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How Men And Women Differ: Gender Differences in Communication Styles, Influence Tactics, and Leadership Styles

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CLAREMONT McKENNA COLLEGE

**HOW MEN AND WOMEN DIFFER:
GENDER DIFFERENCES IN COMMUNICATION STYLES, INFLUENCE
TACTICS, AND LEADERSHIP STYLES**

**SUBMITTED TO
PROFESSOR JAY CONGER
AND
DEAN GREGORY HESS
BY
KARIMA MERCHANT**

**FOR
SENIOR THESIS
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I. Why Women and Leadership is a Hot Topic Today

There are many historical events that have set the stage to analyze gender differences between men and women in the workplace. Whether these gender differences exist in the way in which they communicate, influence, or lead, men and women have always been viewed as different and unique sets of people. These differences have, to a certain extent, put women in the workplace at a disadvantage because of their perceived inferiority to men, mainly due to historical gender inequalities. Foremost among these historical events is the women's liberation movement, an extensive feminist movement that has been in existence since the late eighteenth century and has gone through three distinct waves. Each section has focused on different reforms ranging from women's suffrage to equal pay to reproductive rights. The first wave of feminism focused on women's suffrage and political equality for women. The wave's biggest success was the ratification of the 19th amendment which gave women the right to vote. The second wave shifted the focus from political equality to gender equality in laws and eliminating cultural discrimination in society. And finally, the third wave focused on equality across not only gender, but race as well. The third wave also included extensive campaigning for greater women's influence in politics. Each of these waves have, in some way, contributed to overcoming gender discrimination in different sectors of a woman's life, ranging from legal equality to social equality to equality in the workplace. The feminist movement not only liberated women, but also gave expression to their gender. This independent voice not only helped women gain equality, but gave them a unique voice,

which helped place them in leadership and management positions. The women's liberation movement was not only successful in establishing gender equality between men and women, but it also recognized females as unique and distinct from males. These recognized differences also have implications for gender differences in communication styles, influence tactics, and leadership styles.

Women Liberation Movement – First Wave

The first wave of the women's liberation movement, which lasted until 1920, was marked by a gap between the "new" woman of the 20s, who strived for her own personal fulfillment, and the older generation. The most prominent leaders of the first wave of feminism in the United States are Lecretia Mott, Elizabeth Stanton, Lucy Stone, and Susan B. Anthony. During this time period, women began to realize that having a career and having a family were not mutually exclusive and therefore began to challenge the traditional female role. Many women started attaining higher education at state colleges and universities. This period was also marked by women taking part in a sexual liberation in the 20s, particularly influenced by writers like Sigmund Freud, in which they were encouraged to take ownership of their sexuality and argued that women were no different than men and were also sexual beings with desires (Lehmann, 2001). Writer's such as feminist Virginia Woolf claimed that first wave feminists were not arguing for recognition of equality between men and women but rather that women have personal needs that need to be tended to, just like men (Goldman, 2001). This feminist argument has implications in both the working arena, as women strived for equality in the workplace, and the social and domestic arenas as well. The first major feminist work that

was most prominent during the first wave of the women's liberation movement in the United States was *Woman in the Nineteenth Century* by Margaret Fuller. Fuller's main argument was that women as individuals should have greater spiritual and intellectual freedom and that if women are given this freedom, it will not only aid the advancement of the enlightenment of women, but of men as well, and therefore, will lead to positive societal benefits overall (Dickenson, 1993).

Starting in the early 19th century and culminating with the ratification of the 19th amendment of the United States Constitution, the period of women's suffrage brought gender differences in abilities and rights to the forefront of society's attention. The 1920s was an important decade for women in the United States as it included the passage of the 19th amendment in 1920, which provided: "The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of sex" (U.S. Constitution, Amendment XIX). Although this meant that women had finally attained the political equality that they had been striving for, giving women the same power and control that men had, this equality between men and women in the constitution was not reflected by society. However, it gave women the confidence that they needed to fight for more freedoms and equalities in a world where they were viewed as merely second-class citizens. This rise in confidence led women to break out of the nuclear family, where the stereotypical woman's role consisted of housework and motherhood within the confines of her home while the man's role was to provide for and protect his family, and into the working arena (Edgell & Docka, 2007).

The success of the suffrage led feminists to refocus their efforts on fighting discrimination based on sex in the workplace and to establish equal pay and roles across gender. Women, typically unmarried, first entered the workforce temporarily during World War I and by the Great Depression, women and children found it easier to find work due to the availability of lower-paying jobs because of gender discrimination in the workplace. Working was not new to women by the time World War II came around. As many men left the workforce to fight in the war, a high demand for labor led a significant amount of women joining the workforce. World War II marked the biggest entry of women to the workforce as women made up 50% of the United States workforce by the end of World War II. This increase of women's participation in the workforce was fueled by patriotism due to the government's propaganda efforts such as the fictional character, "Rosie the Riveter," the ideal woman worker, who was loyal, efficient, patriotic, and pretty (Yellin, 2004). Rosie was a hero and role model for all American women, "All the day long, whether rain or shine, she's a part of the assembly line. She's making history, working for victory...There's something true about, red, white, and blue about, Rosie the Riveter" (Anderson, 2001). By the end of the war, more than six million women had entered the workforce, most of them married. As male participation in the workforce declined (as they were drafted to fight the war), females entered the workforce to take their place. The first wave of the feminist movement was not only known for political equality of men and women due to the passage of the nineteenth amendment, but also for the surge of female workers entering the workplace, many for the first time. Though the entrance of women into the workforce positively changed society's attitude and perception of women, male-dominated companies were still suspicious of women

workers. For this reason, women were not taken as seriously as men on the job and were looked at only as secondary to men. They were also unable to attain higher-status positions of power and thus had little say in most company's decision making processes, even when the outcome of the decision directly affected women as individuals. This inequality angered women and fed into the second wave of the feminist movement.

Women Liberation Movement – Second Wave

The second wave of the feminist movement, ranging from the early 1960s to the late 1980s, was primarily focused on gender inequalities in the legal system as well as cultural and societal gender discrimination. While the first wave was primarily concentrated on legal obstacles women were facing in the 20s, the second wave was more focused on sexuality, the woman's role in the household and in the workplace, and women's reproductive rights. The second wave of feminism also focused heavily on the battle against violence. This was done through proposals for marital rape laws, the creation of rape crisis and battered women and children shelters, and changes in divorce laws.

Simone de Beauvoir was one of the most prominent writers of second wave feminism; her writings also set a precedent for later feminist theory. She focused on the woman as "the other" in relation to the man in a male-dominated world, an idea based off Virginia Woolf's argument in the first wave of feminism. Simone argues, "for a man represents both the positive and the neutral, as indicated by the common use of man to designate human beings in general; whereas woman represents only the negative, defined by limiting criteria, without reciprocity" (McCann, 2008). Simone de Beauvoir focused

on the idea of the women as the other in the context of their role in the house, at work, and even their sexuality. Simone concluded in her view of the woman as “the other” in a patriarchal society that women’s ability to get pregnant, lactate, and menstruate were not viable reasons for deeming women the “second sex” (McCann, 2008). Betty Friedan, also known as the “Mother of the Movement,” supported Beauvoir’s idea that the women identified themselves as the other in relation to man subconsciously because they were influenced by socially constructed societal norms (Norton, 2005). Betty Friedan’s book, *The Feminine Mystique*, was widely popular during the second wave of the feminist movement.

The key event that marked the reemergence of this movement in the postwar era was the surprise popularity of Betty Friedan's 1963 book *The Feminine Mystique*. Writing as a housewife and mother (though she had had a long story of political activism, as well), Friedan described the problem with no name the dissatisfaction of educated, middle class wives and mothers like herself who, looking at their nice homes and families, wondered guiltily if that was all there was to life was not new; the vague sense of dissatisfaction plaguing housewives was a staple topic for women's magazines in the 1950s. But Friedan, instead of blaming individual women for failing to adapt to women's proper role, blamed the role itself and the society that created it (Norton, 2005).

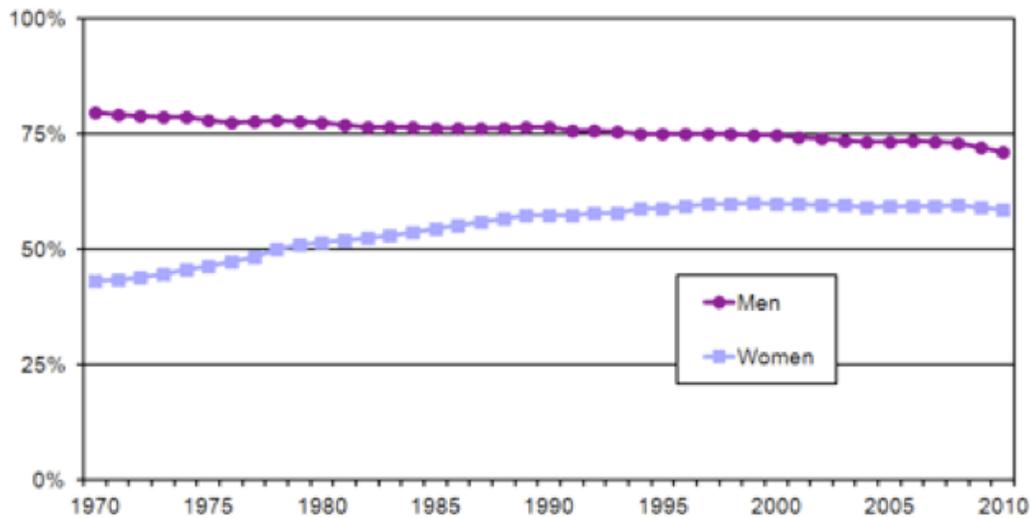
Friedan argued that restricting a woman to the confines of her household limited her opportunities and was a waste of potential talent. Friedan also argued that the image of the nuclear family was degrading and dissatisfying for women and that keeping the woman in the house not only was demeaning to women, but a waste of human capital for society (Norton, 2005). Along with Beauvoir and Freidan, Gloria Steinem, co-founder of Ms. Magazine, was another feminist leader and icon of the second wave of the feminist movement. In 1969, Steinem published “After Black Power, Women’s Liberation.” Steinem was also known for her avid support of abortion rights and her role in co-

founding the Women's Media Center, an organization that gave women a voice through media. Together, Beauvoir, Freidan, and Steinem led the second wave of the women's liberation movement to success as they increased women's confidence and opened avenues for women to break through their stereotypical role in the house and into workplace.

There were many strides made during the second wave of the women's liberation movement that helped women enter the workforce. In 1960, the Food and Drug Administration approved the oral contraceptive (birth control) pills, later made available in 1961. The contraception pill greatly benefited women who wanted to pursue serious careers by not having to leave the workplace unexpectedly when they became pregnant. The introduction of the contraception pill caused the average family size to decrease in the United States, due to the pills ability to help avoid unwanted pregnancy, which led to a higher percentage of women, who normally would be at home tending to their children, to enter the workplace. Also in 1960, President Kennedy made women's rights a key focus point in the New Frontier and appointed women to high ranking posts in his administration. He also established a Presidential Commission on the Status of Women, chaired by Eleanor Roosevelt, which released a report on gender inequality revealing gender discrimination against women. This introduction of the birth control pill, coupled with President Kennedy's commission, led to the formation of many women's groups in local, state, and federal government and many independent women's feminist organizations as well.

Three years later, *Griswold v. Connecticut* (1965) ruled that the Constitution protected the right to marital privacy, allowing the use of contraceptives by married couples. In 1973, *Roe v. Wade* ruled that privacy under the due process clause of the 14th amendment extended to include a woman's decision to have an abortion. Both these rulings had the same effect that the oral contraceptive pill had on women as it encouraged women to enter and stay in the work force. In 1985, the "No Fault" Divorce Law stated that a divorce could occur with mutual consent. This increased the divorce rates drastically in the United States and allowed women to gain economic independence from their spouses as they no longer had to rely on them for economic support. This new sense of independence led many women to break away from their husbands and emerge as independent women by economically supporting themselves. All of these events that made up the second wave of the feminist movement contributed to an increase of women in the workforce, seen in Figure 1: Labor Force Participation by Sex in the U.S. 1970 – 2010. This figure shows how during the course of the second wave of the feminist movement, from the 1960s to the late 1980s, women's participation in the workforce increased from less than 50% to almost 65%.

Figure 1: Labor Force Participation by Sex in the U.S. 1970 - 2010



Source: U.S. Dept of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics

All of these victories mentioned gave women confidence and ground to be influential individuals and gain independence to break from the mold of the nuclear family to pursue their own personal goals and desires. The second wave of feminism ended in the 1980s with the feminist sex wars, which was followed by the third wave of the feminist movement. Additional victories of the second wave of feminism were the Equal Pay Act of 1963, the foundation of the National Organization for Women by Betty Friedan in 1966, the Women's Educational Equality Act in 1974, the Pregnancy Discrimination Act in 1978, and the illegalization of marital rape. All of these victories of the second wave of the feminist movement were coupled with an increase of women in the workplace and a distinct societal change in attitudes towards women.

Women Liberation Movement – Third Wave

The third and final wave of the women's liberation movement started in the early 1990s to address the failures of the second wave of the feminist movement. The movement mainly addressed issues that limit or oppress women such as elements of queer theory, anti-racism, postmodernism, and open sexuality. The feminist movement rapidly grew during the third wave to include a diverse spectrum of women, some who may have not previously joined the movement when it was first founded because they did not agree with the goals at the beginning of the movement. With broader ideals and goals in mind, Gloria Anzadúa and Chela Sandavol, former leaders and icons from the second wave, continued leading the movement in the final wave of the movement, specifically in the direction of changing the media's portrayal of women.

The third wave of the women's liberation movement is highly correlated with more women in the labor force, especially in leadership roles. In 2011, women comprised 51.4% of management professional related positions (Bureau of Labor Statistics). However, African-American women and Asian-American women only comprised 5.3% and 2.7% of all people employed by management, professional, and related occupations (Bureau of Labor Statistics). Figure 2: Women's Share of *Financial Post500* Leadership Positions shows how women's representation in leadership positions has increased in recent years of the third wave of the liberation movement (Catalyst, 2008, 2009, 2010, 2012)

Figure 2: Women's Share of *Financial Post*500 Leadership Positions

The most prominent issues in the third wave of movement include eliminating racial and social discrimination (in reference to gender), fighting against gender violence, ensuring reproductive rights, and raising awareness to eliminate instances of rape. Other issues of this wave include the glass ceiling, the gender wage gap, sexual harassment, and unfair maternity leave policies. The third wave mainly focused on the intersection of gender and race in terms of discrimination. One of the biggest successes of the third wave was the Freedom Ride in 1992, an effort to register voters in poor minority communities, specifically focusing on young women (Taylor, 1999). Political activism was extremely common during the third wave of feminism, but even more emphasized than political activism was the individual women's empowerment to cause societal change. Many argue that the third wave of the feminist movement should not be acknowledged as it was merely an extension of the second wave of the movement, but others argue that the third wave of the movement continued from the early 1990s and is

still in existence today as women continue to battle issues in the work place such as the glass ceiling, the gender wage gap, sexual harassment, and unfair maternity leave policies

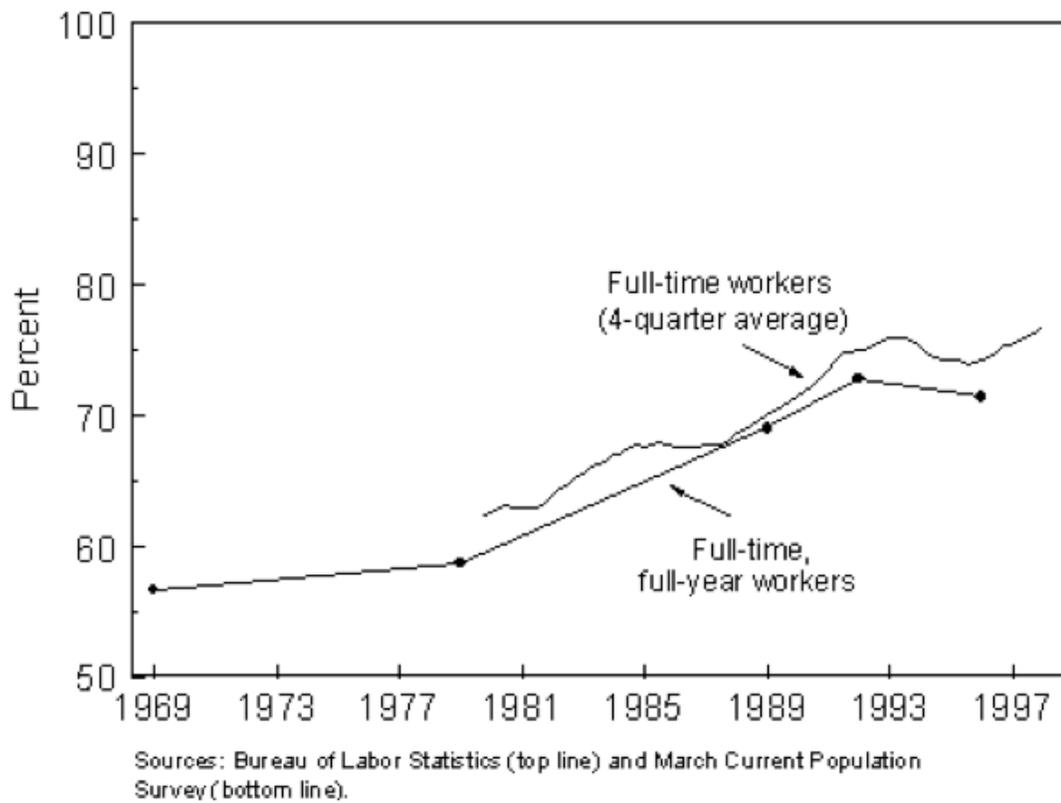
Each wave of the women's liberation movement contributed in some way to women's role and status in society. While the first wave was primarily focused on gaining political equality for women by giving them the right to vote, the second wave was correlated with a significant increase in the participation in the workplace. The third wave, which is arguably still in existence today, was associated with an increase of females in leadership and managerial positions. Each of these waves, in some way, helped women not only gain equality, but also independence. This independence gave a voice to women's gender as unique and different from men, suggesting that men and women are two distinct groups of people who think, communicate, influence, and lead in different ways.

Conclusion – Women Today

Women still face many issues in the workplace today, the most prominent being the gender wage gap and the glass ceiling. Although the male-female wage gap in the United States has definitely decreased in the past generation, women, as of 2010, still earn only 77 percent of what men earn (Glynn & Powers, 2012). This number is up from women earning around a mere 50 percent of what men earn in the 1960s (Glynn & Powers, 2012). Figure 3: Median Weekly Earnings of Females Relative to Males shows how this percentage has increased throughout history. Though women today are earning college degrees at the same rate as men, the average woman still earns less entering the working world out of college than the average man, leaving the issue one that still needs

to be addressed. In the U.S., for the 2009-2010 academic year, women made up 47.2% of law students and accounted for 36.8% of MBAs received (American Bar Association; The Association to Advance Collegiate Schools and Business). The wage gap is even worse for women of color and women with children. More than half of this gap in wages between men and women can not be attributed to occupation, experience or even education level proving that gender discrimination in the workplace still exists today.

Figure 3: Median Weekly Earnings of Females Relative to Males



The glass ceiling is one of the most popular metaphors used to describe inequalities between men and women in the workplace. “The image suggests that although it may now be the case that women are able to get through the front door of

managerial hierarchies, at some point they hit an invisible barrier that blocks any further upward movement...It applies to women as a group who are kept from advancing higher *because they are women*" (Baxter & Wright, 2000). Generally, the glass ceiling refers to inequalities that occur over the course of a career where women and minorities start promising careers, but at a certain point are cut off from promotions and pay raises due to gender discrimination. This ceiling can be shown by the fact that even though women hold 44 percent of the executive managerial jobs, they only account for 5 percent of the top executive positions (Corporate Leadership Council, 2002). These barriers that make up the glass ceiling that are hindering women from advancing in their careers include lack of mentors and role models for women leaders, exclusion from informal networks of communication, stereotyping and preconceptions of roles and abilities, lack of significant experience, and commitment to family responsibilities (Catalyst, 2001). All these factors explain why women do not climb the corporate ladder at the same rate as men. Both the glass ceiling and the gender wage gap are pressing issues facing working women today. Though companies are slowly beginning to see a greater representation of women in management positions, the presence of females in management positions is disproportionate to the representation of males in leadership positions. These inequalities between men and women in rights, standings, and opportunities are caused by already existing gender differences between men and women in communication style, influence tactics, and leadership style.

II. Psychological Differences Across Gender

Men and women differ psychologically in the way they act, from the style in which they communicate to the way in which they attempt to influence others. These gender differences in communication and influence tactics also have implications for gender differences across leadership styles of men and women. Therefore, this chapter will focus on psychological gender differences across communication styles and influence tactics with the purpose of laying the ground for the next chapter's focus on gender differences in leadership styles.

There are two main bodies of research on gender differences in communication styles, academic research and popular literature. Academic research points out major differences in conversation characteristics and traits across gender, while popular research focuses on major stylistic differences in conversation styles between men and women. Popular literature also points out common pitfalls and areas of conflict due to gender differences in communication styles of men and women. In addition to differences in their communication styles, men and women also differ in the way in which they influence other individuals. Though the influence tactics used by male and female managers or leaders varies depending on the gender of the target person that they are trying to influence, much research proves gender differences across influence tactics. Gender differences in communication styles and influence tactics have created stereotypical gender roles that have affected the behaviors of both men and women in the workplace. Some of these stereotypes have even had negative effects on women's behaviors and perceptions of females as employees, managers, and leaders in the workplace.

Gender Differences in Communication Styles

The biggest difference between men and women and their style of communication boils down to the fact that men and women view the purpose of conversations differently. Academic research on psychological gender differences has shown that while women use communication as a tool to enhance social connections and create relationships, men use language to exert dominance and achieve tangible outcomes (Leaper, 1991; Maltz & Borker, 1982; Wood, 1996; Mason, 1994). Women are, overall, more expressive, tentative, and polite in conversation, while men are more assertive, and power-hungry (Basow & Rubenfield, 2003). Men and women also differ in their relations towards others in society: while women strive to be more social in their interactions with others, men value their independence (Chodorow, 1978; Dinnerstein, 1977; Eagly, 1987; Gilligan, 1982; Miller, 1976). On the other hand, popular works by John Gray and Deborah Tannen show that while men view conversations as a way to establish and maintain status and dominance in relationships, women see the purpose of conversation to create and foster an intimate bond with the other party by talking about topical problems and issues they are communally facing (Gray, 1992; Tannen, 1990).

Academic research has shown many differences in communication styles between men and women. Overall, women are expected to use communication to enhance social connections and relationships, while men use language to enhance social dominance (Leaper, 1991; Mulac, Bradac, & Gibbons, 2001). On average, women use more expressive, tentative, and polite language than men do, especially in situations of conflict (Basow & Rubenfield, 2003). Men, on the other hand, are viewed as more likely than

women to offer solutions to problems in order to avoid further seemingly unnecessary discussions of interpersonal problems (Baslow & Rubenfield, 2003). Research in gender differences across communication styles has come to the conclusion that men tend to be self-assertive and view conversations as a means towards a tangible outcomes, such as obtaining power or dominance (Maltz &orker, 1982; Wood, 1996; Mason, 1994). Women, on the other hand, value cooperation, this communal orientation “involves a concern with others, selflessness, and a desire to be at one with others” (Mason, 1994). Females are also typically known to have a less clear focus on where the boundaries of their relationships end and their individual identities, defined in terms of relational bonds, begin. Females value talk for the relationships it creates; for females, the process of communication itself is valued (Chodorow, 1989; Hartmann, 1991; Statham, 1987; Surrey, 1983).

Other academic research argues that women use less powerful speech: they tend to swear less, speak more politely, and use more tag questions and intensifiers (Lakoff, 1975). Women also tend to interrupt less than men do; researchers have hypothesized that this is possibly because of their perceived lower status to men (Thorne & Henley, 1975). This could be due to societal norms that enforce this gender status hierarchy. Pearson (1985) also found that women often weaken their statements. One explanation of this could be due to their lower self-confidence in what they are saying and their fear of being wrong, which can be contributed to their perceived inferior status to male managers in the workplace. Overall, research has showed that, in general, women are more social-emotional in their interactions with others, whereas men are more independent and unemotional or attached in conversations (Chodorow, 1978; Dinnerstein, 1977; Eagly,

1987; Grillo, 1982; Miller, 1976). Theorists have suggested that these gender differences in communication styles put women at a disadvantage when interacting with others because they speak more tentatively than men, who are known to speak more assertively, thus leaving the impression that men are more confident and capable as leaders (Lakoff, 1975). Many of these gender differences in communication styles outlined make women appear subordinate to men, suggesting they should be viewed as second-class to men. This also has implications for gender differences in leadership styles because women are seen to second-class to men in this arena as well, making them appear unfit for a leadership or managerial position.

In John Gray's popular book *Men are from Mars, Women are from Venus: a Practical Guide for Improving Communication and Getting What You Want in a Relationship*, he outlines the underlying differences in communication styles between men and women. Gray's book is one of the most important benchmark pieces of literature on communication differences across gender of the twentieth century. He suggests that men and women are so different in their approaches to communicating that they are from different planets: they have different needs, goals, and values in the way they communicate (Gray, 1992). Understanding these differences is key to creating and maintaining successful relationships by being aware of how other genders communicate and thus adapting one's style accordingly.

The main differences Gray identifies between communication styles of men and women are as follows: Men are goal-oriented, they define their sense of self through their ability to achieve results (Gray, 1992). Women, on the other hand, are relationship-

oriented as they define their sense of self by their feelings and by the quality of their relationships (Gray, 1992). Men and women also cope with stress differently; men cope by withdrawing themselves from the conversation or situation while women cope by reaching out and talking about the cause of their stress (Gray, 1992). Gray coined the phrase, “Men go their caves and women talk” to describe this psychological difference in coping with stress between men and women (Gray, 1992). Overall, men want to feel needed, appreciated, and admired, while women strive to feel cherished, respected, and devoted (Gray, 1992). Men and women also differ in their communication style when they are faced with resolving a crisis or coming to a mutual conclusion. The most common communicative mistake made by both males and females occurs when talking about and resolving conflict. When attempting to resolve a problem, men follow their natural tendency to offer a solution while women seek empathy and understanding and are naturally inclined to offer unsolicited advice (Gray, 1992). These natural tendencies often create a rift between men when communicating with the opposite sex as men and women approach conversations differently.

Like John Gray, Deborah Tannen is also famous for her literature on differences in communication styles across gender. In 1990, Tannen wrote the book, *You Just Don't Understand: Women and Men in Conversation*, to explain the gender differences in communication styles between men and women. She found that these differences across gender start at a young age. Tannen noticed that boys create relationships with each other by doing things together; activities are central to their friendship. Girls, on the other hand, create close relationships with each other by simply talking, “talk is the essence of intimacy” (Tannen, 1990). Tannen continues to outline the differences between men and

women at the basic level, “For most women, the language of conversation is primarily a language of rapport: a way of establishing and negotiating relationships...For most men, talk is primarily a means to preserve independence and negotiate and maintain status in a hierarchical social order” (Tannen, 1990). Men approach conversations with the goal of transmitting information and offering advice, where women aim to maintain interaction and seek control and understanding (Tannen, 1990). Tannen (1990) also describes men as adversarial (having conflicting goals) and women as synergistic (having common goals). While men live in a world of status where conversations are merely negotiations for dominance and power, women live in a world of connections where the purpose of conversations is to negotiate for closeness and to preserve intimacy (Tannen, 1990). Men aim to avoid failure and taking orders from other people as they see it as a sign of losing independence implying they have a lower status (Tannen, 1990). On the other hand, women avoid isolation and are often fine with taking orders as they see it as a form of connection and intimacy with the other person (Tannen, 1990). While men seek control, prefer inequality and asymmetry, and value differences between individuals, women seek understanding, prefer equality and symmetry and value similarities as they see them as ways to connect with other individuals (Tannen, 1990).

The main source of disconnect between men and women that Tannen highlights occurs when women and men hit a barrier when talking about conflict. Women talk about their problems with other women to foster a bond with them and to create and maintain intimate relationships and they expect men to react in the same fashion (Tannen, 1990). However, when men hear women talking about problems, they offer solutions and quickly move to dismiss the problem (Tannen, 1990). This is the greatest observed

gender difference in communication styles and has implications in the workforce as well as women are seen, overall, as better communicators. In sectors such as service jobs that heavily rely on direct communication and contact with customers, communication skills are highly valued and extremely important. Therefore, women are more likely to be hired in these positions because they are, by nature of their communication style, more qualified than men for these jobs. So while men have to prove they have the necessary skills for such positions that require direct contact with customers, women are assumed to possess these skills because of the communication styles associated with their gender, giving them an advantage over men in the hiring process.

Academic research on communication differences across gender has shown that men and women differ in their communication characteristics and traits. Women tend to be more expressive, tentative, polite, social, while men are, on average, more assertive and dominant when it comes to communication style (Basow & Rubenfield, 2003). Popular research has also shown gender differences in communication styles, from men being primarily goal-oriented and result-focused and women being relationship-oriented and placing a high value on closeness and intimacy in interactions with other people (Tannen, 1990; Gray, 1992). Overall, the two bodies of research on gender differences in communication styles (academic research and popular literature) tend to agree on how men and women differ in the way they communicate. While academic research focuses more on the communication characteristics and traits that men and women exhibit, popular literature makes the connection between psychological gender traits and communication styles and gender differences in terms of basic goals of conversations. Popular literature also points out common mistakes men and women make when

conversing with each other, specifically focusing on gender differences in crisis communication.

Gender Differences in Influence Tactics

Men and women not only differ in the way in which they communicate with one another but also in the way that they attempt to influence one another. Influence is a leader's ability to motivate and influence their followers to change their behavior, beliefs, and attitudes, which is why influence tactics are one of the most common ways to measure a leader's effectiveness. However these influence tactics differ from individual to individual in their effectiveness, as well as across gender. Gary Yukl (2002), researcher in leadership and influence, and professor in the School of Business at the University of Albany, has nine main influence tactics that he and Carolyn Chavez define in *Classification of Proactive Influence Tactics* in "Influence Tactics and Leadership Effectiveness": inspirational appeal, rational persuasion, consultation, ingratiation, personal appeals, exchange, coalition tactics, legitimating tactics, and pressure. Inspirational appeal is a subjective influence tactic as it occurs when the agent seeks to gain commitment by arousing the target person's emotions (Yukl & Chavez, 2002). Rational persuasion, on the other hand, is a more objective influence tactic, it occurs when the agent uses logical arguments and facts to influence a decision (Yukl & Chavez, 2002). Consultation is when the agent seeks the target persons' participation in the decision making process, asking the target person to express his concerns or suggest improvements (Yukl & Chavez, 2002). Ingratiation occurs when the agent uses praise or flattery to win their target person over (Yukl & Chavez, 2002). Personal appeal is when

the agent uses a close interpersonal friendship between the agent and the target person to influence the target person to carry out a task or favor (Yukl & Chavez, 2002). Exchange is defined as when the agent offers an incentive, say an exchange of favors, if the target person complies with the agent's request (Yukl & Chavez, 2002). Yukl & Chavez (2002) define coalition tactics as when the agent uses the aid of other already complying individuals to gain the support of the target agent; in other words, the agent is using the Bandwagon Fallacy, using popular support to persuade commitment from his target person (Yukl & Chavez, 2002). Legitimizing tactics is when the agent refers to the rules or formal policies to prove that he or she has legitimate authority to seek their target person's support (Yukl & Chavez, 2002). Finally, pressure occurs when the agent intimidates his target person to comply with their request by using demands, threats, and persistent reminders (Yukl & Chavez, 2002).

Many studies analyze the intersection of gender and influence tactics have resulted in mixed findings. While the majority of the research done on gender and influence tactics has found that there is, in fact, a difference in the influence tactics men and women use (White, 1988; DuBrin, 1991; Carli, 1999; Carothers & Allen, 1999; Lamude, 1993); other research has shown that these differences are not attributed to gender but to differences in situational circumstances (Carli, 1999; Carothers & Allen, 1999; Lamude, 1993). A meta-analysis comparing research done on the intersection of influence tactics and gender found that male managers use personal appeal, consultation, assertiveness, and inspirational appeal more than female managers. The studies also proved that females used consultation, inspirational appeal, and ingratiation more with other female employees and exchange tactics more with male employees (Carli, 1999;

Carothers & Allen, 1999; Dubrin, 1991; Lamude, 1993; White, 1998). This implies that female managers are more likely to create and foster closer bonds with other female employees easily because of their similar communication styles, but not with other male employees, due to their conflicting styles of communication.

Barbuto, Scholl, Hickox and Boulmetis (2001) divided influence tactics into two groups: “soft” and “hard” influence tactics in reference to the target person’s level of resistance to the agent’s behavior. While hard tactics (including legitimating, exchange, pressure, and coalition) are characterized as being more forceful and hard to resist, soft tactics (including rationality, inspirational appeals, consultation, ingratiating, and personal appeals) relied on interpersonal relationships (Barry & Shapiro, 1992). Lamude (1993) found in his research that male supervisors are more likely to use soft tactics with male managers and hard tactics more with female managers. This implies that male managers rely on emotions and interpersonal relationships to influence other males, but rely more on influence tactics based on intimidation to influence members of the opposite sex. Lamude (1993) also found that female supervisors, on the other hand, used soft influence tactics with both male and female managers, which is representative of females intimate communication styles and the high value they place on interpersonal relationships in the workplace.

There are two contradicting views on the study of the intersection of influence tactics and gender: one side arguing that both men and women use the same influence tactics, just in different situations, and the other side supporting that influence tactics vary across gender. Those who do not believe that men and women implement different

influence tactics attribute dissimilarities in influence tactics to situational circumstances such as an individual's setting, which is comprised of their status, followers, task, etc. Though influence tactics may vary from situation to situation, these theorists believe that overall, men and women use the same influence tactics. The gender differences in influence tactics outlined in the second school of thought imply that male managers are more assertive and authoritative when trying to influence others, while women tend to influence by means of consulting and inspiring. Many conclusions have also been drawn on research on the interplay between the gender of the influencer and the gender of the target person that they are trying to influence. When trying to influence someone of their same gender, leaders tend to use "softer" influence tactics; conversely, leaders are known to use "harder" influence tactics when they are trying to influence someone of the opposite sex. Overall, these gender differences across influence tactics help explain why gender differences in leadership styles exist, as one's ability to influence his/her followers is a primary goal of any leader. These psychological gender differences in communication styles and influence tactics have created a set of stereotypes dictating what is expected from men and women in the workplace.

Gender Stereotypes

Socially constructed gender stereotypes are learned and engrained in our minds at a very young age. By age four, children have a clear understanding of appropriate attributes of their gender and strive to abide by these existing roles (Eddleston, Veiga, & Powell, 2003). These stereotypes are facilitated by one's surrounding environment: their family, friends, school, and the media are all persuasive factors in influencing individuals to conform to their stereotype causing them to strive for consistency between their biological sex and what is expected of them (Eddleston, Veiga, & Powell, 2003). These stereotypes of roles that are exposed to an individual during their childhood and adolescent years are reinforced through socialization throughout their lives (Welbourne, 2005). They have the ability to influence an individual's behaviors and characteristics in adulthood, including their interpersonal and leadership style (Eagly, Johnson-Schmidt, & Van Engen, 2003). These stereotypical gender roles act as guidelines for workplace conduct as they subconsciously dictate how a person is to communicate and act based on their gender.

Women begin to act the stereotypical female role as a child and continue along this same path as an adult. David Schneider (2005) outlines the common gender stereotypes in Table 1: Common Stereotypes of Women and Men Based on Psychological Research. Some common female stereotype traits are affectionate, emotional, friendly, sympathetic, sensitive, and sentimental; stereotypic males traits include dominant, forceful, aggressive, self-confident, rational, and unemotional (Schneider, 2005). These gender stereotypes portray women as lacking the very qualities

that people commonly associate with effective leadership, thus creating a false perception that women don't measure up to men when it comes to top level management positions (Welbourne, 2005). In the workplace, these stereotypes can have extremely detrimental effects on female leaders, limiting their opportunities to advance to top leadership positions. On the other hand, male's stereotypical traits, outlined in the table below, perfectly align with the traits one would think a typical leader or CEO of company would embody. These gender stereotypes have attributed attitudes such as sensitivity and being emotional to women, assigning them to "take care" behaviors, while portraying men as aggressive and rational, prescribing them to more of a "take charge" style (Welbourne, 2005).

Women's Traits	Men's Traits
Affectionate	Dominant
Appreciative	Achievement-oriented
Emotional	Active
Friendly	Ambitious
Sympathetic	Coarse
Mild	Forceful
Pleasant	Aggressive
Sensitive	Self-confident
Sentimental	Rational
Warm	Tough
Whiny	Unemotional

These stereotypes mentioned above enforce gender discrimination in the workplace and can have a negative impact on female workers.

According to the sex role theory, being a man or a woman means enacting a general role as a function of one's sex. But this theory also uses the words masculine and feminine, asserting that the feminine character in particular is produced by socialization onto the female role. According to this approach, women acquire a great deal of sex role learning early in their lives, and this can lead to an attitude of mind that creates difficulties later, during their working lives. It's a form of "culture trap" (Claes, 1999).

This "culture trap" that Claes (1999) refers to is caused by the subconscious attitude of mind that women have about what is expected of them in the workplace due to their gender, often affecting their behaviors in the workplace, from their communication styles to their leadership styles. This sex role leaning leads women to convince themselves that they are subordinate to men causing the perception of women in the workplace to be that they are, in fact, second class to men. This leads to the association of a status characteristic with gender as men are seen as superior to women. When gender becomes associated with a status characteristic, it creates a hierarchical structure of opportunities in the workplace that is biased towards men. Men's higher social status means they have more access to power and resources than women do thus giving them more opportunities to succeed in leadership or managerial positions than women. This puts women at a disadvantage because they are not exposed to these same opportunities due to their gender stereotype.

These qualitative differences between the normative roles of men and women affect their leadership behavior and outcomes (Eagly, 1987). This status difference between men and women can be seen by an individual's socio-demographic gender and is a visible status marker, affecting others' perceptions, observations, and evaluations of an individual's, specifically females', abilities to organize and lead (Eagly, 1987). This leads to different outcomes for men and women as men are attributed higher status and

privilege and are more likely to be in leadership roles because these high positions are congruent with their socio-demographic gender. On the other hand, women's lower status grants them fewer privileges in society, especially in the working arena. This hinders women from achieving leadership roles because of the stereotype that leadership roles are incongruent with women's socio-demographic gender.

Conclusion

Men and women differ psychologically from the way in which they communicate to the way they attempt to influence others. Academic research has shown that while women tend to have more expressive, tentative, cooperative, and polite communication characteristics, men use more aggressive, assertive, direct, and powerful communication traits (Basow & Rubenfield, 2003; Maltz & Borker, 1982; Wood, 1996; Mason, 1994). Popular literature on communication differences between men and women has shown that while men are more goal and task-oriented, women tend to be more people and relationship-oriented in their communication style (Gray, 1992). Men and women's biggest source of conflict is their gender differences when coping with a stressful situation; these stylistic communication differences often cause a rift between men and women in the workplace (Tannen, 1990).

Additionally, men and women differ in the way in which they attempt to influence others. While male managers tend to employ influence tactics such as personal appeal, consultation, assertiveness, and inspirational appeal, female managers use consultation, inspirational appeal, and ingratiation more with other female employees and exchange tactics more with male employees (Carli, 1999; Carothers & Allen, 1990; DuBrin, 1991;

Lamude, 1993; White, 1988). This gender differences in influence tactics mirror the gender differences in communication styles as women's use of "soft" influence tactics align perfectly with their intimate relationship-oriented communication style. These psychological gender differences in communication styles and influence tactics create stereotypical roles for men and women in the workplace, providing a set of expectations for what is expected of women, often putting women at a disadvantage. These gender differences also have implications for differences in leadership styles between men and women as will be explained in the next chapter.

III. Leadership Differences Across Gender

Leadership is based on a social interaction between leaders and their peers, supervisors, and subordinates. This interaction is, by nature, influenced by intrapsychic processes, including gender-role orientation and the attitudes and values associated with these roles. One of the biggest components that contributes to leadership style is the social interaction or relationship between a leader and their follower. This is where men and women vastly differ in their leadership approaches as women, by nature of their communication style, value workplace relationships more than men, suggesting that female leaders may foster closer bonds with their followers than male leaders. On the other hand, men's status and power-oriented communication style suggests a more controlling authoritative leadership approach.

As the prior chapter highlighted, there are important differences between men and women in terms of communication styles and influence tactics that have many implications for gender stereotypes in the workplace. These gender differences may have important implications from how men and women lead as well. This chapter will explore what literature research in the intersection of gender and leadership suggests. While some theorists argue that there are no gender differences in the leadership styles employed by men and women, others support the idea that men and women are extremely different in the way in which they lead.

A decent amount of leadership literature argues that men and women do not differ in their leadership styles or abilities, but rather that leadership is contingent on situational

factors (Foels, Driskell, Mullen, & Salas, 2000). Other researches that support no gender differences in leadership skills say that experiments trying to compare female and male leaders lack internal validity as they are often over-reliant on narrative reviews or case studies (Bartol & Martin, 1986; Bass, 1981, 1990). Kanter (1977) argues that not only do men and women not differ in the way they lead, but that a leader adapts his/her leadership style to their situation and conforms to what is expected of them in the managerial role, ignoring their gender's influence on their leadership style. However, most researches agree that gender differences in leadership styles do exist and that men often use a more task-oriented approach, while women, on average, rely on leadership style heavily based on quality of interpersonal leader-follower relationships (Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Gray, 1992; Eagly, 1987; Eagly & Karau, 2002). Female leaders have also been described as taking a more "take care" leadership approach compared to the males' "take charge" approach (Martell & DeSmet, 2001; Yukl, 1994; Hater & Bass, 1998). Researchers have also found that women tend to emerge as more transformational leaders while men are likely to use a transactional leadership approach (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Rosener, 1990). For a while, many researchers supported that no gender differences existed between the leadership styles of men and women, but more recent research has proven otherwise. Though these gender differences in leadership styles don't imply that either males or females are better leaders, societal obstacles to success for female leaders often hinder women from attaining leadership positions as easily as men do. Some of these barriers that women are exposed to include being expected to adapt to traditionally male-oriented models of leadership, being held to different standards than men in leadership positions,

and walking a fine line in the workplace when trying to conform to what is expected of them as leaders.

Literature that shows No Gender Differences in Leadership

Some of the research on gender differences in leadership styles has come to the conclusion that there are no quantifiable differences between men and women in leadership roles, but rather that leadership roles are just extremely situational. This line of literature argues that neither men nor women are better in leadership positions, but that a leadership style's effectiveness is contingent on various features of group and organizational environments (Foels, Driskell, Mullen, & Salas, 2000). Contingency theories recognize that there is no best style of leadership, but rather "leader effectiveness depends, or is contingent on, the interaction of leader behavior and the situation" (Riggio, 2008). This suggests that followers are as important as, if not more important than the leader in deciding which leadership style best fits the situation. The results of many of the leadership studies done were inconclusive in finding leadership differences between males and females as the male and female leaders in the study were not necessarily in similar leadership roles and therefore their leadership styles were hard to compare. This is because the researcher never has total control or manipulation over the settings of the study. These experiments were vulnerable to error because the method of experimentation was relatively informal due to its traditional nature and over-reliance on narrative reviews (Bartol & Martin, 1986; Bass, 1981, 1990). Therefore, because they were not true experiments, the female and male leaders being analyzed were not in the same specific leadership role, making it hard to compare the two different styles as other

external factors were not able to be held constant, such as settings, followers' behaviors, etc. Therefore, these studies were inconclusive in proving that men and women both used the same leadership styles.

However, Kanter (1977) argues that organizational roles override gender roles when it comes to management or leadership positions. He argues that males and females who occupy the same organizational role should theoretically differ very little in their leadership approach because both male and female leaders "are presumably more concerned about managing effectively than about representing sex-differentiated features of societal gender roles" (Kanter, 1977). Here, Kanter (1977) is arguing that male and female managers behave less stereotypic of their gender role when they occupy the same leadership position because they are confining to the guidelines about the conduct of behavior of the given managerial role rather than leading according to their gender stereotype. According to Kanter (1977) this is because apparent sex differences in behavior is not a product of gender differences, but is rather because of differing structural positions; because women are often in positions of less power, they behave in ways that reflect that lack of power. Thus, men and women in equivalent positions of power behave similarly, suggesting no gender differences in leadership styles.

Other studies that also support the idea that there is no true leadership differences between men and women, but rather that "sex role stereotypes are not supported when the results of different studies are taken a whole...male and female leaders exhibit similar amounts of task-oriented and people-oriented behavior regardless of the type of study" (Powell, 1990). Here, Powell (1990) argues that overall, leadership differences between

men and women are insignificant because they are cancelled out when looking at studies as a whole as both genders use equal amounts of task-oriented and relationship-oriented behaviors. On the other hand, there is extensive research that shows that men and women do, in fact, differ in the leadership styles they use.

Psychologists and researchers who support gender differences in leadership styles suggest that because men and women differ psychologically and in the way in which they communicate and influence, as outlined in the previous chapter, it is only natural to assume that they will differ in their leadership approaches. They argue that psychological gender differences are due to biological and ingrained sex differences in personality traits and behavioral tendencies possibly due to sex-differentiated prior experiences such as differences in parenting styles or childhood events (Money & Ehrhardt, 1972; Maccoby, 1988). If men and women inherently differ in their developmental processes, they will grow up to be completely different types of people with different leadership styles and skills, even if they are in similar positions of leadership/management.

Literature that shows Gender Differences in Leadership

The main body of research on leadership differences across gender concludes that men are task-oriented leaders, while women are relationship-oriented leaders. Task-oriented leaders are autocratic, direct, and controlling (Eagly & Johnson, 1990). Task-oriented behaviors are “concentrated on performing the job that the work group faces and are thus similar to those of the initiating structure factor. The leader is concerned with setting work standards, supervising the job, and meeting production goals” (Riggio, 2008). These take-charge leadership traits are emulated by men’s characteristics when it

comes to communication. As stated in chapter two, men are very goal-oriented when it comes to the way in which they approach communication as they use conversations to achieve results, preserve independence, dominance, and maintain their status in the hierarchical social order (Tannen, 1990). Thus, men's communication style, based primarily on control and power, mirrors their task-oriented leadership style quite perfectly. This aggressive approach is primarily why men emerge more often as leaders than women in the workplace. Other meta-analysis research has shown that male managers are more motivated to work in competitive environments where they exert an assertive role, are able to impose their wishes on others, and stand out in a group of people (Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt, & Van Engen, 2003; Eagly, Karau, Miner, & Johnson, 1994).

While men use a task-oriented leadership approach, women are much more concerned with the bonds they have with their followers. This relationship-oriented style is characterized by democratic and participative leadership characteristics (Eagly & Johnson, 1990). Relationship-oriented behaviors are focused on maintaining interpersonal relationships on the job including "showing concern for employees' well-being and involving them in decision-making processes" (Riggio, 2008). Female leaders tend to assume more of a caretaker role, possibly because of their stereotypical role as a caretaker to their husband and children in the household. Whatever the reason may be for these behaviors, women have a much more interpersonal leadership style than men. This relationship-oriented leadership approach perfectly mirrors the way in which women communicate. Women see the goal of a conversation to maintain interaction with the other person and to seek control and understanding (Tannen, 1990). Creating and

maintaining intimate connections is a common primary objective for women across both communication styles and leadership approaches (Tannen, 1990). This is why women emerge more often than men as “social leaders” or facilitators, as opposed to task-leaders, because of their ability to communicate and connect with their followers on a social and emotional level (Gray, 1992; Eagly, 1987; Eagly & Karau, 2002). Women, on average, are also more often described as friendly, pleasant, interested in other people, expressive and socially sensitive (Eagly, 1987; Hall, 1984)

Along with the “take care” and “take charge” stereotypes mentioned in the last chapter are stereotypical gender leadership roles. These roles were defined by a meta-analysis of research in leadership differences across gender by Martell and DeSmet (2001), Yukl (1994), and Hater and Bass (1998). The roles, seen in Table 2: How Leader Behaviors Connect to Feminine and Masculine Stereotypes, were either classified as masculine task-oriented traits or people-oriented feminine traits. Feminine leadership behaviors include supporting, rewarding, mentoring, networking, consulting, team-building, and inspiring, whereas masculine behaviors include problem-solving, influencing upwards, and delegating (Martell & DeSmet, 2001; Yukl, 1994; Hater & Bass, 1998).

Table 2: How Leader Behaviors Connect to Feminine and Masculine Stereotypes	
Feminine Behaviors—Taking Care	Masculine Behaviors—Taking Charge
Supporting Encouraging, assisting, and providing resources for others	Problem-Solving Identifying, analyzing, and acting decisively to remove impediments to work performance
Rewarding Providing praise, recognition, and financial remuneration when appropriate	Influencing Upward Affecting others in positions of higher rank
Mentoring Facilitating the skill development and career advancement of subordinates	Delegating Authorizing others to have substantial responsibility and discretion
Networking Developing and maintaining relationships with others who may provide information or support resources	
Consulting Checking with others before making plans or decisions that affect them	
Team-Building Encouraging positive identification with the organization unit, cooperation and constructive conflict resolution	
Inspiring Motivating others toward greater enthusiasm for, and commitment to, work objects by appealing to emotion, value, or personal example	

Other theorists that argue men and women differ in their leadership approaches classify women, on average, to emerge more as transformational leaders and men as transactional leaders (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Rosener, 1990). Transformational leaders are inspiring and visionary leaders that gain their followers trust and confidence; they create future common goals and set plans for their followers to achieve these goals (Burns, 1978). Transformational leaders are mainly known for their ability to inspire change in the values and needs of their followers so that individual interests are subsumed under the collective goals of the organization (Burns, 1978). Transformational leaders are also encouraging and strive to help develop their followers to their full potential (Burns, 1978). All of the characteristics of transformational leaders are very similar to women's

interpersonal approach to leadership, which is why women emerge more than men as transformational leaders. Men, on the other hand, are extremely management-oriented, a key characteristic when it comes to transactional leadership. Transactional leaders offer rewards in exchange for compliance by rewarding their followers for meeting objectives and punishing them for failing to meet objectives (Avolio, 1999; Bass, 1998). Transactional leadership has much of the same take-charge characteristics as task-oriented leadership; therefore, the same masculine communication traits apply to transactional leadership as well.

Though there is a lot of research that argues there are no overall leadership style differences between men and women, their different communication styles and influence tactics suggest fundamental psychological gender differences. Since communication and the interaction between leaders and their followers are so important to effective leadership styles, these differences in communication styles should be taken into account when comparing leadership styles across gender. Communication style differences between men and women suggest different leadership styles as well. In the end, men and women do differ in leadership styles, though these differences are extremely situational as men and women are each better leaders in different positions. These leadership style differences between men and women often create obstacles for women leaders in the workplace as they are seen as relational leaders in a world comprised of primarily task-oriented leadership positions. In general, roles of leadership are viewed as requiring a more goal-oriented leadership approach. As a result, women face many problems when attempting to attain and succeed in positions of leadership due to their gender. These dilemmas that female leaders face include being expected to adapt to traditionally male-

oriented models of leadership, being held to different standards than men in leadership positions, and being forced to walk a fine line in the workplace when trying to conform to what is expected of them. These barriers, due to gender discrimination, put female leaders at a disadvantage, making it harder for them to truly succeed in leadership positions and be perceived as effective leaders.

Dilemmas for Female Leaders

Women have always had to deal with many setbacks in leadership positions, from traditional overwhelmingly male-oriented models to harsh expectations and standards imposed on them by society. Almost always, female leaders have to work harder than male leaders to succeed in positions of leadership. Traditionally, leadership has been studied using male norms as the standard (Chiliwniak, 1997). Stereotypes paint men as a much more natural fit for top leadership positions than women (Eagly & Karau, 1992; Heilman, 2001). This creates a barrier women have fought hard to overcome by adapting masculine leadership characteristics. Obviously, through the lens of the male-oriented leadership models, men are automatically viewed as better leaders, while women have to work to adopt masculine behaviors in order to be taken seriously as leaders. Another obstacle women have had to conquer is the double standards applied to male and female leaders. Women face more stringent requirements to attain and retain leadership positions (Foschi, 2000). In a study of promotional recommendations, Biernat and Kobrynowicz (1997) found that individuals apply lower standards when evaluating the leadership ability of men relative to women because less evidence was needed to suggest a promotion of a male candidate over a female candidate, suggesting that women are

assumed to not be as qualified as men for leadership positions. These double standards are the main reason for the glass ceiling effect mentioned in the first chapter that hinders women striving to attain high leadership and managerial positions in the workplace. This incongruity between the typical male-oriented leader role and the female gender role creates prejudice views towards female leaders and potential female leaders. Because leadership ability is seen as more stereotypical of men rather than women, women receive less favorable evaluations of their potential for leadership. This is because individuals make different judgments about identical leadership behaviors depending on whether those behaviors are attributed to men or women.

When it comes to bias and discrimination in the workplace, women leaders walk a fine line when trying to fit into the narrowly defined set of behaviors in which cultural femininity overlaps with leadership (Lips, 2009). This fine line is one of the most complex problems female leaders face in the workplace. They are often criticized for being either too sexless or too sexual, too pushy or too soft, too strident or too accommodating, etc. “With the necessity to conform two, often conflicting, sets of expectations, high-profile women leaders in the United States are relentlessly held to a higher standard than their male counterparts” (Lips, 2009). Women are expected to behave like leaders while simultaneously fitting into the stereotypical feminine role. The more often they violate the standards for their gender, the more they are penalized by prejudiced reactions (Eagly, Makhijani, & Klonsky, 1992). However, at the same time, women are expected to behave in a strict democratic and masculine enough manner to be acknowledged and respected as a leader. The consequence of this is that women often encounter negative reactions when they behave in an agentic manner (Eagly et al., 1992).

When women exert control and dominance in a leadership position, they are often judged more harshly than a male leader behaving in a similar manner simply because they are women. The result is that women in managerial positions often manifest language and communication styles that are more collaborative and less hierarchical than males' communication styles, as shown in the last chapter (Hall & Friedman, 1999). This attempt to be more consistent with the feminine gender role requirement often makes female managers appear soft and not capable of holding a leadership position. When women do violate the prescriptive stereotypical female role expected of them by excelling in leadership roles they often suffer harsh penalties; in exchange for their success as a female leader they are scrutinized as appearing hostile and strident (Heilman, 2004). One major consequence this creates is that female leaders are almost always suggested to have lower compensation due to their seemingly ineffective leadership behavior as mentioned by the gender wage gap in the first chapter. While, on the other hand, a male acting in the exact same manner, would be considered a successful leader. There is no way for women to win in this situation as they are constantly being pulled between two extremes: behaving within the stereotypical role expected of them and exerting enough dominance to be an effective leader.

Conclusion

There are two schools of thought on gender differences in leadership styles. While some argue that men and women practice the same leadership skills and techniques just in different situations, others argue that men and women use completely different leadership styles. The supporters of there being no gender differences in leadership styles argue that it is impossible to compare the leadership styles of men and women to each other because men and women are never in the same specific leadership position. Though there is a decent amount of literature that shows that men and women use equivalent amount of task-oriented and people-oriented leadership behaviors, advocates on the other side of the argument believe that men tend to use task-oriented leadership styles while women generally use relationship-oriented leadership styles. These gender differences in leadership styles can be traced back to gender differences in communication styles and influence tactics as shown in the previous chapter. This has many implications for female leaders in the workplace as they have to balance their authoritative and caretaker leadership characteristics. Female leaders have to learn how to adapt their leadership style based on the situation and have to know when to stay true to their gender and when to adapt a more masculine powerful approach in order to be viewed as an effective leader. This balancing act is one of the hardest parts about being a female leader and is the reason why men, overall, emerge as leaders more than women.

IV. Conclusion

Overview

The three waves of the women's liberation movement led to political equality for men and women, an increase of women's participation in the workplace, as well as more females in leadership and managerial positions. These effects were crucial for women in gaining their independence and a unique voice to their gender, differentiating them from men. These gender differences have implications in communication styles and influence tactics, as well as across leadership styles. Both academic and popular research in the intersection of gender and communication styles support that men and women differ in the way in which they communicate. On average, women use conversations to enhance social connections and create intimate relationships and men use language to exert dominance, maintain status, and achieve tangible outcomes (Leaper, 1991; Maltz &orker, 1982; Wood, 1996; Mason, 1994; Gray, 1992; Tannen, 1990). While women are overall more expressive, tentative, and polite in conversations, men are more assertive and power hungry (Basow & Rubenfield, 2003). Gender differences have also been identified in influence tactics: men tend to use influence tactics such as personal appeal, consultation, assertiveness, and inspirational appeal, while women use tactics such as consultation, inspirational appeal, and ingratiation more with other female and exchange tactics with males (Carli, 1999; Carothers & Allen, 1999; Dubrin, 1991; Lamude, 1993; White, 1998).

In addition to the identified differences in communication styles and influence tactics between men and women, researchers have also found gender differences in leadership styles. While men generally take a more aggressive task-oriented approach, as identified by their goal-oriented communication style, women tend to be more relationship-oriented in their approach to leadership (Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Gray, 1992; Eagly, 1987; Eagly & Karau, 2002). Female leaders have also been described as taking a more “take care” leadership approach compared to the males “take charge” approach (Martell & DeSmet, 2001; Yukl, 1994; Hater & Bass, 1998). Women also tend to emerge more as transformational leaders compared to men, who use a more transactional leadership approach (Bass & Avolio, 1994; Rosener, 1990).

These gender differences, however, have created gender stereotypes which often have negative implications for women in the workplace as they are viewed as inferior to men and therefore not fit for leadership positions. Because of these differences, women have had to deal with conforming to traditionally male-oriented models of leadership as well as harsh expectations and double standards for men and women imposed by society. This bias and discrimination towards female leaders is why men emerge more often than women in management and leadership positions in the workplace.

Implications for Male and Female Leaders

Gender differences in communication styles and influence tactics prove that men and women are truly different types of leaders. This implies that not only do men and women communicate and influence differently, but that they have to be looked at as unique entities that require distinctive models of leadership. Corporate models of

leadership are predominantly male-oriented, but this “anywhere, anytime” performance model is not always appropriate to blindly apply to both male and female leaders and difficult to implement (McKinsey, 2007). There is no universal “one size fits all” model that can be applied to both men and women, but rather, leadership styles should be viewed as situational. Depending on the characteristics of the leadership situation, including the gender of the leader, different models of leadership must be applied. If men and women differ in their communication styles and influence tactics, it is only natural to expect gender differences when it comes to leadership styles as well. Not only does the gender of the leader relevant when deciding what type of leadership model should be used, but to some extent, the gender of the follower should be taken into account as well. This interaction between the gender of the leader and the gender of the follower is almost as important as the gender of the leader as leaders tend to treat followers of their own gender differently than followers of the opposite sex.

Leadership style differences between men and women suggest that men and women have different leadership advantages in different sectors or job industries. Figure 5: Feminine and Masculine Occupations shows that while feminine styles of leadership advocate women in positions of leadership in human resources or public relations, masculine leadership styles promote male leaders in general management, finance/accounting, sales/marketing, information technology, and research & development occupations (Catalyst, 2005). These suggested occupational differences for men and women are based on gender differences in leadership styles. The feminine relationship-oriented leadership style and the masculine task-oriented leadership style are each likely to be successful in different situations.

Table 5: Feminine and Masculine Occupations	
Feminine Occupations	Masculine Occupations
Human Resources	General Management
Public Relations	Finance/Accounting
	Sales/Marketing
	Information Technology
	Research & Development

While men, due to their goal-oriented approach to leadership roles, may be more likely than women to succeed in finance/accounting occupations, females have a natural advantage in public relations leadership positions due to their relationship-oriented leadership style. This is a prime example of how leadership styles are extremely situational as leadership style differences between men and women suggest success is different roles and occupations. These situational leadership advantages due to gender not only trace back to gender differences in leadership styles but to gender differences in communication styles and influence tactics as well. Female leaders are more intimate and relational in conversation, making them better suited for a human resources or public relations leadership position in which one of their primary responsibilities is to communicate, listen, and tend to the needs of other people. Male leaders, on the other hand, use their assertive and powerful speech to succeed in leadership positions in general management, accounting, and sales occupations.

These gender differences in leadership styles should not be looked at competitively. Women are not better leaders than men, nor vice versa, they just have different skill sets and leadership styles due to their psychological gender differences. Therefore, they should be looked at through different models or lenses of leadership to

account for these gender differences. These gender differences should not be used as a reason to discriminate against male or female leaders, but rather they should be acknowledged and analyzed so that male and female leaders are placed in positions in which they can best contribute their abilities. To increase efficiency and successful leader-situation placement, leaders should be placed where their skills are most useful and applicable to the leadership role. Unfortunately, these psychological gender differences in communication styles, influence tactics, and leadership styles often cause gender discrimination against women in the workplace. However, Companies can do a wide variety of things to remedy these negative effects.

Prescriptive Suggestions

It is up to companies to take steps in order to create and foster an accepting environment for female leaders to emerge. Companies can do this by giving female leaders female mentors to guide them through their leadership development, ensure objective performance evaluations, educate managers and employees about gender stereotyping, and showcase the success of female leaders in the workplace.

Female mentors can be a great tool to female leaders in the workplace as they work on developing their leadership skills. These role models are important to leadership development as they help women identify with success. Female leaders in-the-making are able to look up to established and successful female leaders in the workplace as role models. Without these mentors, emerging female leaders are unable to promote themselves and be assertive about their performance and ambitions (McKinsey, 2007). Female mentors give these leaders confidence and guidance in their path to leadership,

directing them to success. It is important for the future of companies and upward organizational performance that companies promote gender diversity of leadership behaviors (McKinsey, 2007). Leadership role models for female leaders are an important way for female leaders to identify themselves with successful leadership (McKinsey, 2007). If companies are able to take these actions, they will see an increase in the participation of women in the workplace, which will be accompanied by an increase in the emergence of female leaders as well.

Objective performance evaluations are another way for companies to reduce and eliminate gender discrimination against female leaders in the workplace. By clearly defining and communicating performance evaluation criteria, all employees know what is expected of them and when those expectations are met. This specificity and clarity leaves no room for subjectivity in performance evaluations of female leaders and removes areas where women are vulnerable to bias judgment (Welbourne, 2005). If companies are able to objectively define how evaluation criteria will be weighted in advance, women will be evaluated the same way men are, eliminating the possibility of gender bias to come into play at women's disadvantage (Welbourne, 2005). In order to ensure a high level of objectivity, companies should implement a system of checks and balances to safeguard against stereotypic gender bias (Welbourne, 2005).

WellPoint, Inc. is a great example of a company that has been successful in minimizing gender bias in the workplace in succession planning decisions in their "Talent Calibration Sessions" (Beck, 2005). At these yearly meetings, summary profiles of leadership candidates inside the company are reviewed by a group of supervisors to

generate top candidates for key leadership positions or special assignments (Beck, 2005). These top candidates are chosen by teams of executives who each identify and present specific individuals as succession candidates at the “Talent Calibration Sessions” (Beck, 2005). Together, the executives present feedback on each of the candidates and collaborate on the development of identified succession candidates (Beck, 2005). One of the main goals of the WellPoint, Inc. executives at these “Talent Calibration Sessions” is to eliminate bias in succession planning decisions by challenging each other about assessments and recommendations and then “calibrating” their ratings accordingly (Beck, 2005). This process ensures that the company meets its strategic objectives while fully engaging diverse talent in support of its common mission (Beck, 2005). Objectivity in performance evaluations and implementing a system of checks and balances in the workplace is the best way to ensure that gender discrimination and bias are eliminated in decision making processes.

Additionally, companies can work to educate managers and employees about gender stereotyping to remove gender discrimination against females. By educating employees and managers about stereotyping processes, employees are able to avoid their participation in these processes (Oskamp, 2000). Because such stereotyping processes are normally subconscious, it is important to teach employees techniques to override automatic tendencies to use gender stereotypes (Oskamp, 2000). It is imperative that companies encourage their employees to use actual experiences and interactions with their co-workers to better understand their co-workers instead of using existing gender stereotypes to make assumptions about their co-workers. If companies are able to teach their employees to recognize conditions that place them at risk for stereotyping,

employees will better be able to prevent these processes from occurring (Oskamp, 2000). Programs that increase awareness of gender stereotyping will give employees opportunities to “practice” interacting with people who are different from themselves; this also has the external benefit of exposing employees to other genders and ethnicities, thus increasing workplace diversity (Oskamp, 2000).

In order to avoid stereotyping in the workplace, the research and development community at Corning, Inc. seeks to create an inclusive culture through skill-building (Oshiotse, 2005). Corning’s leadership team places a strong emphasis on reducing unintended gender stereotyping in the workplace as it is essential to the organization’s goal of leveraging the full potential and creativity of its employees to eliminate gender bias in the company (Oshiotse, 2005). In order to avoid stereotype-based snap judgments, Corning teaches their employees about stereotypes and their automatic influence on how people perceive each other in experimental, small-group settings where employees learn and practice critical inter-personal skills (Oshiotse, 2005). These skill practice groups maximize employee exposure to co-workers who differ from themselves from gender and race to organizational status (Oshiotse, 2005). Companies can reduce gender bias and discrimination against female leaders by educating their employees about the dangers of gender stereotyping in the workplace.

By showcasing the success of female leaders in the workplace, organizations can increase employees’ familiarity with successful women in management positions and thus, make female leaders less of an anomaly and more widely accepted. This technique is especially effective in stereotypically masculine and male-dominated fields where

female leaders are uncommon and therefore more vulnerable to stereotyping (Welbourne, 2005). Showcasing successful female leaders in the workplace ensures that employees are continually exposed to information that doesn't conform to their pre-conceived stereotypes, thus decreasing the chance of people using stereotypes to make judgments about their fellow co-workers (Welbourne, 2005).

In order to counter-stereotypical portrayals of women in the traditionally male-dominated manufacturing industry, Georgia Pacific Corporation initiated the "Women of Achievement" award to highlight the contributions of women at the company (Reeves, 2005). Georgia Pacific's goal in recognizing how much women's problem-solving expertise has benefited the organization is to counteract any stereotypical beliefs about women that could exist (Reeves, 2005). The achievement award acts as a defense against gender stereotyping by consistently recognizing women's achievements to serve as a concrete reminder of women's ability to deliver results, portraying them in a counter-stereotypical light (Reeves, 2005). The award criteria also set extremely high standards to ensure the credibility and legitimacy of the award as a powerful testament to the value of women's contributions to the company (Reeves, 2005). Finally, the award has extremely wide exposure as it is a company-wide recognition tool, thus it serves as a highly visible platform to show the bottom-line impact of women's contributions to the company (Reeves, 2005). By recognizing and rewarding the success of female leaders in the workplace, the idea of females in leadership positions is more in line with the status quo, thus decreasing the taboo sentiments associated with females in management positions. This not only works to decrease gender discrimination and bias against female leaders,

but also encourages women to attain leadership and management positions in the workplace.

In addition to eliminating gender stereotypes in the workplace, racial and cultural stereotypes must also be addressed as female minorities face a double dose of discrimination as leaders in the workplace. Many companies have been awarded for their initiatives to eliminate not just gender, but racial discrimination, in the workplace through leadership development conferences, networking events, and support groups for female leaders. PepsiCo, Inc. won the Catalyst Award in 2007 for their *Women of Color Multicultural Alliance* program, a strategic support and resource group focused on attracting, retaining, and developing women of color in middle and senior management positions at PepsiCo (Catalyst, 2007). The alliance has four key goals: enlisting support and awareness, building a sense of community, educating and developing, and increasing representations and improving retention (Catalyst, 2007). PepsiCo also has a program called “Power Pairs,” an initiative that builds authentic relationships for women of color through facilitated dialogues between employees and managers; these relationships help female minority leaders looking for advancement opportunities in the workplace by having a mentor or role model figure to look up to (Catalyst, 2007). PepsiCo’s alliance has been extremely successful; it has “created a culture of authenticity and honesty that permeates relationships among women of color and peers and managers, calls attention to the unique experiences and needs of working women of color, and showcases workplace dynamics and solutions related to the intersection of gender and race” (Catalyst, 2007). The numbers speak for themselves: in the four year after the initiative was introduced, women of color in senior manager, director, and VP level positions increased from 4% to

6.8%; additionally, the turnover rate of women of color that participated in “Power Pairs” is half of those who did not participate (Catalyst, 2007). This emphasis on racial discrimination in addition to gender discrimination is important to bring to light in order to remove bias judgments made about women in the workplace. By removing this obstacle, female leaders are sure to become more prominent in management positions.

Conclusion

Psychological differences in communication styles and influence tactics between men and women have caused leadership style differences to emerge between male and female leaders. These differences often create gender stereotypes portraying female’s leadership skills and abilities in a negative light, thus making it hard for women to find success in management positions. In order to eliminate gender stereotyping and bias, companies must proactively engage in initiatives that help the advancement of female leaders. If companies are able to remove the roadblocks hindering female leaders from success, there will not only be an increase of female leaders in management positions in the workplace, but companies will also see added benefits that come along with the different leadership styles and skills that women bring to the table. Without promoting and fostering an accepting environment in which female leaders can thrive, organizations are not only discriminating against female leaders, but they are also missing out on female’s unique leadership style contribution.

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