of a communications network." What was significant about the women's references to the political frame was the fact that men did not make any of these type statements in their command philosophies. For the men, all of the statements that were coded as being political dealt with the allocation of scarce resources which was one of the criteria for the political frame.

The frequency of statements in the political frame decreased for women as branch categories changed from the combat arms category to the combat support category and finally to combat service support category. The incidence of these statements was also inversely related to the population of women in each branch category. Table 5 shows the average number of political statements made by branch category and the percentage of women officers in each of the branch categories.

Table 5.--Branch Category/Political Frame

	Combat Arms (%)	Combat Support (%)	Combat Service Support (%)
Political Frame	.8% /.5	16% /.33	19% /.26

Women referred more to the political frame than their male counterparts. Additionally, women in the combat arms expressed the political frame more than the women in the other branch categories.

According to a recent Department of the Army strength report on commissioned officers by control branch and grade in which serving, women make up 9.9 percent of the officer corps. In a male dominated organization like the Army, women are very aware that they are a minority and take additional steps to ensure that they establish a productive work environment. One way women accomplish this is to establish open communications with their superiors and subordinates.

When a woman comes into a new situation, she wants to quickly lay the groundwork that creates an atmosphere conducive to effective communications. Men, due to their status as the predominant sex, do not feel as an immediate need to "co-op" their bosses' support and do not pay as much initial attention to establishing open communications or to developing a communications network. Men still advocate an effective communications network; it just is not as critical to men as to women and is not given as high a priority.

A similar situation exists for the women in the various branch categories. Women in the combat arms make up .8 percent of that branch category, while the percentage for women in combat support and combat service support branches is sixteen percent and nineteen percent, respectively. Since women represent such a small percentage of the population in the combat arms, they are very aware of the need to immediately establish open communications and to gain the support of their superiors in order to allay any fears or prejudices that their bosses might hold against them. It may be the case that women in the combat arms are successful because they have had this particular leadership style. While the women in the other categories are more aware of the need to express the political frame than their male counterparts, they do so at a rate less than the women in the combat arms. The combat support and combat service support branches have more women and the study's findings showed that

as the percentage of women in a particular branch category increased, the frequency of statements attributed to the political frame decreased.

Finally, gender and branch category were correlated at the $p < .001$ level. These results show that there was a strong relationship between an individual's gender and his branch category. This was not a surprise. As indicated in Table V, the percentages of women in the Combat Arms, Combat Support, and Combat Service Support are .8 percent, 16 percent and 19 percent, respectively. More women are in the Combat Support, and Combat Service Support branch categories because several branches in the Combat Arms (Infantry, Armor, and Special Forces) are closed entirely to women, while others, particularly in the Field Artillery and Air Defense Artillery, offer limited opportunities for women to advance.

Equally important to the study were the relationships that did not show any significance following the statistical computation and correlation process. Of particular interest was the fact that there was no correlation of significance found between leadership style and the four frames of the multi-frame analysis. In essence, this data indicated that an individual's use of the frames could not be related to his leadership style: either S1, S2, S3, or S4.

The findings of this study did not fully support the premise that women officers in the Army use a more

participative leadership style than their male counterparts. While the results indicated that women preferred an S3 (low directive behavior and high supportive) style of leadership, it also showed that men preferred this style as well. Even the frequent use of statements that corresponded to the use of human resource frame could not be attributed to a more participative leadership style. The statistical analysis of the data revealed three significant relationships that were further developed. The first examined the relationship between the human resource frame and gender. The second explored the relationship between the human resource frame and the political frame, and the third looked at the relationship between gender and branch category.

Endnotes

¹Dick Heimovics, "Leadership in the U.S. Army: A Frame Analysis" (University of Missouri-Kansas City, 1992), 9.

²Ibid.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this chapter is to present this study's conclusions and to make recommendations for the continued study of the relationship between leadership style and gender in the Army. This study's premise was that women officers in the Army used a more participative leadership style than their male counterparts. The research methodology was designed to determine the predominant leadership style of the thirty men and the thirty-four women who participated in this study. Two tools were used in this examination: the command philosophy statement and the Leader Behavior Analysis II Self-A Survey.

The results of both tools were analyzed and compared. The assumption was that if an individual had a command philosophy statement that frequently made references that related to the human resource frame and who's primary leadership style was an S3, that individual was categorized as having a participative leadership style. The study sought to determine the validity of the thesis that women were more participative than men.

What the study generally found, however, was that men and women were very similar in their choices of leadership styles. In regards to the command philosophy statements, men and women made more statements that corresponded with the human resource frame than any of the other frames. There were several thoughts to explain this.

First, the Army is a manpower intensive organization, and as such, the leader realizes that the soldier is the organization's most valuable resource. It is the soldier who executes the plans, policies, and procedures of his leaders aimed at accomplishing the mission. Second, the Army's Professional Military Education (PME) system emphasizes the development of a cohesive team and focuses on effective leadership. Both the men and the women of the study had been in the Army for an average of thirteen years and had progressed through the same leadership training required by the military's institutional training systems. They both made reference to the human resource frame more than the others as a result of their professional training and as a result of their knowledge and experience gained by leading soldiers. These officers knew that their unit's success depended on the abilities and actions of their most vital resource, the soldier.

The majority of the command philosophy statements expressed a greater incidence of statements that were attributed to the human resource frame, and both the men and

women participants also selected a more supportive style of leadership (S3). Out of the sixty-four participants, only one individual demonstrated a preference for a highly directive leadership style (S1). There were only a few who selected a leadership style that was low in both direction and support. The remaining individuals selected either an S3 leadership style or an S2 style that was both high in direction and support. The conclusion reached from these results was the identification of a preferred style of leadership which focused on being highly supportive. This style of leadership was selected because it was deemed the most effective. All individuals who participated in this study were considered to be highly successful in their careers and were rated in the upper half of their branch. The fact that a majority of the men and women selected a supportive style of leadership showed their preference for the leadership style with which they had achieved success. After all, they answered the questionnaire based on their experiences over the last thirteen years when faced with similar leadership challenges. In accordance with the study's assumptions, it also showed that men and women selected a more participative approach when dealing with subordinates.

Although the statistical analysis did not find any significant relationships between the human resource frame and the use of a more supportive leadership style, there was

a similarity between the two elements. It made sense that an individual demonstrating a supportive leadership style would also work the majority of the time extolling the components of the human resource frame.

The study identified three correlations of significance and these were closely analyzed. The first correlation was between the human resource frame and gender. The second was concerned with the relationship between the political frame and the human resource frame. The third dealt with the relationship between branch category and gender.

The first relationship considered the fact that men expressed the human resource frame more frequently than women at the high end of the range of responses. There are several explanations for this occurring. One reason dealt with the nature of the assignment. An individual's espoused leadership style may have been influenced by the assignment and by the instructor grading the assignment. It could have been the instance where someone wrote what they thought the instructor wanted to hear.

Another reason discussed was the difference in the statements between men and women that were attributed to the human resource frame. Generally, men were more training oriented, while women stressed more open communications. This point might lead one to hastily conclude that women did use a more participative leadership style; however, to reach this conclusion requires an additional instrument able to

measure the more subtle differences between the demonstrated leadership style of men and women.

Finally, an equally cogent argument was made that supported the similarity between the men and women based on their use of the human resource frame, and their range of frame responses from the mid- to high-levels. The results of the frame analysis indicated that men and women were more closely related than anticipated. Some of the reasons for these similarities were discussed earlier in this chapter.

The conclusion drawn from this analysis was that the command philosophy statement was not a valid instrument to measure leadership style. While the frame analysis was a way to gage potential differences between men and women, the quality of the differences could not be related to leadership style. This point was also reinforced by the lack of any significant relationship found between the results of the Leader Behavior II exercise and the frame analysis following statistical correlation process.

The use of the multi-frame analysis was an important tool that revealed many interesting results. These results in themselves were not without value. The application of the multi-frame analysis to the command philosophy statement showed the similarities and differences in the way men and women espoused what they felt was important about leadership. Now the command philosophy statement analysis needs to be complemented with research that explores an individual's

theory in use. This study would mirror the work accomplished by Dr. Heimovics as discussed in his paper, "U.S. Army Leadership: A Frame Analysis." The future study would explore the potential differences caused by gender. This would provide a more complete picture of how men and women apply the frames in the application of their leadership philosophy.

The study identified two other correlations that were found to be significant. One was an inverse relationship between use of the human resource frame and use of the political frame. The other showed that there was a strong relationship between gender and branch category. Both of these findings were related to the relative population of women officers in the Army.

Women make up approximately ten percent of the officer corps in the Army. The population of women is much less in the combat arms than in the other branch categories. As a result, there were some significant differences identified by the multi-frame analysis of the command philosophy statements. While the relationship between branch category and gender was obvious and an individual's gender had a profound impact on his or her branch category, the relationship between use of the human resource frame and the political frame was more subtle, but understandable. Women in branches that have very few men were aware of the need to establish open communications immediately. The application of the political

frame was focused up the chain of command and directed at the officer's senior rater. On the other hand, the use of the human resource frame was focused down the chain of command to the leader's subordinates. Women were aware of the need to quickly gain the support of the major elements that they work with to accomplish the mission.

This aspect of developing open communications and a communications network to facilitate leader effectiveness might be related to women using a participative leadership style. The question in this study, however, was not if they used a participative style of leadership but the degree they used it in relationship to their male counterparts. The results of this study did not support the premise that women officers used a more participative style than their male counterparts. It did show that men and women made more statements that were attributed to the human resource frame and that the majority of them preferred to use a style of leadership that advocated a highly supportive behavior. More studies need to be conducted in order to definitively show if there is a difference in the way men and women lead.

Several recommendations are made that might facilitate the study of the relationship between leadership style and gender in the Army. One of the points of discussion in this study was the realization that at this stage in her Army career, a woman officer may have adopted the leadership style of her superiors and peers. This may have happened because a

more stereo-typical feminine style of leadership would not have been acceptable or positively reinforced. After thirteen years in a male dominant organization, it is very likely that a woman officer would have adopted a leadership style similar to the men she worked with on a daily basis. A study that compared the leadership styles of women officers at the start of their careers to women who were closer to the middle of their careers would be extremely interesting. This study could examine the differences in leadership style and would attempt to explain the differences, if any. This study might also look at the development of men in the same manner. Finally, the results between men and women would be compared to see if any significant trends or relationships could be ascertained.

In order to better determine if women use a more participative leadership style than their male counterparts, different instruments need to be used that better measure an individual's leadership style. One recommendation is to apply this instrument to officers in the field. Often, a person's espoused leadership style varies greatly from his or her actual leadership style. Furthermore, an officer in a school environment may espouse a different leadership philosophy and employ a different leadership style than when in the field. A study that takes the individual's active leadership style into account would be very valuable. This coupled with the perceptions of the leader's subordinates and

superiors would provide a much more accurate picture of how an individual actually leads. A study that was designed to study both men and women operating in the field would provide the needed data to fully explore the relationship of leadership style and gender.

Ultimately, the purpose of all these studies is to develop more effective leaders. FM 100-5 states "the most essential dynamic of combat power is competent and confident leadership. Leadership provides purpose, direction, and motivation in combat."¹ Effective leadership is essential to the success of the Army. The goal of this study was to shed some light on the relationship between leadership style and gender. This was done with the desire to better understand the way men and women lead in order to maximize the Army's leaders' effectiveness in accomplishing their difficult mission. The Army will rely more on the quality of its leaders, especially during this time of rapid and revolutionary change in the world.

Endnote

¹Department of the U.S. Army, FM 100-5, Operations, Preliminary Draft (Fort Leavenworth, KS: Command and General Staff College, 1994), 2-14.

TOOL USED FOR DEVELOPMENT OF RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

FRAME	FRAME-RELATED ISSUES	FRAME-RELATED ACTIONS
STRUCTURAL	Coordination, and control: clarity or lack of clarity about goals, roles, or expectations; references to planning, budgeting, and evaluation; discussion of analysis or its absence (for example, feasibility studies, institutional analysis); issues around policies and procedures.	Reorganizing, implementing or clarifying policies and procedures; developing new information, budgeting or control systems, adding new structural units, planning processes.
HUMAN RESOURCES	Discussions of individuals' feelings, needs, preferences or abilities (for example, problems of individual performance or staff quality); references to the importance of participation, listening, open communications, involvement in decision-making, morale; discussion of interpersonal relationships; emphasis on collaboration, win-win, and a sense of family or community.	Processes of participation and involvement (task forces, open meetings, etc.) training, recruiting new staff, workshops and retreats, empowerment, organization development, and quality-of-work life programs
POLITICAL	Focus on conflict or tension among different constituencies, interest groups, or organizations; competing interests and agendas; disputes over allocation of scarce resources; games of power and self-interest.	Bargaining, negotiations, advocacy, building alliances, and networking with other key players.
SYMBOLIC	Discussions of institutional identity, culture or symbols; discussions of the image that will be projected to different audiences; discussion of the symbolic importance of existing practices, rituals or artifacts (for example, symbolic attachment to an old building on campus); emphasis on influencing how different audiences will interpret or frame an activity or decision.	Creating or revitalizing ceremonies and rituals, working to develop or restate the institution's vision, working on influencing organizational culture, using self as a symbol.

DEPARTMENT OF THE ARMY
U.S. ARMY COMMAND AND GENERAL STAFF COLLEGE
FT. LEAVENWORTH, KANSAS 66027

ATZL-SWC-LI-LIB

17 July 1992

MEMORANDUM FOR Students, C710: Fundamentals of Senior-Level
Leadership in Peace and War

SUBJECT: Writing Requirement Guidance, AY 92-93

1. References.

a. CGSC Bulletin No. 3, CGSOC Student Evaluation, Awards,
and Graduation Policy, dated 20 August 1991, Part I.

b. Appendix A (Evaluating Writing and Speaking Skills) of
ST 22-2, Writing and Speaking Skills for Senior Leaders.

2. Content.

a. You are required to write a paper addressing
senior-level command philosophy. You are to write from the
perspective of a senior-level leader commanding a large complex
organization. The organization may be a combat, combat support,
or combat service support unit, or it may be a TDA
organization. For the purposes of this paper, a large complex
organization is one which has 2,000 or more personnel assigned
or is one which covers an extended geographical area. On a
cover sheet, write a brief introductory paragraph describing the
organization. The length of this unit description will not be
counted against your limit for the length of the paper.

b. In the first part of this paper, you will write a
vision statement for your organization. Your vision statement
should not be a mere slogan; it should communicate in clear and
concise language the desired end toward which you intend to lead
your organization.

c. In the second part of this paper, you will support your
vision statement through an in-depth examination of one or more
of the following topics: command climate, direct and indirect
influence, equal opportunity, ethics, leader development, and
leadership theory. You will be expected to answer the following
questions with regard to the topics selected: Why is the concept
or principle important? How is it consistent with Army
doctrine? How do you expect to use the concept or principle?
How does the concept or principle support your vision? You must
receive approval from your instructor before you begin to write
your paper if you would like to address topics other than those
included in this list.

3. Document all sources (e.g. readings, classroom discussions,

previous experience with leaders/commanders, etc.) in accordance with the format presented in Appendix M, ST 22-2.

4. You are to write this paper in clear language consistent with the Army writing standard as explained in ST 22-2 and in the course evaluation plan. Your instructor will provide feedback in the body of your paper and on CGSC Form 1009 where he will post your grade.

5. You are to write this paper using no more than 750 words, excluding the introductory description of the organization you are writing about in the paper.

6. This writing requirement is to be turned in to your leadership instructor at the beginning of class for C710 Lesson 10 which is also C320 Lesson 6. The current dates listed for this lesson are: 92 for Divisions C & D and 13 Nov 92 for Divisions A & B.



RICHARD E. ZAK
LTC, IN

Chief, Leadership Instruction
Branch

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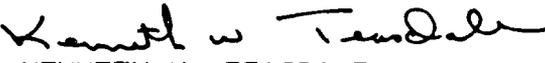
4 September 1992

MEMORANDUM FOR See Distribution

SUBJECT: Class Demographics--92/93 Command and General Staff Officer Course (CGSOC)

1. Demographics on the Command and General Staff Officer Course. AY 92/93 are attached.
2. The 1992/93 CGSOC consists of 1111 Regular Course U.S. students and 87 international officers from 66 countries. An additional 80 Reserve Component officers are attending the class during Term I. Total student population for Term I is 1278.
3. Data is current as of 3 September 1992.

Encl


KENNETH W. TEASDALE
COL. FA
Class Director

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CGSOC AY 92/93

SERVICE/COUNTRY SUMMARY

U.S. Army	990*
U.S. Air Force	52
U.S. Marine Corps	20
U.S. Navy	49
U.S. Total	1111
Intl Officers	87
Reg Crse Total	1198
Res Comp Crse	80**
GRAND TOTAL	1278

*Includes 10 USAR/5 ARNG

**40 USAR/40 ARNG

RANK

	<u>Reg U.S.</u>	<u>Res Comp</u>	<u>Intl</u>
COL	0	0	0
LTC	10	0	24
MAJ/LCDR	828	51	54
CPT	273	29	9

YEARS ACTIVE COMMISSIONED SERVICE

	<u>Reg U.S.</u>	<u>Res Comp</u>	<u>Intl</u>
Average	13	13	15
Minimum	5	4	7
Maximum	22	24	27

BRANCH

	<u>Reg U.S.</u>	<u>Res Comp</u>	<u>Intl</u>
AD	50	1	3
USAF	52	0	1
AG	41	4	0
AN	3	1	0
AR	89	9	4
AV	94	10	0
CA	0	1	0
CAV	0	0	2
CH	7	1	0
CM	13	2	0
DE	3	0	0
EN	55	8	8
FA	114	7	11
FI	18	0	0
GS	0	0	1
IN	143	17	42
JA	13	3	0
USMC	20	0	0
MC	4	0	0
MI	54	2	2
MP	38	1	2
MS	20	1	0
USN	49	0	0
OD	55	3	0
QM	57	5	4
SC	58	2	6
SF	31	1	0
SP	2	0	0
TC	25	1	1
VC	3	0	0

CIVILIAN EDUCATION

<u>Degree</u>	<u>Reg U.S.</u>	<u>Res Comp</u>	<u>Intl</u>
PhD	14	2	3
Prof	36	4	3
Masters	505	19	6
Bachelors	556	55	46
Less than 4 yrs College			29

AGE

	<u>Reg U.S.</u>	<u>Res Comp</u>	<u>Intl</u>
Average	35	37	37
Minimum	27	28	28
Maximum	46	46	47

MISC

	<u>Reg U.S.</u>	<u>Res Comp</u>
CASG Grad	859	61
Saudi Vet	227	3
Panama Vet	21	0
Grenada Vet	28	1
Vietnam Vet	16	3
Females	96	6

SOURCE OF COMMISSION (Reg U.S. Only)

AROTC	603	USAFA	23
AROCS	117	USAF ROTC	18
USMA	224	NAVY ROTC	15
DA	41	NAVY OCS	24
ARNG	5	USNA	10
PLC (USMC)	14	USAF OTS	12
USAR	1	MARINE OCS	4

BASIC YEAR GROUP

(Active Duty, including Other Service Components)

<u>Yr Gp</u>	<u>Nr Students</u>	<u>Yr Gp</u>	<u>Nr Students</u>	<u>Yr Gp</u>	<u>Nr Students</u>
1970	1	1977	53	1982	94
1972	1	1978	153	1983	2
1974	2	1979	232	1984	4
1975	7	1980	339	1985	1
1976	21	1981	199	1986	2

INTERNATIONAL REPRESENTATION. 66 COUNTRIES, 87 OFFICERS

Argentina	1	Malawi	1
Australia	2	Malaysia	1
Bahrain	1	Namibia	1
Bangladesh	1	Nepal	2
Belgium	1	Netherlands	1
Botswana	1	New Zealand	1
Brazil	1	Niger	1
Bulgaria	1	Nigeria	1
Cameroon	1	Norway	1
Canada	2	Paraguay	1
Central African Rep	1	Philippines	2
Chad	1	Poland	1
Colombia	2	Portugal	1
Cote D'Ivoire	1	Qatar	2
Czechoslovakia	1	Russia	1
Egypt	1	Saudi Arabia	5
El Salvador	1	Senegal	1
Finland	1	Singapore	2
France	1	Spain	2
Germany	2	Swaziland	1
Ghana	1	Switzerland	1
Greece	1	Taiwan	1
Guinea	1	Tanzania	1
Honduras	1	Tunisia	1
India	1	Turkey	2
Indonesia	1	Uganda	1
Israel	1	Ukraine	1
Italy	2	United Arab Emirates	2
Japan	1	United Kingdom	1
Kenya	2	Uruguay	1
Korea	3	Venezuela	2
Kuwait	2	Zambia	1
Madagascar	1	Zimbabwe	1

11 June 1992

MEMORANDUM FOR SEE DISTRIBUTION

SUBJECT: Class Organization and Array Criteria for AY 92/93

1. This memorandum outlines criteria we will use to organize/array the CGSOC AY 92/93 class. The criteria stresses developing balanced staff groups to enhance the learning experience in a small group environment. Our primary goal throughout the process is to have a fair and equitable mix of expertise and experience in each division, section, and staff group.

2. Organization. The class organization remains unchanged from the AY 91/92 class, with four divisions of five sections each. Each section has four staff groups that become the focus of staff group instruction.

3. Leadership. Class leadership positions also remain unchanged. The class leadership will have a president, vice president, 20 section leaders, and 80 staff group leaders. We select leaders based on dates of rank and desire to serve as a leader. We consider all officers except Reserve Component (RC) short course and international officers for these positions.

4. Distribution of Students.

a. General Parameters.

(1) Distribution of Regular Course Army officers [including RC officers attending the full course] is by the following branch groupings.

- (a) Combat Arms (IN, AR, FA, AD, AV, SF, EN)
- (b) Combat Support (SL, MP, MI, CM)
- (c) Combat Service Support 1 (OD, QM, TC, MS w/field experience)
- (d) Combat Service Support 2 (AG, FI, MS w/o field experience)
- (e) Specialty Branch (AN, CH, DE, JA, MC, SF, VC)

(2) For AY 92/93, we will have 121 Sister Service officers (52 USAF, 49 Navy, 20 USMC). Therefore, 39 staff groups will have one Sister Service officer and 41 will have two. Service chiefs coordinate distribution of their officers

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SUBJECT: Class Organization and Array Criteria for AY 92/93

with my office and the other services. We will do this at a meeting between the service deputies and my deputy during the week of 15 Jun 92 using the following guidance:

(a) Each service chief's representative will recommend distribution of their officers using criteria appropriate for their service. For example, USAF officers have generally been distributed in three groups: Fighter pilots, MAC experience, and all others.

(b) For staff groups with two officers from the other services, they will not be from the same service and we will not put a Navy and Marine officer together. Also, we will not place two other service aviators in the same staff group.

(3) There will be one RC (short course) officer in each staff group. Criteria for their distribution will be the same as regular course Army officers with consideration to balancing gaps caused by the branch distribution of the Active Component and Regular Course RC officers within the staff groups.

(4) International officer distribution will be as even as possible in each staff group. Some staff groups will have two international officers but we will not place two international and two Sister Service officers in the same staff group. Additional considerations are:

(a) Geographic Area. An effort is made to distribute international officers evenly from the following five areas: Latin America, Asia, Middle East, Europeans (includes Australia, Canada, and New Zealand) and Africa (south of the Sahara).

(b) Rank. Equal distribution of Colonels.

(c) Traditional Rivalry. We will avoid assignment of international officers to the same section who have historic long term or recent political disputes.

b. Other Parameters.

(1) For Army OFMD officers, first consideration in the branch array will be to recent field experience. Recent field experience is anyone who has served in a TOE Division, Brigade, Battalion or Company since 1 June 1989. Additional consideration will be to balancing combat experience to include Desert Storm based on the most current data.

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SUBJECT: Class Organization and Array Criteria for AY92/93

(2) The Class President will be in staff group 1A and the Vice President in Staff Group 2A. Other array parameters (e.g., female distribution, branch distribution, etc.), will also affect leadership distribution.

(3) We will distribute female officers as evenly as possible with consideration to the other array parameters.

(4) Married couples will be assigned to the same division but different sections with consideration to the other array parameters.

(5) No two students with the same last name will be assigned to the same staff group.

(6) To meet teaching requirements, JA officers will be distributed IAW input from the senior military law instructor.

5. Due to the number and complexity of the governing parameters we will attempt to meet this year, we will not honor individual requests to assign students to specific sections or staff groups. There may be exceptions, but these exceptions must have strong rationale and prove beneficial to the class as a whole.

6. Action officer is LTC Lancaster, 2748/2750.

K. W. Teasdale

KENNETH W. TEASDALE
COL, FA
Class Director

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