AN ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS OF

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The leadership phenomenon has been researched for decades. It has traditionally examined White male leadership from a White male perspective. As the workplace continues to become more diverse and organizations endeavor to manage diversity, it is important to strive to understand how different racial groups perceive leadership. The purpose of this study was to examine racial differences in perceptions of leadership. Specifically, do Black, White, and Hispanic people perceive leadership differently? It was hypothesized that Blacks would have a greater preference for consideration and initiation personality characteristics, behaviors, and situations, than White or Hispanic participants.

A total of 126 participants (Black, $n = 41$; White, $n = 66$; Hispanic, $n = 19$) completed an informed consent, demographic information sheet, and a Leadership Perceptions Questionnaire. Utilization of analysis of variance statistical analysis yielded no differences between the three groups with reference to preference for consideration and initiation personality characteristics, behaviors, and situations. Furthermore, the Black, White, and Hispanic participants perceived the importance of physical characteristics, demographic characteristics, and intelligence similarly. These results taken together imply strong similarities between the three groups. Study limitations, as well as future research directions are also discussed.

RACIAL DIFFERENCES IN PERCEPTIONS OF LEADERSHIP

A Thesis Proposal

Presented to

the Department of Psychology and Special Education

EMPORIA STATE UNIVERSITY

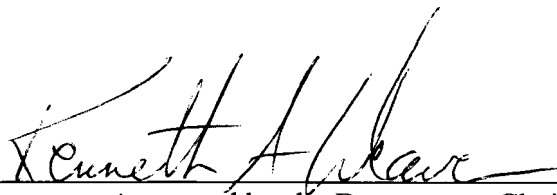In Partial Fulfillment

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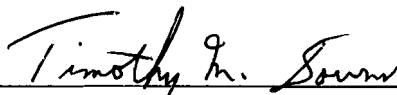
Master of Science

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Identifying the properties that make leaders effective can be found in the earliest

literature: Greek and Latin Classics, the Old and New Testaments of the Bible, and the

writings of ancient Chinese philosophers (Bass, 1990). The leadership phenomenon has

been studied from the perspective of personality characteristics, influence processes, as

well as exchange relationships, as a means to achieve organizational goals (House &

Podsakoff, 1994). While leadership can be and is defined in various ways, Jago (1982)

offers an explanation of leadership as both a process and a property. He describes

leadership as a non-coercive process used to influence, direct, and coordinate the

activities of the members of an organized group toward the accomplishment of group

objectives or goals. As a property, leadership is described as a set of qualities or

characteristics attributed to those who are perceived to successfully employ such

influence. Similarly, renowned leadership researcher Stogdill (1950) considered

leadership to be a process of influencing the activities of an organized group in its effort

toward goal setting and goal achievement.

House and Podsakoff (1994) note a common theme in many definitions of

leadership is the notion that leaders facilitate the movement of a group toward a common

or shared goal. Accordingly, effective leadership has been identified as a critical

component for organizational success (House & Podsakoff, 1994; Yukl, 1989).

Leadership research has examined traits (Hogan, Curphy, & Hogan, 1994; Stogdill,

1974), behaviors (Calder, 1977; Rush, Thomas & Lord, 1977), as well as different

contingencies associated with leadership (Ayman, Chemers & Fiedler, 1998;

Schriesheim, Tepper & Tetrault, 1994). In addition, more recently scholarly

investigations have examined the phenomena of leadership with respect to gender (Eagly

& Johnson, 1990; Eagly, Karau, & Makhijani, 1995; Heilman, Block, Martell & Simon,

1989). A summary of the major theories in leadership literature will illustrate the

progression of this area of research, as well as the improvement in empirical methods

used to explore this dynamic process and deepen our understanding of the complex

nature of leadership. Leadership research has evolved from the investigation of basic

traits associated with effective leadership to intricate theories attempting to account for

not only leader behaviors and traits, but also the characteristics of members, as well as

situations that are deemed favorable for certain types of leadership.

<div align="center">Leadership History</div>

Leadership trait theory. Trait theory was the genesis of modern leadership

research. From the turn of the century until the late 1940s leadership research focused on

identifying the traits or personality characteristics of a leader, or individuals who

influence a group. This body of research investigated physical characteristics (height,

weight, physical stature, and personal appearance); personality characteristics

(introversion-extroversion, dominance, self-confidence, emotional balance or control, and

independence); social characteristics (cooperativeness, interpersonal skills, sociability,

tactfulness, and diplomacy); and personal abilities and skills (intelligence, judgment,

knowledge, and fluency of speech) (Bass, 1990; Stogdill, 1974). In an extensive review

of trait leadership research House (1988) concluded that: (a) traits can, and often do, have

main effects with respect to nontrivial criterion variables such as measures of

performance, effectiveness, emergence and succession rate, and (b) many traits may

possibly interact with situational variables to produce effects on such criterion variables. Simply stated, the traits of a leader have the potential to and may possibly interact with a situation to affect member performance. Intelligence, dominance, and masculinity are three traits that have been identified as being commonly associated with leadership (Lord, DeVader, & Alliger, 1986).

Stogdill (1974) identified task-related characteristics and social characteristics associated with effective leadership. Clusters of characteristics (persistence, responsibility, accountability) are believed to differentiate (a) leaders from followers, (b) effective from ineffective leaders, and (c) higher ranked leaders from lower ranked leaders.

The following is Stogdill's (1974) description of a leader:

> A leader is characterized by strong drive for responsibility and task completion, vigor and persistence in pursuit of goal, venturesomeness and originality in problem solving, drive to exercise, initiative in social situations, self-confidence and sense of personal identity, willingness to accept consequences of decision and action, readiness to absorb interpersonal stress, willingness to tolerate frustration and delay, ability to influence other person's behavior and capacity to structure social interaction systems to the purpose at hand. (p. 81)

Leadership behavior theory. After trait theory, the next wave of leadership research, from the early 1950s to the late 1960s, focused on the behaviors of leaders. Behavior research has furthered our understanding by identifying the types of behaviors effective leaders exhibit (Calder, 1977; Rush et al., 1977). Leadership behaviors are commonly categorized along two basic dimensions: initiating structure and consideration (Stogdill, 1974).

Initiating structure is associated with a task-orientation or concern for organizational tasks. Consideration, on the other hand, is associated with those behaviors that exemplify concern for the individual and interpersonal relationships. Leadership behavior theories propose that effective leaders exhibit a combination of initiation and consideration behaviors and are able to address both organizational tasks and human concerns. In addition, House (1988) suggests other behaviors (leader expectations toward followers, participative decision making, goal emphasis and goal setting, contingent reward and punishment, path-goal and role clarification, ideological goal articulation, role modeling behavior, and leader expressions of confidence in followers) are positively related to leadership criterion variables such as leader effectiveness and work group performance. House reports the magnitude of the correlation between these behaviors and criterion variables range between + 0.30 and + 0.50.

Leadership behavior theory was among the first approaches to incorporate psychometric and methodological advances in the social sciences into the operationalization and measurement of leadership dimensions. These theories introduced a rigorous and empirical approach to leadership research. The behavioral theories demonstrated the feasibility of identifying different behavioral dimensions of leadership (House & Podsakoff, 1994) beyond initiation and consideration. Furthermore, describing the behavioral dimensions is a critical element in assessing perceptions of those who are influenced by those behaviors.

Contingency leadership theories. The next body of leadership investigations concentrated on the situations that affect the nature of leadership. Between the mid-1960s and the mid- to late 1970s leadership research began to recognize the potential

moderating effect situational variables might have on the relationships between leader traits or behaviors and subordinate outcome variables (i.e., performance) (House & Podsakoff, 1994). Contingency theories mark the advent of leadership research evolution into a more comprehensive reflection of the multi-faced dynamic process. This body of research attempted to account for some of the variables that naturally occur in real world leadership situations.

Fiedler (1967) examined leadership styles and behaviors and proposed a contingency model of leadership, least preferred coworker (LPC). This approach assumes: (a) leadership has either trait-based task orientation or a trait-based relationship orientation, (b) these trait based orientations can be measured with the LPC scale, and (c) a leader's effectiveness will depend on the appropriateness of the fit between task or relationship and the favorableness of the situation (House & Podsakoff, 1994). The basic premise of this model is that group effectiveness is the result of the leader's style and the situation's favorableness. In accordance with Fiedler's LPC model, task-oriented leaders tend to be more effective when the situation they face is either highly favorable, or highly unfavorable; and relationship-oriented leaders tend to be more effective when the situation is moderately favorable.

House (1971) later introduced another contingency model, the Path-Goal Theory. It too focused on the interaction of leadership behaviors and situational factors. He proposed that effective leaders motivate subordinates by: (a) clarifying the paths by which the subordinates can attain their goals, and (b) increasing subordinates personal payoffs once these goals have been reached (House & Podsakoff, 1994). The path goal contingency approach further attempts to encompass even more of the variables involved

in the process of leadership. It considers personal characteristics of subordinates, the work environment, and the formal authority system in the organization.

The interaction between leaders and engaged others implies that leadership is a social activity involving leaders, members, and a process of influence. Graen (1976) formulated a conceptual theory of the leader-follower relationship. His Leader Member Exchange (LMX) model emphasizes the role-making and interaction process involved in leadership. Dienesch and Liden (1986) expanded on this model suggesting that because of the differentiated role assumption of organization members some will be in an 'in group' and others will be in an 'out group' and consequently, the leader member exchange will vary according to group membership. In addition to group membership, trust, loyalty, subordinate competence (Graen & Liden, 1980), perceived quality of the exchange (Hollander, 1980), degree of mutual influence (Yukl, 1981) have all been found to be factors affecting the LMX. The LMX model takes leadership theory further by offering an even more inclusive theory emphasizing the interaction or exchange component of leadership.

As a whole contingency models enhanced leadership research a great deal with respect to personality characteristics, behaviors and situational variables that contribute to leadership effectiveness. Contingency theories extended behavior and trait leadership theories by exploring the situational factors (leader behavior, goals, interactions) that moderate leader effectiveness. Contingency theories made leadership research more comprehensive by explaining real world variations earlier concepts, such as behavior and trait theories, did not account for.

Outstanding Leadership Theory. Outstanding theories are the latest heavily-researched leadership models intended to account for, and differentiate, leaders who accomplish outstanding achievements from ordinary leaders who are either ineffective, or those who meet the position requirements, but do not make outstanding achievements (House & Podsakoff, 1994). This class of theories include charismatic leadership (House, 1977; Conger & Kanungo, 1987), transformational leadership (Bass, 1985) and visionary leadership (Sashkin, 1988). These theories delve further into the leadership phenomenon to consider affective (emotional) consequences of leadership. In accordance with House and Podsakoff, outstanding theories examine followers' emotional attachment to the leader, followers' emotional and motivational arousal as a consequence of the leader's behavior, and thus the enhancement of the followers' valences and values with respect to the mission articulated by the leader, followers' self-esteem, trust, and confidence in the leader; and values that are of major importance to follower. Furthermore, these models suggest outstanding leaders have at least three effects: (1) followers' commitment to the leader's vision, (2) followers' self-interest will be sublimated for the sake or the team or organization and, (3) followers will engage in self-sacrificing behavior in favor of the collective vision.

The outstanding leadership theories, being the most recent major leadership investigation, reflect the evolutionary progression of leadership research. These theories investigate the circumstances involved with the ability to transform and motivate followers in the pursuit of organizational goals. The follower's affective state is posited as a critical factor in the leader-follower relationship resulting in commitment to the organization's vision and its goals. While this style has long been associated with

religious persons and not necessarily business persons, General Electric magnate and Chief Executive Officer, Jack Welch is often referred to as a transformational leader.

Leadership Models Summary and Social Perception

The aforementioned theories can be considered cumulative in that later theories have extended and expanded on previous research efforts. Simpler theories from early leadership studies, such as trait theory, have provided a firm foundation upon which later more intricate models have been built, i.e., contingency and outstanding theories. The evolution of leadership research has been a progression from a rudimentary effort to identify traits of leader to empirical endeavors to understand the process in its entirety, to account not only for the leader's characteristics, but also to understand followers and the situation in which the dynamic process occurs.

Inherent in all leadership theories is the fundamental concept that followers must perceive individuals as leaders. Even earlier research efforts, such as trait (Stogdill, 1974), behavioral, attribution (Calder, 1977), and the more recent outstanding (House & Podsakoff, 1994) leadership theories are predicated on the judgment of followers or involved others. Specifically, the more recent theories such as transformational (Bass, 1985) and charismatic (House, 1977; Conger & Kanungo, 1987) place a great deal of emphasis on the role of the perceptions of others in the process of leadership. In the later models of leadership, outstanding theories, leaders are perceived as such when they assist followers in their own self-interests for the sake of the organization (Jung & Avolio, 1998). Additionally, Conger (1993) concedes most conceptualizations of charismatic leadership accept the importance of leader behaviors and personality traits, but also follower attributions and the effects on followers.

Attribution theory. Attribution theory is central to understanding the leadership phenomenon. Attribution is the process by which initially an observer infers the causes of the actor's behaviors (Calder, 1977). Most would agree that leadership itself is a construct or disposition characterized by behaviors (observed and/or inferred) and the effects of the behaviors. In the next stage of the attribution process, the observations are either accepted or rejected as evidence of leadership. Attribution models of leadership accentuate the judgment of the perceiver. Ayman (1993) suggests a key concept in attribution theory is the idea that perceivers use previously learned norms as the basis of judging whether a person's behavior is appropriate.

Similarly, Calder (1977) argues that leadership exists only as a perception based on inferences from behavior and/or its effects. He suggested leadership is leadership only because the actor's behaviors are perceived as being leadership-like. The leadership label is therefore often applied to individuals based on observed behaviors. Also important to note, Calder iterates the fact that the behaviors accepted as evidence of leadership often depend on the particular set of actors involved, meaning the behavior must be deemed apt. Furthermore, he asserts the predominant social class composition of a group of actors and the purpose of the group's interaction renders some behaviors more appropriate than other behaviors. Calder's (1977) research implies the meaning of leadership for a group is represented as a set of beliefs linking leadership qualities to specific behaviors. Moreover, the meaning of leadership depends on the beliefs, values, and experiences of perceivers. Given the process of attribution, inferring characteristics based on the perceiver's experiences, different racial groups might have different perceptions of

leadership. However, little research has actually explored racial group differences and perceptions of leadership.

Similar to Calder (1977), research by Palich and Hom (1992) indicates the leader's behavior has a direct effect on perceptions of leadership. Specifically, they proposed that perception or inference about a leader's power represents a fundamental underpinning of leadership ascriptions. They conducted a study using senior business students. They manipulated leader behavior and leader power, the study results indicated leaders who displayed more perceived prototypical leader behaviors evoked stronger impressions of leadership. Additionally, this research supports other theories that suggest observers must register and encode prototypical behaviors before they classify individuals as leaders. Similarly, Calder contends that to imply leadership, an observed behavior must be typical in the sense that it falls within a set of behaviors associated with leadership expectations.

Palich and Hom's (1992) investigation lends credence to the idea that the leader's behaviors and characteristics affect perceptions of leadership. Empirical studies of attribution theory as it relates to leadership (Ayman, 1993; Calder, 1977) suggest an individual's beliefs, values, and experiences also influence perceptions of leadership. In simple terms, these two independent process, the leader's behaviors and the followers' beliefs, values, and experiences, come together and lead to the ascription of the leadership label. Furthermore, those who are perceived as leaders tend to exert greater influence in an organization because leadership perceptions may foster organizational commitment on the part of the followers (House & Podsakoff, 1994).

Lord et al. (1986) conducted a meta-analysis to further examine the relationship between personality traits and leadership perceptions. The validity generalization technique was used primarily because it would allow researchers to: (a) correct for some sources of artifactual variance across studies; (b) provide an estimate of the population effect size, and also (c) provide a test of homogeneity of variance. Twenty-seven studies, dating back to 1929, investigating the relationship between personality traits and leadership were used as the basis for the validity generalization. This comprehensive review of leadership studies led researchers to conclude personality traits are associated with leadership perceptions to a higher degree and more consistently than previous literature indicates. Specifically, they reported three traits (intelligence, dominance, and masculinity) were commonly associated with follower perceptions of leadership.

However, before the leader label is applied evaluation and categorization occur. In an attempt to explain how people judge and/or categorize others, Brislin (1981) proposed people group individuals into different categories for eight reasons: (1) conspicuous differences; (2) familiarity; (3) functional importance; (4) maximizing relative advantage of the in-group; (5) projection and externalization; (6) belief similarity; (7) desirable and undesirable qualities; and (8) salient information. Likewise, it is believed that after people have been placed within a category (e.g., leader or non-leader), the categories are further used to justify and explain behaviors. This concept of judgment and categorization is aligned with the basic assumption of the attribution process that suggests people actively seek out explanations for the behaviors they observe.

Brislin's (1981) explanation suggests people with conspicuous differences, physical or otherwise, may perhaps be at a disadvantage when being evaluated and subsequently categorized. Brislin's theory is consistent with social identity theory (Tajfel, 1982) that postulates, people in general are attracted to similar others. In the context of leadership, this notion emphasizes the importance of the leader's physical and/or other salient characteristics in relation to the follower's perception.

Implicit theories of leadership. Leader behaviors, perceivers' beliefs, impression formation, and evaluation are central concepts of implicit leadership theories (ILTs). An individual's personal constructs are used to make judgments about leadership. The observer's evaluation of the communicator is a direct result of the observer's impression of the communicator (Pavitt & Sackaroff, 1990). The impression and the subsequent evaluation of leadership involves the perceiver's ILT and the leader's leadership-relevant behaviors. ILTs, much like attribution theory, suggest people categorize individuals as leaders if they think the individual behaves or possesses characteristics they associate with leadership.

Much like attribution theory, ILTs propose that group members evaluate leadership based on their impressions of the other's leadership-relevant characteristics (Pavitt & Sackaroff, 1990). Rosch (1978) further proposed that the structure of an implicit theory consists of one or more prototypes. The prototypes represent an individual's notion of an ideal leader.

Leadership Categorization Theory. Leadership categorization theory, much like Rosch's (1978) theory of prototypes, proposes a person's schematic conception of a leader strongly influences how that person will perceive a leader's effectiveness (Nye &

Forsyth, 1991). Likewise a person's experiences, values, and culture will also affect his/her schema of a leader.

Social Perception. Most direct measures of leadership (outside of objective performance statistics) are based on the perceptions of the leader, followers, superiors or observers (Ayman, 1993). Hence, it appears that leadership is effective in as much as it is perceived to be effective by followers or subordinates. Lord, Foti, and DeVader (1984) proposed that people identify others as leaders or non-leaders based on the frequency and nature of displayed leader behaviors. Again, leadership theorists recognize the social influence process involved in leadership (Ayman, 1993; Calder 1977; House & Podsakoff, 1994). Leadership is therefore widely recognized as a process of influence to direct and coordinate subordinates toward organizational goals (Jago, 1982; Yukl, 1989). A member's perception of others, as leaders or non-leaders, affects the degree to which they are engaged or motivated to work and meet goals.

Social perception merely implies that a perceiver's values and attitudes may affect the process of information gathering and retrieval. A particular schema or stereotype regarding leadership can affect the follower's perception of a particular leader (Ayman, 1993). As stated earlier, social perception is inherent in most definitions of leadership. An individual's presumptions about how leaders should conduct themselves, is simply an implied or implicit leadership theory. Hogg, Hains, and Mason (1998) discovered that leaders who were more similar to a preconceived notion of a leader were more readily accepted than a leader who did not match the preconceived notion.

Typically, the leadership in most organizations is dominated by white males. However, the workplace is becoming increasingly diverse. What are the implications for

the white male leader matching preconceived notions of followers who are not white males. Most leadership studies, even many of those conducted with students, have been a white male evaluation of white males. However, as the workforce continues to change, leadership research must also evolve and consider whether a workforce, dramatically different from those of earlier leadership studies, has different perceptions of leadership.

Other studies have also explored the social process of leadership from the perspective of the follower. Meindl (1998) advanced leadership research with the follower-centric idea of the romance of leadership. As the name implies, this model stresses the social construct involved in the process of leading. It heavily emphasizes the subjectivity of leader effectiveness. While leader-centric research (behavior theory) focuses on leader behaviors that cause certain reactions among follower, this perspective seeks to understand the important social processes that occur among followers.

Cherulnik (1995) explored whether the influence of physical appearance on leader emergence is mediated by appearance-related social skills. The results revealed the quality of performance, as measured by observers' judgments and behavioral indicators, was related to their appearance and appearance-related leadership skills. This research emphasis the influence of appearance and further supports the idea of social perceptions as a key determinant of leadership effectiveness.

Globally, researchers (Brislin, 1981; Hofstede, 1984) have investigated cultural factors that influence the content of a person's implicit leadership theory. Regional investigations of work-related values provide extensive evidence that people of different regions have different standards (Hofstede, 1984). Brislin recognized that the role of perceptions, expectations, and attributions are critical factors in addressing many

organizational concerns (i.e., cross-cultural training). At a dramatic pace the world grows more and more connected; consequently, we will continue to see the impact of cultural differences.

Attribution, categorization, social perception and implicit leadership theories all emphasize the perceptions of followers or others involved in the leadership process. These models appreciate the process of ascribing characteristics based upon an individual's values, experiences, and perceptions (culture), and subsequently categorizing individuals based upon certain characteristics and behaviors as well as your beliefs about those characteristics and behaviors. The result of this automatic operation is the formulation of the person's idea of leadership.

Social Identity Theory. In accordance with social identity theory, people are attracted to others who are similar to themselves because this similarity reinforces their self-image (Tajfel, 1982). When examining follower's perceptions it is important to consider the social psychological constructs that moderate perceptions. Consequently, but not surprising, individuals perceive and treat similar others more favorably than those perceived as being dissimilar.

Likewise, social network theory (Ibarra, 1995) suggests that people who share core identities, like gender and race, are likely to form stronger informal ties than those lacking such commonality. This too is a common social phenomena exercised in both professional and personal areas. Dreher and Cox (2000) note that particularly in the United States, Caucasians are more likely to have social contacts with the predominantly Caucasian network of people with power in U.S. organizations. This phenomena impacts organizational dynamics and the organizational socialization process.

Social identity theory (Tajfel, 1982) and social network theory (Ibarra, 1995) combined with research on ILTs, attribution theory, and leadership categorization theory highlight the potential differences in perceptions of leadership. Globally, culture affects work-related values, expectations, as well as perceptions (Brislin, 1981; Hofstede, 1984). It is apparent that leadership research must examine the perceptions of an increasingly diverse followership.

Organizational Dynamics and Culture. Empirical studies of culture and/or race and organizational dynamics are rare. However, the growth of transnational and multinational organizations necessitates such investigations. Gomez, Kirkman, and Shapiro (2000) examined in-group and out-group membership using samples from Mexico and the United States. The Mexican culture was considered collectivistic and the United States culture was considered to be individualistic. In-group membership was operationally defined as members coming from similar backgrounds and as colleagues who were also good friends. Out-group members were described as not knowing each other prior to the project and as coming from different backgrounds. Study results revealed in-group/out-group status matters more to collectivists (Mexican culture) than to individualists (American culture) when it comes to team member evaluations. In addition, findings support the idea that collectivists (Mexican culture) appear to care more about maintenance inputs (consideration) and individualists (American culture) appear to care more about task inputs (structure).

Also studies that have specifically examined values and expectations of leaders from different countries are scarce. However, Ayman and Hong (1992) compared ideal leader expectations of two Korean samples and two similar samples from the United

States. The results revealed country of origin, gender, values and work experience all contributed to differences in images of the ideal leader. In addition, all the factors interacted with each other in predicting the scripts for an ideal leader.

All in all leadership theories that stress the importance of the followers' perceptions (ILTs, leadership categorization theory, social perception theory) have greatly enhanced the study and understanding of the process of leadership. Insight into the follower's perceptions has been a critical contribution in assessing leadership. Examining followers has been a noteworthy attempt to explain an important element of the situational variance in the interaction process of leadership and a central factor in the evolution of leadership research.

Undoubtedly, perceptions of the leader and the leader's effectiveness are subject to an individual's experiences, expectations, and prejudices. In an organizational culture in which minority leadership is rare, perceptions of the leader may be unfavorable because of social perception processes at work (i.e., social identity theory). Morrison (1992) proposes prejudice, a hostile and unsupportive working environment for non-traditional managers, and greater comfort in dealing with one's own kind as critical factors facing minorities. Such issues represent key factors involved in the evaluation of and perception of leadership in a diverse workforce.

<div align="center">Black and White Perceptions</div>

Again, few studies (Gomez et al., 2000) have probed racial perceptions as they relate to organizational dynamics. It is an area of study that warrants further exploration given the efforts to manage diversity in the workplace and the efforts to make organizational leadership more representative. It is important to understand racial

differences and to advocate these investigations to heal or perhaps better understand, not exacerbate, divisiveness, and to strive for organizational cohesiveness. Furthermore, identifying racial differences in perceptions lends credence to the idea that perceptions of leadership behavior may vary by racial or ethnic group, which global research supports (Brislin, 1981; Hofstede; 1984).

Greenhaus, Parasuraman, and Wormley (1990) examined race and organizational experiences. The study sought to determine the relationship between race, organizational experiences, and outcomes. Participants were Black (373) and White (455) managers ($\underline{N}$ = 828) in communications, banking, and electronics organizations. The managers completing the comprehensive survey represented diverse job functions within the three organizations and a wide range of managerial, professional, and supervisory positions. The Black and White participants were comparable in terms of age, organizational tenure, job function, and organizational level.

The study results revealed that Blacks received a less favorable assessment of promotability from their supervisors and furthermore, that Blacks may be excluded from opportunities for power and integration within organizations. In addition, and particularly relevant to perceptual differences, examinations of perceived supervisory support and perceived organizational acceptance also indicated perceptual differences between Black and White managers. Specifically, Black managers reported having less job discretion and lower feelings of acceptance than white managers. Likewise, Blacks reported more dissatisfaction with their careers than whites.

This particular study is important not only because it is a relatively current study, published in 1990, but also because it highlights perceptual differences between Blacks

and Whites in modern organizational settings. The findings here also warrant further investigation of organizational behaviors and perceptual differences between Blacks and Whites.

Borus, Stanton, Fiman, and Dowd (1972) also examined racial perceptions in the U.S. Army. Using the Racial Perceptions Inventory (RPI) investigators sought to ascertain how soldiers viewed their day-to-day Army experiences in terms of race. In addition to demographic information the RPI contains 66 statements depicting different parts of Army life in terms of race. The RPI was administered to one group of 414 enlisted combat arms troops and another group of 57 soldiers composed primarily of men in command positions (ranging from high-ranking field-grade command and staff officers to command sergeant majors). In both groups, Blacks accounted for 25% of the respondents.

In spite of widely different characteristics of the two groups, enlisted combat troop members and high-ranking enlisted members and officers, this investigation found that Black and White soldiers perceived the Army experience in substantially different ways. Furthermore, findings indicate Black soldiers from all levels of the military chain of command seemed to perceive a significantly greater amount of discrimination against them in multiple aspects of Army life, than did White soldiers.

This study demonstrated that Black and White soldiers see many aspects of Army life quite differently. Surprisingly, rank did not moderate the perceptual differences for Black members. Furthermore, it is important to note that the existence of significant differences in perception at multiple levels of the military hierarchy may have a vital impact on effectiveness, as measured by the attainment of organizational goals. In an

organization, such as the military, in which cohesiveness is essential, the implications are disturbing. Moreover, these findings support the idea of perceptual differences between Blacks and Whites.

Other empirical research also supports perceptual differences between racial groups. In 1984, Hecht and Ribeau investigated satisfying ethnic communication styles of Blacks, Whites, and Hispanics. Five hundred and eighty-nine students (Blacks = 168; Whites = 244; Hispanics = 177) at a large southwestern university participated in the study. The intra-ethnic communication of the three groups was compared by sampling conversations involving Blacks talking to Blacks, Whites talking to Whites, and Hispanics talking to Hispanics. A self-report method was used and respondents were asked to recall and describe a recent social conversation with a friend of the same ethnic group.

Discriminant analysis revealed Hispanic respondents were more strongly influenced by the following variables: "the other person genuinely wanted to know me"; "the other person was trying to change how I felt about the subject"; "the look in the other person's eye told me that we wanted similar things"; and "the other person's tone of voice indicated they were talking down to me". The authors noted that the last two items were particularly important for this group.

Satisfying communication for Black dyads was reportedly affected by the following variables: "the other person genuinely wanted to get to know me"; "we talked about something I was not interested in"; "I was able to trust the other person"; "I felt I helped the other person feel better as much as I could"; "the other person misunderstood my intentions"; "I got what I wanted"; and "being with the other person was enough".

The authors noted the item "the other person misunderstood my intentions" was particularly important for this group.

Lastly, satisfying communication for White respondents focused on the following variables: ""I would like to have another conversation like this one"; "the look in the other person's eye told me that we wanted similar things"; and "I was able to release bottled up feelings". The items, "the look in the other person's eye told me that we wanted similar things" and "I was able to release bottled up feelings" were particularly important for this group.

Analyses identified differing ideas of satisfying communication among the three ethnic groups. The authors concluded that for Hispanics, satisfying communication seemed to revolve around nonverbal communication and acceptance of self. In contrast, Black respondent seem to require deeper, more intimate topical involvement, which is seen as intrinsic to the relationship, therapeutic and involving trust. Lastly, White respondents seem to place more stress on emotional aspects, as well as being more future oriented.

This study has been included in this literature review because it offers insight into the area of perceptual differences among the three groups, Blacks, Whites, and Hispanics. More importantly, given the limited amount of organizational behavior research involving Hispanics, this study provides an information source from which to draw. The intra-ethnic communication differences noted in this study serve to possibly further our understanding of leadership perceptions among Blacks, Whites and Hispanics.

Leadership and Race

While leadership research in general has afforded a wealth of exploration and insight into the process of leadership, a noted limitation of past research (Bartol, Evans & Stith; 1978; King & Bass, 1974; Murphy, 1973) is the primary focus on white male leadership as perceived by white male subordinates. With the exception of the more recent gender studies (Butler & Geis, 1990; Eagly et al., 1995; Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Heilman et al., 1989; Powell, 1990), white males have been the principal demographic focus of leadership research. There have been a limited number of research studies that have investigated different perceptions of leadership behavior relative to race or ethnicity (Parker, 1976; Ruhe, 1972; Thomas & Littig, 1985). A legitimate explanation lies in the relative absence of minority workers in organizations in the late 60s and 70s when a great deal of leadership research took place. However, recent examinations of race and leadership (Thomas & Littig; 1985) illustrate a still pervasive problem of miniscule minority representation. Congressional Research Service (Public Agenda Online, January 2001) reports low minority representation in the U. S. Congress, (Blacks = 7.3%, Hispanics = 3.6%). Similarly, Korn/ Ferry International, U. S. Glass Ceiling Commission (Public Agenda Online, Jan. 2001) reports dismally low minority membership among senior business executives (Blacks = 0.6%, Hispanics = 0.4%). These recent reports, coupled with the history of minority status in America, necessitate a deeper examination to aid the understanding of the role of leadership perceptions and race. A serious gap in knowledge exists in reference to perceptions of leadership behavior across different ethnic groups.

Earlier research (Bartol et al., 1978; King & Bass, 1974; Murphy, 1973) noted relative few studies have considered black employees in positions of organizational leadership. More recently, investigators still make note that research related to understanding the impact of racial diversity on organizations is scarce (Cox & Nkomo, 1990). Murphy (1973) pointed out that investigating the interactive effects of race in organizations is relevant. Moreover, Fromkin and Sherwood in 1974 speculated that Black organizational leaders would increase and that integrating the organization at all levels should become a primary organizational consideration and a candidate for study.

Early efforts to expand the understanding of Blacks in the organization (Parker, 1976; Ruhe, 1972; Thomas & Littig, 1985) have contributed to our knowledge of organizational behavior. However, the paucity of current research warrants empirical examinations of racial differences in perceptions of leadership. Most of the literature examining race and organizational behavior took place in the 60s, 70s, and early 80s. As the workforce composition has and continues to change dramatically, new research in this area is needed.

Bartol et al. (1978) conducted a comparative review of literature that addressed Black and White leaders and concluded ethnic factors are important in leadership settings. Specifically they noted the ethnic identification of the leader, as well as that of subordinates is an important variable. Their critique of leadership studies, as well as the lack of recent investigations as noted by other researchers (Cox & Nkomo, 1990) suggest there is sufficient evidence that ethnic factors affect leadership situations enough to warrant future research.

In light of the role of social perceptions in the evaluation and ascription of labels, it is conceivable that people from different ethnic groups might describe leadership behaviors differently. King and Bass (1974) note that the scarcity of Blacks and Hispanics in managerial positions leaves some doubt about the generalizability of the conceptualizations and theories of effective leadership to Black or Biracial samples. While the theories might indeed be equally applicable, no recent empirical investigations have been conducted to support this contention. Triandis and Albert (1976) noted cultural differences may cause members of a particular culture or ethnic group to behave, and perceive their own behaviors and the behaviors of others in a particular manner.

Several researchers have investigated leadership as it relates to Blacks and Whites (Parker, 1976; Richards & Jaffee, 1972; Thomas & Littig, 1985). Interesting insights have been gleaned from this body of research. While there appears to be differences in leadership perceptions, at this time due to the limited amount of research in this area, it is unknown exactly what those differences are.

In 1985, Thomas and Littig examined the typology of leadership style. Participants were 250 male (121 White; 129 Black) and 280 females (101 White; 179 Black) business administration and management students. The Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (Fleishman, 1969) was used to assess leadership style. A consideration/structure four-fold typology was constructed: (1) high consideration and low structure (HC/LS); (2) high consideration and high structure (HC/HS); (3) low consideration and low structure (LC/LS); and (4) low consideration and high structure (LC/HS). The study revealed a significant relationship between race and leadership typology. Both Black men and women were highly concentrated in the HC/HS typology.

White participants were more likely to use one leadership style, considerate-type behaviors. In addition, White participants were also more likely than Blacks not to utilize any of the consideration- or structure-oriented behaviors having scores indicating a LC/LS typology.

This study showed differences between Blacks and Whites on the two structures most commonly associated with leadership behaviors, initiation and consideration. Blacks' preference for high consideration and structure has significant implications for leadership style preferences of Blacks in the workforce. A high consideration and structure leadership typology emphasizes both care for others and a task/goal orientation. The finding that White participants are more likely to not use consideration or structure behaviors is also an interesting phenomenon. This study necessitates further exploration into differences in leadership style with reference to consideration and initiation.

Parker (1976) investigated differences in four managerial leadership measures (managerial support, goal emphasis, work facilitation, and interaction facilitation) among Black, White and Chicano subordinates of Black and White supervisors in three industrial plants in a midwestern city. Data were collected from 1,093 participants. Of the 1,093 participants, 427 were foreman, of whom 17 were black and three were Hispanic. Upon examining the four managerial leadership measures, significant differences were noted between Black and White supervisors. Black supervisors were ranked significantly higher or more favorably than White supervisors on three of the four managerial leadership measures (managerial support, goal emphasis, and work facilitation). These results indicate differences in perceptions of leadership behavior.

An even earlier study (Richards & Jaffee, 1972) investigated interracial difficulties of Blacks and Whites working together, when Blacks are in a supervisory position over Whites. Three hundred and fifty-six male undergraduates participated in this study. One hundred and eighty served as subordinates, 158 served as untrained observers, and 18 served as supervisors. The subordinates and supervisors were divided into 90 groups. Each group consisted of three men. Forty-five groups had a Black supervisor, and the other 45 had a White supervisor. This experiment used three different measures; (1) performance ratings, (2) the Bales Interaction Process Analysis to assess group interaction, and (3) the Multifactor Racial Attitude Inventory to measure the racial attitude of whites. The results indicated (a) the performance ratings of Black supervisors were significantly poorer than those of White supervisors; (b) subordinates supervised by Black behaved differently than subordinates supervised by Whites, and some of those behaviors appeared to hinder the effectiveness of the Black supervisor; and (c) subordinates with negative racial bias gave poorer rating to Black supervisors than subordinates with liberal racial attitudes. Again, as in other research (Parker, 1976; Thomas Littig, 1985), study results suggest racial differences in perceptions.

Taken together the results of earlier studies, albeit limited and dated, indicate differences in perceptions among Blacks and Whites. The relatively small amount of empirical studies examining racial perceptions underscores the need for current research in this area. It is also noted that while there are very few scholarly investigations examining Black and White perceptions of leadership, there are even fewer studies that explore Hispanic leadership perceptions.

The Workplace in the 21st Century

Understanding and managing diversity will be one of the major challenges for the workplace in the new millennium. It is projected that by 2008, Blacks and Hispanics, together, will compose over 25% of the civilian labor force (Bureau of Labor and Statistics, September 2000). This is an appreciable increase from 18.3% in 1988. Hispanics alone will comprise nearly 13% of the civilian labor force, which nearly doubles the percentage of 1988.

As the workplace becomes more diverse at every level, it becomes increasingly important to better understand the dynamics of race and leadership. The consequences of a lack of understanding in this area will have far reaching implications on leadership effectiveness and hence, workforce performance. In as much, it is important to understand perceptions of leadership across different races. Although some research has investigated the leadership phenomena in relation to Blacks (Parker, 1976; Richards & Jaffee, 1972; Thomas & Littig, 1985), little empirical research has examined Hispanic leadership. However, as Hispanics are widely recognized as becoming the largest minority group in the United States, this area of research will take on new importance.

Notable researchers (Ayman, 1993; King & Bass, 1974; Triandis, 1976) have recognized the need for leadership studies to encompass a diverse perspective. It is projected that the Hispanic population will be the predominant minority in the 21st century. While to date empirical investigations involving or examining Hispanics are scarce, the demographic shift demands such a research focus. Even more critical, organizations worldwide require a deeper understanding of the role of race and/or culture and organizational dynamics as they pertain to leadership.

Increasingly people of different cultures and ethnic backgrounds assimilate, at work, in neighborhoods, and in schools. It would be beneficial to all to better understand leadership from different racial/ethnic perspectives. A principal component in promoting cohesiveness is making every effort to understand differences. It must therefore be realized that exploring differences doesn't necessarily encourage separation. On the contrary, a better understanding of differences might be a key component in maximizing organizational cohesiveness and thus organizational performance.

The Present Study

The purpose of this study is to examine perceptions of leadership behavior among Black, White, and Hispanic people. The specific research question is, are there differences in perceptions of leadership among Black, White, and Hispanic people? Based on previous studies that examined race and perceptions (Greenhaus et al., 1990; Hecht & Ribeau, 1984; Borus et al., 1972) and race and leadership (Parker, 1976; Richards & Jaffee, 1972; Thomas & Littig, 1985), it is hypothesized that Black, Hispanic, and White respondents will have different perceptions of leadership behavior.

The research instrument assessed leadership along five characteristics: (1) physical; (2) demographic; (3) personality; (4) skills/behaviors; and (5) situational. Given the limited amount of current research examining racial differences in perceptions of leadership, particularly with reference to these five factors, some of the hypotheses are exploratory in nature.

In accordance with those five dimensions, the following were hypothesized:

H1 (exploratory): Black, White, and Hispanic participants' scores will reveal the physical characteristics of a leader are important ($\underline{M} > 2.50$).

Pilot study results indicated physical characteristics (well-groomed and healthy) were important factors for successful leadership. In addition, professional image and self-presentation are well-known strategies of influence. However, the lack of empirical investigations examining Blacks', Whites', and Hispanics' perceptions of the importance of these characteristics with reference to successful leadership makes this hypothesis exploratory.

H2 (exploratory): Black, White, and Hispanic participants' scores will indicate demographic variables (criminal history, financial stability, experience, similarity to others, and college degree) are only somewhat important characteristics for successful leadership ($\underline{M} < 2.50$).

Pilot study results indicated demographic variables were not important factors influencing leadership. Although the pilot sample and the study sample are from different populations, students versus primarily working adults over the age of 18, the pilot results coupled with the lack of current literature supporting the importance of demographic variables as determinants of effective leadership permits this exploratory hypothesis.

H3a: Black participants will have significantly higher scores than White or Hispanic participants indicating their perception that considerate personality characteristics (caring, approachable, cooperative, team player) are more important for successful leadership.

H3b: Hispanic participants will have significantly higher scores that White participants indicating their perception that considerate personality characteristics (caring, approachable, cooperative, team player) are more important for successful leadership.

These hypotheses are based on the Hecht and Ribeau (1984) study that revealed Black and Hispanic participants, Blacks more so than Hispanics, preferred more considerate communication styles. Additionally, in the Thomas and Littig (1985) study of leadership typology, Black participants scored significantly higher than White participants indicating a preference by Blacks for a high consideration.

H3c: Black participants will have significantly higher scores than White or Hispanic participants indicating their perception of the importance of a leader being "honest/ethical/ trustworthy".

This hypothesis is based on findings by Hecht and Ribeau (1984) who studied satisfying communication styles of Black, White, and Hispanic students. The authors described satisfying communication styles of Black participants as those "involving trust".

H3d: Black, White, and Hispanic participants will have scores that indicate intelligence is an important characteristic (M > 3.00) for successful leadership.

This hypothesis is based on research by Lord et al. (1986). The authors conducted a comprehensive meta-analysis of leadership and personality trait studies and concluded intelligence was one of the few traits that was found to be significantly associated with leadership perceptions.

H4: Black participants will have significantly higher scores on consideration behaviors (treats members equally, does pleasant things for members, listens, uses members' suggestions) and initiation behaviors (direct others' efforts towards a common goal, informs others of expectations, gets results, maintains performance standards,

handles problems efficiently/effectively) than White and Hispanic participants indicating their perception of the importance of these characteristics for successful leadership.

This hypothesis is consistent with research findings (Thomas & Littig, 1985). In this study Black participants scored significantly higher than White participants indicating a preference by Blacks for a high consideration/high structure leadership style.

H5: Black participants will have significantly higher scores than White and Hispanic participants on the following situational items (having the support of followers and having the support of peers) indicating their perception of the importance of these variables.

This hypothesis is also based on research by Thomas and Littig (1985) and Hecht and Ribeau (1984). Study findings suggests Blacks prefer considerate behaviors (Thomas and Littig, 1985) and considerate communication styles (Hecht & Ribeau, 1984).

The final hypothesis is exploratory in nature. Due to the paucity of research examining differences in leadership perceptions among Blacks, Whites, and Hispanics it is difficult to know which variables, if any, will moderate the differences. However, the following is hypothesized:

H6: Differences in perceptions of the characteristics of successful leadership that exist among Black, White, and Hispanic participants' scores will be significantly moderated by the level of education of the respondents across all five dimensions

CHAPTER 2

METHOD

Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted to determine if perceptions of leadership behaviors markedly different from those assessed by the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) Form XII (Stogdill, 1963) (Appendix A) exist. The LBDQ Form XII was developed over 30 years ago. Although comprehensive in nature, consisting of 12 sub-scales (representation, demand reconciliation, tolerance of uncertainty, persuasiveness, initiation of structure, tolerance of freedom, role assumption, consideration, production emphasis, predictive accuracy, integration and superior orientation), the instrument was designed and validated with populations comprised mainly of white males nearly four decades ago. In light of the drastically different modern work place, i.e., women, minorities, foreign nationals, flattened hierarchical structures and the use of teams, and the increasingly common multinational and transnational companies, as compared to the late 1950s and 60s it is important to look for new characteristics and behaviors that might currently be associated with successful leadership. Furthermore the pilot study was conducted to assist in the instrument development process for the instrument to be used with the actual sample. Pilot participants gave feedback and suggestions on the overall organization and quality of the pilot instrument.

Pilot Participants

A convenience sample of students (N = 49) from a medium-sized university located in the midwest was used for the pilot study. The following demographic

information was collected: age, sex, race/ethnicity, student classification, major/program, work experience, and experience as a supervisor. Twenty participants, average age 24.4 years (SD = 5.6), average work experience 8.35 years (SD = 6.1), and average supervisory experience 2.2 years (SD = 4.5) completed the open-ended survey, Leadership Perception Questionnaire (LPQ) (Appendix B). Twenty-nine participants, average age 23 years (SD = 3.7), average work experience 6.2 years (SD = 3.7), and average supervisory experience 1.6 years (SD = 2.3), answered the closed-ended survey, Leadership Questionnaire (LQ) (Appendix C).

Pilot Instruments

Twenty participants completed an open-ended survey, LPQ (Appendix B) designed to address physical characteristics, demographic characteristics, personality traits, skills and behaviors, and situations associated with effective leadership. The open-ended survey was administered with the hopes that participants would list some characteristics not addressed in existing leadership literature. Twenty-nine participants answered a closed-ended LQ (Appendix C) in which they indicated the importance of 64 leadership variables categorized along the following dimensions: physical appearance, demographic, personality traits, skills/behaviors, and situations. Participants then completed a feedback sheet addressing the quality of instruction, statements, organization, length, font, and the overall quality of the questionnaire. In addition, space was provided for comments and suggestions for improvement.

Procedures

Pilot participants were told the purpose of the study was to examine perceptions of leadership. Participants were given the leadership packet containing a letter explaining

the purpose of the study, an informed consent, a demographic information sheet, either an open-ended questionnaire (LPQ) or closed-ended (LQ) questionnaire with feedback and comments sheet, along with detailed instructions and several options for returning the packet.

Pilot Analysis

The open-ended survey (LPQ) responses were analyzed by sorting and grouping similar answers. The refined list was subsequently compared to characteristics listed on the closed-ended questionnaire (LQ).

The close-ended questionnaire (LQ) data was then analyzed with SPSS. In an effort to shorten the questionnaire, a correlation matrix was used to identify responses tapping into the same construct. For example, all of the demographic variables were correlated with each other, the physical characteristics were correlated with each other, and so on. In addition, the feedback comments and suggestion responses were sorted and grouped according to similarity. Applicable suggestions were incorporated into the instrument for use with the actual study sample.

Pilot Results

Analysis of the open-ended pilot survey revealed such characteristics as physical appearance, intelligence (Lord et al., 1986), charisma (Conger & Kanungo, 1987; House, 1977), communication and organization skills, initiation/structure behaviors (the ability to get things done, the ability to manage people, and being goal-oriented), as well as consideration behaviors (open-minded, cooperative) were all perceived by the pilot participants as important variables that influence effective leadership. Analysis of the closed-ended pilot questionnaire indicated that overall the pilot respondents did not feel

the demographic variables (marital status, wealth, military background) were important variables affecting effective leadership. In addition, consistent with Lord et al. (1986), pilot respondents revealed intelligence was an important characteristic for effective leadership. Furthermore, the feedback comments and suggestions from pilot study participants provided valuable insight for the construction of the study instrument (Appendix D).

The pilot study indicated characteristics not assessed on the LBDQ (Stogdill, 1963) (Appendix A) that should be considered when assessing current perceptions of leadership behaviors (i.e., charisma, creativity, humor, physical appearance, listening, risk-taking, etc.). In addition, participant feedback allowed the development of a study instrument which incorporated suggestions and feedback from a relatively diverse population; average work experience 8.35 years ($\underline{SD} = 6.1$), average supervisory experience 2.2 years ($\underline{SD} = 4.5$).

Study Participants

The study sample consisted 126 participants. Black ($\underline{n} = 41$), White ($\underline{n} = 66$), and Hispanic ($\underline{n} = 19$). Respondents were from various states throughout the United States (Kansas, Oklahoma, Colorado, Texas, California, New Jersey). All study participants had work experience. The following demographic information was collected from participants: age, gender, race, education, industry, position (Tables 1 & 2), and top five leadership characteristics.

Table 1

Sample Age, Sex, and Education Demographics

	Black $\underline{n} = 41$	White $\underline{n} = 66$	Hispanic $\underline{n} = 19$
	$\underline{M}$ $(\underline{SD})$	$\underline{M}$ $(\underline{SD})$	$\underline{M}$ $(\underline{SD})$
Age	40.68 (12.49)	42.77 (10.32)	35.28 (11.05)
Sex			
Male	17	31	9
Female	24	35	10
Education			
Less than high school	1	0	1
High school	9	6	6
Some college	17	18	5
Associate's degree	2	6	1
Bachelor's degree	8	12	2
Master's degree	3	10	4
Beyond Master's degree	0	6	0
Ph.D. or equivalent	1	8	0

Table 2

Sample Industry and Position Demographics

	Black $\underline{n} = 41$	White $\underline{n} = 66$	Hispanic $\underline{n} = 19$
Industry			
Automotive	2	3	0
Travel/transportation	3	0	0
Broadcasting	2	0	0
Banking/Finance	1	1	0
Communications	5	4	0
Information/Technology	3	1	0
Education	2	19	2
Government Civil Service	4	10	3
Grocery	0	1	0
Homemaker	3	1	1
Manufacturing	0	11	2
Medical Health	0	2	1
Military	1	3	4
Retail	0	2	0
Restaurant/Food Service	4	0	0
Other	11	8	4
Position			
Non-supervisory	16	18	6
1st line supervisor	3	9	1
Middle management	3	5	2
Professional	3	26	1
Senior management	0	3	1
Owner	6	3	1
Other	10	2	7

Study Instrument

Based upon the information from the pilot study and the LBDQ Form XII (Stogdill, 1963), the Leadership Perception Questionnaire (LPQ) was developed to assess perceptions of leadership behaviors. The LPQ is a 67-item questionnaire designed to assess five dimensions of leadership: (1) physical – five items, (2) demographic – seven items, (3) personality – 20 items, (4) skills/behaviors – 28 items, and (5) situations – seven items. The instrument employs a 5-point Likert-type scale in which the respondent indicates the importance of each statement on a scale ranging from 5 to 1 (5 = "very important"; 1 = "not important").

Cronbach's alpha score for internal consistency indicates the overall reliability of the five dimensions within the LPQ is .65. The reliability (alpha) for each dimension is as follows: physical characteristics, .82; demographic characteristics, .73; personality characteristics, .89; skills and behaviors, .89; and situations, .84.

The reliability (alpha) for the subset considerate personality characteristics (caring, approachable, cooperative, team player) is .80. Reliability for the subset consideration behaviors (treats members equally, does pleasant things for members, listens, uses members' suggestions) is .72. Reliability for the subset initiation behaviors (direct others' efforts towards a common goal, informs others of expectations, gets results, maintains definite performance standards, handles problems efficiently/effectively) is .83. The reliability for the subset, two situational items (support of followers, support of peers) is .79.

Study Analysis

The study data was analyzed using analysis of variance (ANOVA). Specifically, the three racial groups (Black, White, and Hispanic) and the five dimensions (demographic characteristics, physical characteristics, personality characteristics, skills/behaviors, and situations) were examined for differences between group scores, indicating the importance of leadership characteristics.

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

As the work place celebrates more than 30 years of integration and as minorities

strive for representation at the highest levels of organization, empirical efforts to increase

our knowledge about different perceptions of organizational behavior are important. The

primary purpose of this study was to examine differences in perceptions of leadership

between Blacks, Whites, and Hispanics. Respondents rated (1 = "not important" to 5 =

"very important") the importance of physical, demographic, and personality

characteristics, as well as skills and behaviors and situational items on a five point Likert-

type scale (1 = "not important", 5 – "important). Five sets of hypothesis were made with

reference to those dimensions. Although differences in perceptions were the principal

matter of investigation, some similar perceptions were also hypothesized.

Hypothesis 1

It was hypothesized that Black, White, and Hispanic participants' scores would

reveal that the physical characteristics of a leader are important ($\underline{M} > 2.5$). This

hypothesis was supported. The scores revealed Black ($\underline{M} = 3.10$), White ($\underline{M} = 2.97$), and

Hispanic ($\underline{M} = 3.05$) respondents' perceived the physical characteristics of a leader as an

important element of effective leadership (Table 3). Similarities between the three groups

were further supported by analysis of variance (ANOVA) that indicated the group scores

were not significantly different from each other, $\underline{F}(2,124) = .48$, $\underline{p} = ns$ (Table 4).

Hypothesis 2

It was hypothesized that Black, White and Hispanic participants' scores would

indicate demographic variables (criminal history, financial stability, experience,

Table 3

Means and Standard Deviations for Importance of Physical Characteristics, Demographic

Characteristics and Intelligence

Variable	Black			White			Hispanic		
	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD
Importance of leader's physical characteristics	41	3.10	1.04	66	2.97	.88	19	3.05	1.03
Importance of leader's demographic characteristics	41	3.12	1.00	65	2.88	.86	19	2.63	.96
Importance of leader's intelligence	40	4.30	.76	65	4.03	.85	19	3.95	1.08

Table 4

Analysis of Variance on Perceptions of the Importance of Physical Characteristics,

Demographic Characteristics, and Intelligence

Source		$\underline{df}$	$\underline{SS}$	$\underline{MS}$	$\underline{F}$
Importance of Physical Characteristics	Between Groups	2	2.31	.77	.48
	Within Groups	124	114.50	.92	
	Total	126	116.81		
Importance of Demographic Characteristics	Between Groups	2	3.72	1.24	1.41
	Within Groups	123	108.33	.88	
	Total	125	112.05		
Importance of Intelligence	Between Groups	2	4.75	1.59	.2.17
	Within Groups	122	89.29	.73	
	Total	124	94.04		

Note: All F values were non-significant

similarity, and college degree) are only somewhat important ($\underline{M} < 2.50$) for successful leadership. This hypothesis was not supported. White respondents ($\underline{M} = 2.88$), Hispanic respondents ($\underline{M} = 2.63$), and Black respondents ($\underline{M} = 3.12$) all had scores that indicated demographic characteristics were important ($\underline{M} < 2.50$) (Table 3). ANOVA results revealed the group means were not statistically different, $\underline{F}(2, 123) = 1.41$, $\underline{p} = ns$ (Table 4). This finding suggests similar perceptions about the importance of demographic characteristics.

Hypothesis 3

The third set of hypotheses examined the perceived importance of considerate personality characteristics (Hypothesis 3a-3c) and intelligence (Hypothesis 3d). It was hypothesized that Black participants would have significantly higher scores than White or Hispanic participants indicating their belief that considerate personality characteristics (caring, approachable, cooperative, team player) are more important for successful leadership (Hypothesis 3a). Data were analyzed using a one-way ANOVA. This hypothesis was not supported, $\underline{F}(2, 123) = .19$, $\underline{p} = ns$ (Table 6). This finding suggests Blacks ($\underline{M} = 4.43$), Whites ($\underline{M} = 4.39$), and Hispanics ($\underline{M} = 4.33$) (Table 6) have similar perceptions about the importance of considerate personality characteristics.

Hypothesis 3b. Additionally, it was hypothesized that Hispanic participants would have significantly higher scores than White participants indicating their belief that considerate personality characteristics (caring, approachable, cooperative, team player) are more important for successful leadership. A one-way ANOVA was used to analyze the data. This hypothesis was also not supported, $\underline{F}(2, 123) = .19$, $\underline{p} = ns$ (Table 6). Again,

the results revealed no differences between the groups. These findings also suggests between group similarities.

Hypothesis 3c. It was also hypothesized that Black participants would have significantly higher scores than White or Hispanic participants indicating their perception of the importance of a leader being "honest/ethical/ trustworthy". An ANOVA was used to analyze the data. This hypothesis was not supported. The results suggest Blacks ($\underline{M}$ = 4.68), Whites ($\underline{M}$ = 4.79), and Hispanics ($\underline{M}$ = 4.47) (Table 5) have similar perceptions about the importance of the personality characteristic "honest/ethical/ trustworthy". Further analysis revealed the groups scores were not significantly different, $\underline{F}(2,122)$ = 1.68, $\underline{p}$ = ns (Table 6).

Hypothesis 3d. It was hypothesized that Black, White, and Hispanic participants would have scores that indicate intelligence is an important characteristic ($\underline{M} > 3.00$) for successful leadership. As expected and consistent with previous research (Lord et al., 1986) this hypothesis was supported. Each group, Black ($\underline{M}$ = 4.30), White ($\underline{M}$ = 4.03), and Hispanic ($\underline{M}$ = 3.95) (Table 3) had scores that revealed intelligence is perceived as an important characteristics for effective leadership. Further analysis of the group means indicated the group scores were not statistically different from each other, $\underline{F}(2, 122)$ = 2.17, $\underline{p}$ = ns (Table 4). This finding suggests Black, White, and Hispanic respondents have similar perceptions about the importance of intelligence.

Hypothesis 4

This group of hypotheses investigated the perceived of the importance of consideration and initiation behaviors. Specifically, it was first hypothesized that Black participants would have significantly higher scores than White or Hispanic participants

on the importance of consideration behavior (treats members equally, does pleasant things for members, listens, uses members' suggestions) scores. This hypothesis was not supported. Data analysis revealed the group scores were not significantly different, Black ($\underline{M}$ = 3.96), White ($\underline{M}$ = 4.02), Hispanic ($\underline{M}$ = 4.04) (Table 5), $\underline{F}$(2, 119) = .11, $\underline{p}$ = ns (Table 6). This finding suggests Black, White, and Hispanic respondents have similar perceptions about the importance of consideration behaviors.

Hypothesis 4b. It was further hypothesized that Black participants would have significantly higher scores on the perceived importance of initiation behaviors (direct others' efforts towards a common goal, informs others of expectations, gets results, maintains performance standards, handles problems efficiently/ effectively) than White and Hispanic participants. This hypothesis was not supported. Data analysis revealed group scores were not significantly different, Black ($\underline{M}$ = 4.31), White ($\underline{M}$ = 4.15), Hispanic ($\underline{M}$ = 4.32), $\underline{F}$(2,116) = 1.03, $\underline{p}$ = ns (Table 5). This finding suggests Black, White, and Hispanic respondents have similar perceptions about the importance of initiation behaviors.

Hypothesis 5

This hypothesis examined the perceived importance of various situations. It was hypothesized that Black participants would have significantly higher scores than White and Hispanic participants on the certain situational items (having the support of followers and having the support of peers) indicating their perception of the importance of these variables. This hypothesis was not supported. Data analysis revealed groups scores were not statistically different, Black ($\underline{M}$ = 4.01), White ($\underline{M}$ = 4.10), and Hispanic ($\underline{M}$ = 4.08), $\underline{F}$(2, 123) = .12, $\underline{p}$ = ns. Likewise, this finding indicates similarities between the groups.

Table 5

Means and Standard Deviations for Importance of Considerate Personality

Characteristics, Considerate Behaviors, Initiation Behaviors, Considerate Situational

Items

Variable	Black			White			Hispanic		
	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD
Importance of considerate personality characteristics	41	4.43	.59	66	4.39	.62	19	4.33	.63
Importance of considerate behaviors characteristics	38	3.96	.81	66	4.02	.70	18	4.04	.66
Importance of initiation behaviors	37	4.31	.67	65	4.15	.54	17	4.32	.68
Importance of considerate situations	41	4.01	1.04	66	4.10	.80	19	4.08	.75

Table 6

Analysis of Variance on Perceptions of the Importance of Considerate Personality

Characteristics, Honesty/Ethics/Trustworthiness, Considerate and Initiation Behaviors,

and Considerate Situational Items

Source		df	SS	MS	F
Importance of Considerate Personality Characteristics	Between Groups	2	.14	.01	.19
	Within Groups	123	46.27	.38	
	Total	125	46.41		
Importance of a Leader's Honesty/ Ethics/Trustworthiness	Between Groups	2	1.51	.75	1.68
	Within Groups	122	54.54	.45	
	Total	124	56.05		
Importance of Considerate Behaviors	Between Groups	2	.12	.01	.11
	Within Groups	119	63.56	.53	
	Total	121	63.68		
Importance of Initiation Behaviors	Between Groups	2	.76	.38	1.03
	Within Groups	116	42.78	.37	
	Total	118	43.54		
Considerate Situational Items	Between Groups	2	.19	.01	.12
	Within Groups	123	94.99	.77	
	Total	125	95.18		

Note: All F values were non-significant

Hypothesis 6

Lastly, the final hypothesis stated that differences in perceptions of the

characteristics of successful leadership that exist among Black, White, and Hispanic

participants' scores would be moderated by the level of education of the respondent. This

hypothesis could not be examined because analysis of the previous hypotheses did not

indicate statistically significant differences between Black, White, and Hispanic

respondents: Hypothesis 1 - $F(2,124)$ = .48, p = ns; Hypothesis 2 - $F(2, 123)$ = 1.41, p =

ns; Hypothesis 3a - $F(2, 123)$ = .19, p = ns; Hypothesis 3b - $F(2, 123)$ = .19, p = ns;

Hypothesis 3c - $F(2,122)$ = 1.68, p = ns; Hypothesis 3d - $F(2, 122)$ = 2.17, p = ns,

Hypothesis 4a - $F(2, 119)$ = .11, p = ns; Hypothesis 4b - $F(2,116)$ = 1.03, p = ns;

Hypothesis 5 - $F(2, 123)$ = .12, p = ns

Finally, analysis of the lists of the five most important characteristics for

successful leadership also revealed perceptual similarities between the groups.

Respondents, Black (78%), White (73%), and Hispanic (72%), listed honesty,

communication, intelligence, the ability to work with and manage people, and

competence as characteristics most important for successful leadership.

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

The findings from this study strongly suggest Black, White, and Hispanic

respondents have very similar perceptions regarding the characteristics important for

effective leadership. Some similarities were hypothesized and confirmed, but nearly all

hypothesized differences were not supported. The practical implications of these results

suggest that Black, White, and Hispanic respondents have similar perceptions of

leadership.

Similar Perceptions

Physical characteristics. The hypothesis that Black, White, and Hispanic

participants would perceive being physically fit, well-groomed, healthy, and attractive as

important ($\underline{M} > 2.50$) physical characteristics, as it relates to successful leadership

(Hypothesis 1), was supported. A professional image, self-presentation, or 'looking the

part' are common strategies of leadership and influence. Business students, in particular,

learn early on the importance of appearance. Additionally, researchers (Cherulnik, 1995;

Nye & Forsyth, 1991) suggest physical appearance has a critical role in the process of

perception and attribution. In face-to-face interaction, physical appearance is one of the

first stimuli to provoke the automatic information processing response (Nye & Forsyth,

1991). There is however, a lack of published empirical investigations that examine the

importance of physical characteristics for different racial groups as they pertain to

leadership (Cox & Nkomo, 1990). Similar group perceptions were expected because of

the attributions ascribed (Palich & Hom, 1992) and inferences made (Calder, 1977) based

on physical appearance alone. Leaders are expected to look like a leader or fit an industry specific prototype of a leader (Rosch, 1978), doing so lends credence to the leader figure. Furthermore, Ayman (1993) contends people have beliefs and values that influence whether an individual will be perceived as a leader. It could be argued that the media, both television and film, reflects the values of the dominant culture. In accordance with images seen on television and in film, variables such as being physically fit, well-groomed, healthy, and attractive are highly valued in the American culture, and not surprising, in American subcultures as well, Blacks and Hispanics. As expected, and consistent with earlier research (Ayman, 1993; Cherulnick, 1995; Nye & Forsyth, 1991) and the American values propagated in the media, the findings from this study reveal Black, White and Hispanic participants perceive physical appearance (physically fit, well-groomed, healthy, and attractive) as an important component of successful leadership.

Demographic characteristics. Additional support for group similarities was found in the analysis of demographic characteristics. It was hypothesized that Black, White, and Hispanic participants' scores would indicate demographic variables (criminal history, financial stability, experience, similarity, and college degree) are only somewhat important ($M < 2.50$) for successful leadership (Hypothesis 2). This hypothesis was not supported. Black ($M = 3.12$), White ($M = 2.88$), and Hispanic ($M = 2.63$) participants' scores (Table 3), indicated demographic characteristics were more important' than hypothesized. The group scores for all three groups were not statistically different. This suggests similar perceptions among Black, White, and Hispanic respondents' about the perceived importance of demographic characteristics.

Attribution theory research (Ayman, 1993; Calder, 1977; Palich & Hom, 1992) suggests that the value an individual attaches to a variable would make that variable an important factor affecting perceptions of leadership. Moreover, mainstream America is comprised of a varied mix of people some have a criminal history, financial instability, and only a high school education. It is therefore likely that these individuals do not consider that these characteristics alone render them, or similar others, incapable of effective leadership. Also, it is possible that respondents simply did not perceive the variables, no criminal history, financial stability, a college degree were important or relevant characteristics for effective leadership. This demographic information wasn't collected from respondents, but criminal behavior and financial instability are looked upon as common occurrences, and perhaps Americans are desensitized. Pilot study results also revealed demographic variables were not important factors influencing perceptions of leadership.

Consideration and honesty. Findings from this study suggest Black, White, and Hispanic participants have similar perceptions about the importance of consideration and honesty. Earlier research suggests racial differences exist with reference to the perceived importance of consideration personality characteristics (Thomas & Littig, 1985) and trust (Hecht & Ribeau, 1984). These studies suggest consideration and trust are of particular importance to Blacks, more so than the other groups. Specifically, Thomas & Littig (1985) studied leadership typology preferences with Black and White participants and found Blacks prefer high consideration. This study hypothesized that Black participants would have significantly higher scores than White or Hispanic participants, and that Hispanics would have significantly higher scores than White participants, indicating their

belief that considerate personality characteristics (caring, approachable, cooperative, team player) are more important for successful leadership (Hypothesis 3a-b). This hypothesis was not supported, indicating group similarities.

Furthermore, Hecht and Ribeau (1984) investigated satisfying communication styles of Black, White, and Hispanic participants. Their study found satisfying communication styles of Black participants were those involving trust. It was hypothesized that Black participants would have significantly higher scores than White or Hispanic participants indicating their perception of the importance of a leader being honest/ethical/trustworthy (Hypothesis 3c). Again, study findings reveal group similarities among Black, White, and Hispanic participants regarding the perceived importance of a leader being honest/ethical/trustworthy.

Despite previous research efforts (Hecht & Ribeau, 1984; Thomas & Littig, 1985) that suggested racial group differences in consideration and trust preferences for Black participants. Black participants' scores in this study did not indicate a greater preference than White or Hispanic participants for consideration behaviors or the leader being honest/ethical/trustworthy. Moreover, this characteristic was of equal importance to Black, White, and Hispanic respondents. It could be concluded that the results were as such because people in general have a fundamental belief that a leader should be honest/ethical/trustworthy.

Intelligence. Group similarities were expected on the perceived importance of intelligence. It was hypothesized that Black, White and Hispanic participants would have scores that indicate intelligence is an important characteristic for successful leadership (Hypothesis 3d). This hypothesis was based on research by Lord, DeVader, and Alliger

(1986) that found intelligence to be a personality factor readily associated with perceptions of leadership. This hypothesis was supported. As expected, and consistent with research, Black, White, and Hispanic respondents had scores that revealed intelligence is an important characteristic for successful leadership.

Consideration and initiation behaviors. Findings from this study suggest Black, White, and Hispanic participants have similar perceptions about the importance of initiation and consideration behaviors. It was hypothesized that Black participants would have significantly higher scores on consideration behaviors (treats members equally, does pleasant things for members, listens, uses members' suggestions) and initiation behaviors (direct others' efforts towards a common goal, informs others of expectations, gets results, maintains performance standards, handles problems efficiently/effectively) (Hypothesis 4). This hypothesis was based on a study conducted by Thomas and Littig (1985) in which Black participants scores indicated a preference for both consideration and initiation (structure). Findings from this current study suggest that Black, White, and Hispanic respondents do not perceive the importance of consideration and initiation behaviors differently. This suggests initiation and consideration behaviors are of comparable importance to each group.

Similar perceptions – situations. Again, study findings reveal between group similarities on the perceived importance of these variables. It was hypothesized that Black participants would have significantly higher scores than White and Hispanic participants on the situational items, having the support of followers and having the support of peers, indicating their perceptions of the importance of these variables (Hypothesis 5). This hypothesis was exploratory and based on research (Thomas & Littig,

1985) that suggested Blacks prefer consideration. The results however indicate Blacks, Whites, and Hispanics have similar perceptions about the importance of peer and follower support.

Why so much similarity? Taken together, these study findings suggest Black, White, and Hispanic participants perceive the importance of physical and demographic characteristics, as well as consideration, honesty, initiation, and the importance of peer and follower support, similarly. The case may be that the variables listed on the study instrument, LPQ (Appendix D), are leadership characteristics desired by everyone, regardless of race, perhaps regardless of culture. Decades of leadership research suggest the variables that comprise the LPQ are related to effective leadership (Bass; 1990, Lord, DeVader et al., 1986; Lord et al., 1977; Stogdill, 1974). This being so, the ability to detect differences would be diminished, because perhaps all races desire leaders with such positive characteristics.

Experiential and Perceptual Differences

Without a doubt, Blacks, Whites, and Hispanics have different life experiences, and accordingly perceive many things differently (Borus et al., 1972; Richards & Jaffee, 1972). Social perception research proposes that an individual's perception is based upon his/her experiences (Ayman, 1993; Calder, 1977). In light of this, some perceptual differences would be expected. It therefore seems logical to assume individuals with different experiences would have different perceptions.

Blacks, Whites, and Hispanics may perceive the world in general very differently. It is possible that various stimuli presented to the different racial groups might be interpreted differently. Perhaps it is even common to assume perceptual differences

based solely on race. For example, Blacks, Whites, and Hispanics might interpret an approaching law enforcement officer differently, based on previous experiences with, and personal beliefs about law enforcement officers. Even in an organizational setting, Morrison (1992) asserts, Black managers have different experiences than White managers. Similarly, Borus et al. (1972) found Blacks and Whites in the military perceived things differently. Other researchers as well (Kinloch, 1982; Nkomo & Cox, 1990) suggest Blacks have a vastly different organizational experience than White organizational members.

Taken together, this research (Borus et al., 1972; Kinloch, 1982; Morrison, 1992; Nkomo & Cox, 1990) suggests the possibility of racial differences in perceptions of leadership. The findings from this study do not however support that contention. On the contrary, current study results indicate Black, White, and Hispanic participants have similar perceptions about the characteristics important for effective leadership. The similarities revealed could merely be a reflection of the majority culture dominating the subcultures as Ayman (1993) suggests. Likewise, it could be an indication that people (Black, White, Hispanic) have similar desires and expectations of leadership.

Race, Culture, and Assumptions

Race alone evokes many assumptions. A primary assumption is that racial groups have differences based on different cultures and experiences. This assumption is often made without consideration of the enormous pressure, particularly in the work organization, to assimilate and adopt the values of the dominant culture. Both minority groups, Black and Hispanic, are subcultures of the White majority culture. Ayman (1993) proposes that if a society has strong rules of conduct or norms, individuals within that

region will most likely agree on acceptable behaviors even if they do not hold similar values. The same can be said for an organization. The organization dictates acceptable norms for leaders, as well as regular members, and organizational members must conform. Furthermore, assimilation and conformity to majority group values are expected and are necessary factors for retention in most organizations.

Assumed differences. What assumptions about minority group members lead us to believe, that within the context of the work place, the values of the organization would not dominate? It seems logical that despite different experiences minority members in organizations would still value the leadership characteristics decades of research (Bass; 1990, Lord et al., 1986; Lord et al., 1977; Stogdill, 1974) have found to be essential for effective leadership? Ayman (1993) suggests minority group members in the United States have more similar values to white Americans than do white Frenchmen with white Americans. He goes on to state that people who look different often hold similar values. This study suggests Blacks, Whites, and Hispanics have similar perceptions about the characteristics necessary for effective leadership.

Homogenous Organization

Organizational homogeneity is expected in most organizations. Murphy (1973) noted an argument could be made that racial differences do not exist in the work place because of the monolithic demands of organizational structure and design. Pfeffer (1977) suggests selection and retention procedures, as well as the self-selection process, both work well to ensure organization members are similar on issues deemed important to the organization. Day and Douglas (1999) remark that White-male values dominate organizational behavior and violating these implicit norms may lead to sanctions, formal

or informal. Other researchers (Baldwin, Glazer, Hook, Myrdal, & Podhoretz, 1966) suggest minority members, perhaps more than majority group members, work hard to assimilate and assume the values of the dominant culture. Pinkney (1969) went further and speculated that Blacks tend to over-conform to White middle class standards of behavior. It is therefore conceivable that cultural patterns of the dominant White society have been largely adopted by Blacks, as well as Hispanics, in the United States. Thus, similarities in perceptions of effective leadership, based on these adopted White-male values, would be expected. These studies (Baldwin et al., 1966; Pinkney, 1969) suggest minority organizational members would have organizational values, and thus perceptions of organizational matters, that are similar to the majority culture.

Perceptions of Leadership

This study that examined perceptions of leadership actually investigated the characteristics participants desired, expected, and/or perceived to constitute effective leadership. However, if the organization's culture, or the majority culture dominates and sublimates the other cultures, then similar perceptions would be expected (Ayman, 1993), despite racial differences. The results of this study strongly suggest Blacks, Whites, and Hispanics perceive effective leadership similarly. Findings indicate minority group members have assimilated and adopted majority group values and are perhaps more like the majority group than previously expected, especially with regards to perceptions of effective leadership characteristics.

Albeit one study, combined with other studies examining racial perceptions, perhaps non-published because of non-significant findings, the collective implication is that within the context of the organization, Blacks, Whites, and Hispanics have the

similar perceptions of effective leadership, as would be expected (Ayman, 1993). Or

more importantly, Blacks, Whites and Hispanics, despite their different experiences

within (Kinloch, 1982; Nkomo & Cox, 1990) and outside of the organization, want and

value the same characteristics in a leader.

Implications for Organizations

     Organization members, as a condition of membership, are likely to have similar

values and perceptions with reference to organizational matters. Research supports and it

is often assumed that different values, beliefs, and experiences cause different

perceptions (Ayman, 1993; Calder, 1977), particularly at a societal level. The results of

this study indicate minority organizational members may be more like majority group

members than previously thought. Black, White, and Hispanic participants valued and

had similar expectations of leadership with regards to physical appearance, intelligence.

These findings have important implications for organizational efforts to manage

diversity, suggesting homogeneity among racial groups with reference to perceptions of

effective leadership.

     Race is a very obvious difference between Whites and non-Whites. It is often the

first thing noticed. Additionally, many automatic processes are triggered based solely on

race. It is therefore critical for organizational members, particularly management, to

challenge assumed differences based on race. The study implications suggest that perhaps

a means to understanding racial differences is a realization that there are many

similarities and mutual desires.

Summary

This study is in no way an attempt to minimize racial group differences. Nor is it an indictment of organizational efforts to recognize cultural differences. The primary purpose of this study was to investigate differences in perceptions of leadership by different racial groups. The results of this study suggest negligible racial differences in perceptions of leadership. Findings suggest Blacks, Whites, and Hispanics have similar perceptions of the characteristics that are important for effective leadership. Moreover, results of this study indicate strong similarities between the three groups.

Study Limitations

Several limitations of this study should be noted. First of all, and perhaps most obvious, is the small sample size of the Hispanic group (n = 19). Each analysis revealed Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances, homogeneity of variance, was not violated, and therefore group comparisons could be made. However, a larger Hispanic group would have increased the power of this study, possibly allowing for the detection of differences between the White, Blacks and Hispanics.

Secondly, a stronger research design could have been obtained by matching Black, White, and Hispanic respondents on organization, position, and or level of education. The diverse (age, industry, position) study sample used and the non-significant findings add to the validity of the claim of group similarities. However, a matched design would control for more individual differences and again allowed for better detection of actual differences between groups.

Additionally, the use convenience samples might have contributed to the non-significant results. Although the use of convenient samples is quite common, a random

sample might have provided more response variability and enabled the detection of individual differences.

Lastly, it is important to point out that although developed and used with a pilot sample, the instrument used in the study had not been previously used with a sample of working adults. Furthermore, while it was created to evaluate perceptions of characteristics previously researched and found to be relevant to successful leadership, a more discriminant list of variables may have enabled the detection of differences between the groups.

Future Research

This study found American subculture (Black and Hispanic) perceptions of leadership to be similar to the White-male majority culture. As the world of business becomes increasingly global, it is important to examine perceptions of leadership amongst different cultures throughout the world. Future research should examine similarities, as well as differences in leadership perceptions worldwide and cross-culturally. Of particular interest would be organizations in countries that are closely linked with American business and economy, such as Japan. Investigations of this type could provide valuable insight for multi-national and transnational organizations seeking to understand cultural values and beliefs as they relate to perceptions of leadership, as well as the similarity or variability of perceptions within the work setting. For example, in a trans-national organization, that has its headquarters and operations in different countries, which culture dominates, host country or home-base culture? Or in a multi-national organization with many operations world wide, are the perceptions of leadership as varied as the cultures, or is there a single pervasive organizational culture that

permeates the organizations in each country? Furthermore, if the host culture and organization culture are different, which culture dominates? Ayman (1993) suggests that because of the vastly different cultures, perceptual differences would be expected. Or perhaps as a world economic power, American culture would be expected to dominate other cultures.

Studies such as this indicate that it is necessary for leadership research to expand to encompass different perspectives of leadership, with regards for race as well as cultures worldwide. Leadership research has and will continue to broaden as it rises to the challenge to become more inclusive in an attempt to understand and explain a global organizational dynamics and views of leadership.

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APPENDIX A

Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire

LEADER BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE – Form XII

**Originated by staff members of
The Ohio State Leadership Studies
and revised by the
Bureau of Business Research**

Purpose of the Questionnaire

On the following pages is a list of items that may be used to describe the behavior of your supervisor. Each item describes a specific kind of behavior, but does not ask you to judge whether the behavior is desirable or undesirable. Although some items may appear similar, they express differences that are important in the description of leadership. This is not a test of ability or consistency in making answers. Its only purpose is to make it possible for you to describe, as accurately as you can, the behavior of your supervisor.

Note: The term, "group" as employed in the following items, refers to a department, division, or other unit or organization that is supervised by the person being described.

The term "members" refers to all the people in the unit or organization that is supervised by the person being described.

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DIRECTIONS:

a. **READ** each item carefully.

b. **THINK** about how frequently the leader engages in the behavior described by the item.

c. **DECIDE** whether he/she (A) *always*, (B) *often*, (C) *occasionally*, (D) *seldom* or (E) *never* acts as described by the item.

d. **DRAW A CIRCLE** around one of the five letters (A B C D E) following the item to show the answer you have selected.

> **A** = **Always**
> **B** = **Often**
> **C** = **Occasionally**
> **D** = **Seldom**
> **E** = **Never**

e. **MARK** your answers as show in the examples below.

Example: Often acts as described.. A   B   C   D   E

Example: Never acts as described... A   B   C   D   E

Example: Occasionally acts as described................................. A   B   C   D   E

	Item	A	B	C	D	E
1.	Acts as the spokesperson of the group	A	B	C	D	E
2.	Waits patiently for the results of a decision	A	B	C	D	E
3.	Makes pep talks to stimulate the group	A	B	C	D	E
4.	Lets group members know what is expected of them	A	B	C	D	E
5.	Allows the members complete freedom in their work	A	B	C	D	E
6.	Is hesitant about taking initiative in the group	A	B	C	D	E
7.	Is friendly and approachable	A	B	C	D	E
8.	Encourages overtime work	A	B	C	D	E
9.	Makes accurate decisions	A	B	C	D	E
10.	Gets along well with people above him/her	A	B	C	D	E
11.	Publicizes the activities of the group	A	B	C	D	E
12.	Becomes anxious when he/she cannot find out what is coming next	A	B	C	D	E

A	=	Always	
B	=	Often	
C	=	Occasionally	
D	=	Seldom	
E	=	Never	

13.	His/her arguments are convincing....................................	A	B	C	D	E
14.	Encourages the use of uniform procedures.........................	A	B	C	D	E
15.	Permits the members to use their own judgment in solving problems...	A	B	C	D	E
16.	Fails to take necessary action..	A	B	C	D	E
17.	Does little things to make it pleasant to be a member of the group...	A	B	C	D	E
18.	Stresses being ahead of competing groups........................	A	B	C	D	E
19.	Keeps the group working together as a team......................	A	B	C	D	E
20.	Keeps the group in good standing with higher authority..........	A	B	C	D	E
21.	Speaks as the representative of the group.........................	A	B	C	D	E
22.	Accepts defeat in stride...	A	B	C	D	E
23.	Argues persuasively for his/her point of view......................	A	B	C	D	E
24.	Tries out his/her ideas in the group..................................	A	B	C	D	E
25.	Encourages initiative in the group members.......................	A	B	C	D	E
26.	Lets other persons take away his/her leadership in the group...	A	B	C	D	E
27.	Puts suggestions made by the group into operation...............	A	B	C	D	E
28.	Needles members for greater effort...................................	A	B	C	D	E
29.	Seems able to predict what is coming next.........................	A	B	C	D	E
30.	Is working hard for a promotion.......................................	A	B	C	D	E
31.	Speaks for the group when visitors are present...................	A	B	C	D	E
32.	Accepts delays without becoming upset............................	A	B	C	D	E
33.	Is a very persuasive talker...	A	B	C	D	E
34.	Makes his/her attitudes clear to the group.........................	A	B	C	D	E
35.	Lets the member do their work the way they think best..........	A	B	C	D	E
36.	Lets some members take advantage of him/her...................	A	B	C	D	E

A = Always
B = Often
C = Occasionally
D = Seldom
E = Never

37.	Treats all group members as his/her equals........................	A	B	C	D	E
38.	Keeps the work moving at a rapid pace...............................	A	B	C	D	E
39.	Settles conflict when they occur in the group.......................	A	B	C	D	E
40.	His/her superiors act favorably on most of his/her suggestions.	A	B	C	D	E
41.	Represents the group at outside meetings...........................	A	B	C	D	E
42.	Becomes anxious waiting for new developments..................	A	B	C	D	E
43.	Is very skillful in an argument...	A	B	C	D	E
44.	Decides what shall be done and how it shall be done.............	A	B	C	D	E
45.	Assigns a task, then lets the member handle it.....................	A	B	C	D	E
46.	Is the leader of the group in name only..............................	A	B	C	D	E
47.	Gives advance notice of changes......................................	A	B	C	D	E
48.	Pushes for increased production.......................................	A	B	C	D	E
49.	Things usually turn out as he/she predicts..........................	A	B	C	D	E
50.	Enjoys the privileges of his/her position............................	A	B	C	D	E
51.	Handles complex problems efficiently................................	A	B	C	D	E
52.	Is able to tolerate postponement and uncertainty.................	A	B	C	D	E
53.	Is not a very convincing talker..	A	B	C	D	E
54.	Assigns group member to particular tasks...........................	A	B	C	D	E
55.	Turns the members loose on a job, and lets them go to it........	A	B	C	D	E
56.	Backs down when he/she ought to stand firm.......................	A	B	C	D	E
57.	Keeps to himself/herself...	A	B	C	D	E
58.	Asks the members to work harder......................................	A	B	C	D	E
59.	Is accurate in predicting the trend of events........................	A	B	C	D	E
60.	Gets his/her superiors to act for the welfare of the group members..	A	B	C	D	E

A	=	Always
B	=	Often
C	=	Occasionally
D	=	Seldom
E	=	Never

		A	B	C	D	E
61.	Gets swamped by details..	A	B	C	D	E
62.	Can wait just so long, then blows up................................	A	B	C	D	E
63.	Speaks from a strong inner conviction.............................	A	B	C	D	E
64.	Makes sure that his/her part in the group is understood by the group members..	A	B	C	D	E
65.	Is reluctant to allow the members any freedom of action........	A	B	C	D	E
66.	Lets some members have authority that he/she should keep..	A	B	C	D	E
67.	Looks out for the personal welfare of group members...........	A	B	C	D	E
68.	Permits the members to take it easy in their work................	A	B	C	D	E
69.	Sees to it that the work of the group is coordinated..............	A	B	C	D	E
70.	His/her word carries weight with superiors..........................	A	B	C	D	E
71.	Gets things all tangled up..	A	B	C	D	E
72.	Remains calm when uncertain about coming events............	A	B	C	D	E
73.	Is an inspiring talker...	A	B	C	D	E
74.	Schedules the work to be done...	A	B	C	D	E
75.	Allows the group a high degree of initiative........................	A	B	C	D	E
76.	Takes full charge when emergencies arise.........................	A	B	C	D	E
77.	Is willing to make changes...	A	B	C	D	E
78.	Drives hard when there is a job to be done.........................	A	B	C	D	E
79.	Helps group members settle their differences.....................	A	B	C	D	E
80.	Gets what he/she asks for from his/her superiors................	A	B	C	D	E
81.	Can reduce a madhouse to system and order.....................	A	B	C	D	E
82.	Is able to delay action until the proper time occurs..............	A	B	C	D	E
83.	Persuades others that his/her ideas are to their advantage....	A	B	C	D	E

A = Always
B = Often
C = Occasionally
D = Seldom
E = Never

84.	Maintains definite standards of performance.......................	A	B	C	D	E
85.	Trusts members to exercise good judgments.....................	A	B	C	D	E
86.	Overcomes attempts made to challenge his/her leadership....	A	B	C	D	E
87.	Refuses to explain his/her actions....................................	A	B	C	D	E
88.	Urges the group to beat its previous record.........................	A	B	C	D	E
89.	Anticipates problems and plans for them............................	A	B	C	D	E
90.	Is working his/her way to the top.....................................	A	B	C	D	E
91.	Gets confused when too many demands are made of him/her	A	B	C	D	E
92.	Worries about the outcome of any new procedure................	A	B	C	D	E
93.	Can inspire enthusiasm for a project................................	A	B	C	D	E
94.	Asks that group members follow standard rules and regulations...	A	B	C	D	E
95.	Permits the group to set its own pace..............................	A	B	C	D	E
96.	Is easily recognized as the leader of the group...................	A	B	C	D	E
97.	Acts without consulting the group....................................	A	B	C	D	E
98.	Keeps the group working up to capacity............................	A	B	C	D	E
99.	Maintains a closely knit group..	A	B	C	D	E
100.	Maintains cordial relations with superiors.........................	A	B	C	D	E

APPENDIX B

Pilot Leadership Perception Questionnaire Packet

(Open-ended)

Dear Student,

I am a graduate student from the Department of Psychology and Special Education, in the Industrial/Organizational Psychology program. As part of my thesis I am conducting a pilot study to examine perceptions of leadership.

On the reverse side of this sheet is an informed consent. Please read it carefully and sign the bottom indicating you understand your rights as a research participant. Also attached is a sheet requesting demographic information and a survey about leadership perceptions. Please fill out the demographic information sheet, and then take a few moments to carefully read each question and provide answers that reflect your perceptions of a leader. **There are no right or wrong answers. I am looking for your perceptions of leadership.**

When you are done please fold the packet in half so the return label *(Carla Chatman SL/SMTE, Campus Box 37)* is on the outside and drop the survey in the Memorial Union campus mailbox, the Word Processing campus mail receptacle, Visser Hall, Room 210, or place the packet in the box in the Psychology and Special Education Office, Visser Hall, Room 327. (*Please note the Psychology and Special Education Office is closed 12:00 noon – 1:00 p.m., Monday – Friday.*) **Please return the completed packet by Tuesday, December, 12, 2000.**

If you have any questions please call me at extension 5383 (work) or 341-9988 (home) or e-mail me at chatmanc@esuvm.emporia.edu. Your participation is greatly appreciated!

Thank you,

Carla Chatman
Graduate Student
Industrial Organization Psychology

INFORMED CONSENT

Thank you for participating in this research. In accordance with the policies of Emporia State University, we ask you to read this form carefully and sign in the space provided below indicating that you have read and understand this information.

This is a study about leadership perceptions. Please answer each question openly and honestly about your perceptions of leadership. All the information provided will remain confidential and anonymous. Your name will in no way be associated with your responses. Your signed informed consent letter will be separated from your responses upon receipt of your questionnaire packet. Furthermore, information gathered from this research will be published only in the form of group averages.

It is essential that you understand certain rights that are guaranteed to you as a research participant. First, you can be assured that your responses to the questionnaires will be held in the strictest confidence. Second, your participation in this study is entirely voluntary. Therefore, it is your absolute right to withdraw from the study at any time without penalty.

If these conditions are acceptable, please sign and date this letter in the space provided below. If you have any questions or concerns about the study you may contact me, Carla Chatman, at 316-341-5383, 316-341-9988, or *chatman_carla@stumail.emporia.edu*. You may also contact Brian Schrader, Ph.D., Assistant Professor, Industrial/Organizational Psychology, Emporia State University, *schrader@esumail.emporia.edu* or 316-341-5818.

Again, thank you for participating in this research study.

I have read the information above and understand my rights as a research participant.

_____   _____

Participant's Signature   Date

Pilot
Demographic Information

Age: _____

Sex: ◯ Male   ◯ Female

Ethnicity:

◯ *White*

◯ *Black*

◯ *Hispanic*

◯ *Asian*

◯ *Native American*

◯ *Other* _____
           (Please Specify)

Student Classification:

◯ Freshman

◯ Sophomore

◯ Junior

◯ Senior

◯ Graduate Student

◯ Other _____
           Please specify

Major/Program: _____

Work Experience: ☐ years   ☐ months

Experience as a supervisor: ☐ years   ☐ months

After you have completed the questionnaire please fold the sheets in half so the return label is on the outside, (you may also staple the sheets together). **Please drop the survey and demographic sheet in a campus mailbox,** *Carla Chatman, Campus Box 37,* **or place them in the box in the Psychology and Special Education Office, Visser Hall, Room 327.** (*The Psychology and Special Education Office is closed 12:00 noon – 1:00 p.m., Monday – Friday.*)

Leadership Perceptions Questionnaire

Please read each question carefully. Think of all the people (past or present) that you consider to be a true leader. Think about the characteristics (physical, personal, personality, skills/behaviors, situational) that make these people successful leaders. *If needed, there is additional space on the back of this sheet.*

1. List the physical characteristics a **leader** should have?

2. List the personal characteristics a **leader** should have? *(i.e., married, single, wealthy, educated, etc.)*

3. List the personality characteristics a **leader** should have?

4. List the skills/behaviors a **leader** exhibits? *A leader should have the ability to...*

5. List the situations that make a leader effective? *(i.e., position of power, appointed by people in power, elected by followers, supported by followers, etc.)*

Thank you for your participation!

Once complete, please fold the sheets in half so the return label (**Carla Chatman SL/SMTE, Campus Box 37**) is on the outside. Please drop the packet in the Memorial Union campus mailbox , the Word Processing mail receptacle, Visser Hall Room 210, or place the packet in the box in the Psychology and Special Education Office, Visser Hall, Room 327. (*Please note the Psychology and Special Education Office is closed 12:00 noon – 1:00 p.m., Monday – Friday.*)

Please return the completed packet by Tuesday, December, 12, 2000.

APPENDIX C

Pilot Leadership Questionnaire Packet

(Closed-ended)

Dear Student,

I am a graduate student from the Department of Psychology and Special Education, in the Industrial/Organizational Psychology program. As part of my thesis I am conducting a pilot study to examine perceptions of leadership.

On the reverse side of this sheet is an informed consent. Please read it carefully and sign the bottom indicating you understand your rights as a research participant. Attached is a sheet requesting demographic information and a survey about leadership perceptions. Please fill out the demographic information sheet, and then take a few moments to carefully read each question and provide answers that reflect your perceptions of a leader. **There are no right or wrong answers. I am looking for your perceptions of leadership.** Also, after you have completed the survey, please fill out the *'Feedback and Comments'* sheet.

When you are done please fold the packet in half so the return label *(Carla Chatman SL/SMTE, Campus Box 37)* is on the outside and drop the survey in the Memorial Union campus mailbox, the Word Processing campus mail receptacle, Visser Hall, Room 210, or place the packet in the box in the Psychology and Special Education Office, Visser Hall, Room 327. (*Please note the Psychology and Special Education Office is closed 12:00 noon – 1:00 p.m., Monday – Friday.*) **Please return the completed packet by Tuesday, December, 12, 2000.**

If you have any questions please call me at extension 5383 (work) or 341-9988 (home) or e-mail me at chatmanc@esuvm.emporia.edu. Your participation is greatly appreciated!

Thank you,

Carla Chatman
Graduate Student
Psychology & Special Education

INFORMED CONSENT

Thank you for participating in this research. In accordance with the policies of Emporia State University, we ask you to read this form carefully and sign in the space provided below indicating that you have read and understand this information.

This is a study about leadership perceptions. Please answer each question openly and honestly about your perceptions of leadership. All the information provided will remain confidential and anonymous. Your name will in no way be associated with your responses. Your signed informed consent letter will be separated from your responses upon receipt of your questionnaire packet. Furthermore, information gathered from this research will be published only in the form of group averages.

It is essential that you understand certain rights that are guaranteed to you as a research participant. First, you can be assured that your responses to the questionnaires will be held in the strictest confidence. Second, your participation in this study is entirely voluntary. Therefore, it is your absolute right to withdraw from the study at any time without penalty.

If these conditions are acceptable, please sign and date this letter in the space provided below. If you have any questions or concerns about the study you may contact me, Carla Chatman, at 316-341-5383, 316-341-9988, or chatman_carla@stumail.emporia.edu. You may also contact Brian Schrader, Ph.D., Assistant Professor, Industrial/Organizational Psychology, Emporia State University, schrader@esumail.emporia.edu or 316-341-5818.

Again, thank you for participating in this research study.

I have read the information above and understand my rights as a research participant.

_____   _____
Participant's Signature   Date

Pilot
Demographic Information

Age: _____

Sex: ◯ Male   ◯ Female

Ethnicity: Student Classification:

◯ *White*   ◯   Freshman

◯ *Black*   ◯   Sophomore

◯ *Hispanic*   ◯   Junior

◯ *Asian*   ◯   Senior

◯ *Native American*   ◯   Graduate Student

◯ *Other*   ◯   Other
_____   _____
(Please Specify)   Please specify

Major/Program: _____

Work Experience: ☐ years ☐ months

Experience as a supervisor: ☐ years ☐ months

After you have completed the questionnaire please fold the sheets in half so the return label is on the outside, (you may also staple the sheets together). **Please drop the survey and demographic sheet in a campus mailbox, *Carla Chatman, Campus Box 37*, or place them in the box in the Psychology and Special Education Office, Visser Hall, Room 327.** (*The Psychology and Special Education Office is closed 12:00 noon – 1:00 p.m., Monday – Friday.*)

Leadership Questionnaire

Think of all the people (past/present) that you consider to be a true leader. Think about the characteristics *(physical, personal, personality, skills/behaviors, situational)* that make these people successful leaders. Please indicate how important each of the following characteristics were in making these people successful leaders.

	Very Important	Quite Important	Important	Somewhat Important	Not Important
The physical appearance of a leader is important	O	O	O	O	O
How important are the following characteristics:					
A leader should be tall	O	O	O	O	O
A leader should be physically fit	O	O	O	O	O
A leader should be male	O	O	O	O	O
A leader should be well-groomed	O	O	O	O	O
A leader should be healthy	O	O	O	O	O
A leader should be attractive	O	O	O	O	O
A leader should not be handicapped	O	O	O	O	O
A leader should be masculine	O	O	O	O	O
Personal/demographic variables are important to leadership	O	O	O	O	O
How important are the following personal characteristics:					
A leader should be married (no divorces or separations)	O	O	O	O	O
A leader should have a military background	O	O	O	O	O
A leader should have played competitive team sports	O	O	O	O	O
A leader should have no criminal history	O	O	O	O	O
A leader should have background in formal politics	O	O	O	O	O
A leader should be financially stable	O	O	O	O	O
A leader should have experience in a leadership position	O	O	O	O	O
A leader should have a college degree	O	O	O	O	O
A leader should have a graduate degree	O	O	O	O	O
A leader should be religious	O	O	O	O	O
A leader should have the same religion as the majority of supporters	O	O	O	O	O
A leader should be of the same race as the majority of supporters	O	O	O	O	O
The personality/traits of a leader are important	O	O	O	O	O
How important are the following characteristics:					
A leader should be intelligent	O	O	O	O	O
A leader should be enthusiastic	O	O	O	O	O
A leader should care about others (followers)	O	O	O	O	O
A leader should be creative	O	O	O	O	O
A leader should be flexible	O	O	O	O	O
A leader should be trustworthy	O	O	O	O	O
A leader should be charismatic	O	O	O	O	O
A leader should be dominant	O	O	O	O	O

	Very Important	Quite Important	Important	Somewhat Important	Not Important
A leader should be fair	O	O	O	O	O
A leader should be articulate	O	O	O	O	O
A leader should be assertive	O	O	O	O	O
A leader should have strong character	O	O	O	O	O
A leader should be outgoing	O	O	O	O	O
A leader should be cooperative	O	O	O	O	O
A leader should be confident	O	O	O	O	O
The skills/behaviors of a leader are important	O	O	O	O	O

How important are the following skills:

	Very Important	Quite Important	Important	Somewhat Important	Not Important
Ability to persuade others	O	O	O	O	O
Ability to motivate others	O	O	O	O	O
Ability to make accurate decisions	O	O	O	O	O
Ability to organize	O	O	O	O	O
Willingness to make changes	O	O	O	O	O
Ability to manage conflict	O	O	O	O	O
Ability to direct the efforts of followers towards a common goal	O	O	O	O	O
Acts as spokesperson for the group	O	O	O	O	O
Treats all group members as his/her equals	O	O	O	O	O
Ability to manipulate others	O	O	O	O	O
Lets group members know what is expected of them	O	O	O	O	O
Ability to tolerate delays and uncertainty	O	O	O	O	O
Does things to make it pleasant to be a member of the group	O	O	O	O	O
Maintains definite performance standards	O	O	O	O	O
Permits members to use their own judgment in solving problems	O	O	O	O	O
Ability to handle complex problems efficiently	O	O	O	O	O
Looks out for the personal welfare of group members	O	O	O	O	O
Acts alone in decision making	O	O	O	O	O
Consults the group before acting	O	O	O	O	O
Insists followers follow rules and regulations	O	O	O	O	O
Puts suggestions made by the group into operation	O	O	O	O	O
Takes full charge when emergencies arise	O	O	O	O	O
Takes risks	O	O	O	O	O
The leader's situation is important	O	O	O	O	O

How important are the following situations

	Very Important	Quite Important	Important	Somewhat Important	Not Important
Being in a position to hire, fire, and/or reward	O	O	O	O	O
Being appointed by persons in power	O	O	O	O	O
Being elected by a majority	O	O	O	O	O
Having the support of followers	O	O	O	O	O
Having the support of peers	O	O	O	O	O
Having the support of persons in power	O	O	O	O	O

Feedback and Comments

Your feedback and comments are very important to the process of instrument development. After you have completed the questionnaire, please answer the following questions.

1. The following leadership characteristics were not included and should be considered:

2. The instructions were easy to understand: *Please circle one*   Very easy to understand   Somewhat easy to understand   Confusing

The instructions could be improved by:

3. The concept of leadership is abstract, thinking of people I consider leaders helped me to think about leadership in a concrete manner: *Please circle one*   Very helpful   Somewhat helpful   Not helpful

The following would help participants think about leadership in a concrete manner:

4. The statements were easy to understand: *Please circle one*   Very easy to understand   Somewhat easy to understand   Confusing

The statements could be improved by:

5. The organization of the questionnaire was: *Please circle one*   Logical   Somewhat logical   Confusing

The organization could be improved by:

6. The questionnaire was: *Please circle one*   Too long   About Right   Too short

7. The print font was: *Please circle one*   Too big   About Right   Too small

8. The overall quality of the questionnaire is: *Please circle one*   Good   Fair   Terrible

The overall quality could be improved by:

Additional comments and suggestions (please use the back of this sheet if necessary):

Additional comments and suggestions here:

APPENDIX D

Study Leadership Perception Questionnaire Packet

INFORMED CONSENT

Thank you for participating in this research. In accordance with the policies of Emporia State University, please read this form carefully and sign in the space provided below indicating that you have read and understand this information.

This is a study about leadership perceptions. Please answer each question openly and honestly about your perceptions of leadership. All the information provided will remain confidential and anonymous. Your name will in no way be associated with your responses. Your signed informed consent letter will be separated from your responses upon receipt of your questionnaire packet. Furthermore, information gathered from this research will be published only in the form of group averages.

It is essential that you understand certain rights that are guaranteed to you as a research participant. First, you can be assured that your responses to the questionnaires will be held in the strictest confidence. Second, your participation in this study is entirely voluntary. Therefore, it is your absolute right to withdraw from the study at any time without penalty.

If these conditions are acceptable, please sign and date this letter in the space provided below. If you have any questions or concerns about the study you may contact me, Carla Chatman, at 620-341-5383, 620-341-9988, or *chatman_carla@stumail.emporia.edu*. You may also contact Brian Schrader, Ph.D., Assistant Professor, Industrial/Organizational Psychology, Emporia State University, at 620-341-5818 or *schrader@esumail.emporia. edu.*

A return envelope has been enclosed. Please return this consent form (signed and dated), the completed demographic information sheet and your completed questionnaire.

Again, thank you for participating in this research study.

I have read the information above and understand my rights as a research participant.

_____   _____
Participant's Signature   Date

Demographic Information Sheet

Please answer the following questions. Darken the appropriate circle.

Age: _____   **Sex:** ○ Male   ○ Female

Race: ○ White   ○ Asian
           ○ Black   ○ Native American
           ○ Hispanic   ○ Other _____
                                          Please Specify

Education: ○ Less than high-school   ○ Bachelor's Degree
                ○ High school diploma   ○ Master's Degree
                ○ Some college   ○ Beyond Master's Degree
                ○ Associates Degree   ○ Doctorate Degree or equivalent

In which industry are you currently employed?

○ Automotive   ○ Homemaker
○ Automotive Rental   ○ Manufacturing
○ Broadcasting (Radio/Television)   ○ Medical Health
○ Banking/Finance   ○ Military
○ Communications   ○ Real Estate/Property Mgmt.
○ Computer/Info Technology   ○ Recreation
○ Education   ○ Restaurant/Food Service
○ Entertainment   ○ Retail
○ Government Civil Service   ○ Retired (Please indicate industry)
○ Grocery   ○ Other _____
                                                  Please Specify

In which type of position are you currently employed?

○ Non-supervisory
○ 1st line supervisor
○ Middle management
○ Professional (e.g. teacher, accountant, lawyer, therapist, etc.)
○ Senior management
○ Owner
○ Not Applicable/Other _____
                             Please Specify

Please list 5 characteristics (in order of importance) you feel are <u>most important</u> for successful leadership.

Most important   1. _____
                     2. _____
                     3. _____
                     4. _____
                     5. _____

Leadership Perceptions Questionnaire

Think of leaders *(supervisors, managers, etc.)* <u>within your organization/industry</u> and their characteristics *(physical, demographic, personality, skills/behaviors, situational)*. Mark the appropriate circle ⊗ to indicate your perception of the importance each characteristic as it relates to successful leadership within your organization/industry.

		Very Important	Quite Important	Important	Somewhat Important	Not Important
Physical Characteristics	A leader should be physically fit	O	O	O	O	O
	A leader should be well-groomed	O	O	O	O	O
	A leader should be healthy	O	O	O	O	O
	A leader should be attractive	O	O	O	O	O
	Overall importance of physical appearance	O	O	O	O	O
Demographic Characteristics	A leader should have no criminal history	O	O	O	O	O
	A leader should be financially stable	O	O	O	O	O
	A leader should have experience in a leadership position	O	O	O	O	O
	A leader should have life experience	O	O	O	O	O
	A leader should be similar to others (political/religious)	O	O	O	O	O
	A leader should have a college degree	O	O	O	O	O
	Overall importance of demographic characteristics	O	O	O	O	O
Personality Characteristics	A leader should be intelligent	O	O	O	O	O
	A leader should be enthusiastic/charismatic/outgoing	O	O	O	O	O
	A leader should care about others in the organization	O	O	O	O	O
	A leader should be creative	O	O	O	O	O
	A leader should be flexible/open-minded	O	O	O	O	O
	A leader should be honest/ethical	O	O	O	O	O
	A leader should lead by example	O	O	O	O	O
	A leader should be approachable	O	O	O	O	O
	A leader should be dominant	O	O	O	O	O
	A leader should be goal oriented	O	O	O	O	O
	A leader should be articulate	O	O	O	O	O
	A leader should be assertive	O	O	O	O	O
	A leader should be respectable	O	O	O	O	O
	A leader should be ambitious	O	O	O	O	O
	A leader should be cooperative	O	O	O	O	O
	A leader should be optimistic	O	O	O	O	O
	A leader should value humor	O	O	O	O	O
	A leader should be a team player	O	O	O	O	O
	A leader should be confident	O	O	O	O	O
	Overall importance of personality/traits	O	O	O	O	O

Over ➜

Leadership Perceptions Questionnaire

	Very Important	Quite Important	Important	Somewhat Important	Not Important
Ability to persuade others	O	O	O	O	O
Ability to communicate	O	O	O	O	O
Ability to motivate/inspire others	O	O	O	O	O
Ability to make accurate decisions	O	O	O	O	O
Ability to organize	O	O	O	O	O
Willingness to make changes	O	O	O	O	O
Ability to manage conflict	O	O	O	O	O
Ability to direct efforts of others towards a common goal	O	O	O	O	O
Acts as spokesperson for the organization/group	O	O	O	O	O
Treats all group members as his/her equals	O	O	O	O	O
Ability to manipulate others to accomplish results	O	O	O	O	O
Lets others know what is expected of them	O	O	O	O	O
Ability to get results/accomplish goals	O	O	O	O	O
Ability to tolerate delays/uncertainty/stress	O	O	O	O	O
Does things to make it pleasant for organization members	O	O	O	O	O
Maintains definite performance standards	O	O	O	O	O
Allows members to use their judgment in solving problems	O	O	O	O	O
Ability to adapt to new situations	O	O	O	O	O
Delegates responsibility	O	O	O	O	O
Ability to handle complex problems efficiently/effectively	O	O	O	O	O
Listens	O	O	O	O	O
Consults the group before acting	O	O	O	O	O
Insists followers follow rules and regulations	O	O	O	O	O
Ability to deal with and manage people	O	O	O	O	O
Puts suggestions made by members into operation	O	O	O	O	O
Takes full charge when emergencies arise	O	O	O	O	O
Takes risks	O	O	O	O	O
Overall importance of skills/behaviors	O	O	O	O	O

Skills/Behaviors

	Very Important	Quite Important	Important	Somewhat Important	Not Important
Being in a position to hire, fire, and/or reward	O	O	O	O	O
Being appointed by persons in power	O	O	O	O	O
Being elected by a majority	O	O	O	O	O
Having the support of followers	O	O	O	O	O
Having the support of peers	O	O	O	O	O
Having the support of persons in power	O	O	O	O	O
Overall importance of the leader's situation	O	O	O	O	O

Situations

APPENDIX E

Descriptive Statistics Summary Tables

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Table 7

<u>Descriptive Statistics Summary – Physical and Demographic Characteristics</u>

	Black			White			Hispanic		
Physical characteristics	<u>n</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>
Physically fit	41	2.97	1.35	66	2.64	1.00	19	2.58	1.26
Well groomed	41	4.20	.95	66	3.80	.96	19	4.05	1.13
Healthy	41	3.66	1.04	66	3.36	.943	19	3.16	1.26
Attractive	41	2.05	1.34	66	1.74	.81	19	1.58	.77
Overall importance	41	3.10	1.04	66	2.97	.88	19	3.05	1.03
Demographic characteristics									
No criminal history	41	3.12	1.33	66	3.88	1.18	19	3.42	1.47
Financially stable	41	2.90	1.22	66	2.98	1.12	19	2.84	1.21
Leadership experience	40	3.65	1.14	65	2.98	1.24	19	3.74	1.19
Life experience	41	3.76	1.22	66	3.41	1.01	18	3.33	1.03
Similar to others	40	2.25	1.21	66	1.85	1.04	19	1.53	.70
College degree	41	2.05	1.22	66	2.30	1.29	19	2.47	1.17
Overall importance	41	3.12	1.00	65	2.88	.86	19	2.63	.96

Table 8

Descriptive Statistics Summary –Personality Characteristics

Personality characteristics	Black			White			Hispanic		
	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD
Intelligent	40	4.30	.76	65	4.03	.85	19	3.95	1.08
Enthusiastic	41	3.76	.86	66	3.96	.99	19	3.42	1.30
Care about others	41	4.61	.67	66	4.59	.58	19	4.32	.95
Creative	40	4.00	.82	66	3.89	.84	19	3.63	.90
Flexible/open-minded	41	4.46	.67	66	4.42	.63	19	4.42	.69
Honest/ethical/trustworthy	40	4.68	.66	66	4.79	.51	19	4.47	1.07
Lead by example	40	4.45	.78	66	4.61	.65	19	4.79	.63
Approachable	41	4.44	.78	66	4.50	.71	19	4.37	.83
Dominant	41	2.56	4.32	66	2.50	1.03	19	2.42	1.12
Goal oriented	41	4.22	.85	66	3.79	.85	19	3.84	.96
Articulate	41	3.95	.86	66	3.94	.87	19	3.58	.96
Assertive	40	3.98	.86	66	3.85	.85	19	3.58	1.07
Respectable	39	4.49	.68	66	4.52	.68	19	4.32	.95
Ambitious	41	4.10	1.07	66	3.58	1.11	19	3.47	.96
Cooperative	41	4.29	.78	66	4.26	.85	19	4.11	.81
Optimistic	40	4.25	.81	65	4.23	.95	19	3.79	.86
Value humor	41	3.68	.99	66	3.91	.91	19	3.63	.83
Team player	41	4.39	.80	66	4.22	.89	19	4.53	.77

Table 8 Continued

Descriptive Statistics Summary –Personality Characteristics

	Black			White			Hispanic		
Personality characteristics	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD
Confident	41	4.54	.67	66	4.36	.67	19	4.42	.77
Overall importance	40	4.43	.75	66	4.35	.64	19	4.11	1.05

Table 9

Descriptive Statistics Summary – Skills and Behaviors

Skills and Behaviors	Black			White			Hispanic		
	$\underline{n}$	$\underline{M}$	$\underline{SD}$	$\underline{n}$	$\underline{M}$	$\underline{SD}$	$\underline{n}$	$\underline{M}$	$\underline{SD}$
Persuade others	40	3.35	1.08	66	3.55	.88	19	3.63	1.26
Communicate	41	4.46	.74	66	4.62	.55	19	4.53	.70
Motivate/inspire	41	4.27	.92	66	4.35	.69	19	4.32	.82
Make accurate decisions	41	4.34	.69	66	4.26	.66	19	4.21	.92
Organize	40	4.28	.75	66	4.12	.83	19	4.00	1.15
Make changes	41	4.24	.86	66	4.23	.70	19	4.16	.76
Manage conflict	40	4.30	.94	66	4.33	.71	19	4.42	.90
Direct efforts towards goal	41	4.34	.85	66	4.23	.78	18	4.22	.88
Group spokesperson	40	3.62	1.10	66	3.97	.89	17	3.88	.99
Treats members equally	39	3.87	1.28	66	3.77	1.19	18	4.17	.79
Manipulate others	41	2.09	1.22	66	2.47	1.38	19	3.21	1.27
Voices expectations	40	4.30	.79	66	4.21	.75	19	4.21	.86
Gets results	39	4.31	.80	66	4.30	.72	19	4.42	.77
Tolerates uncertainty	41	4.00	1.05	66	4.02	.85	19	4.11	.94
Make pleasant for members	41	3.83	1.05	66	3.80	1.06	19	3.74	.93
Has performance standards	41	4.20	.78	65	3.82	.90	19	4.26	.87
Lets members use judgment	41	4.02	.99	66	4.24	.75	19	4.16	.69
Adapts	41	4.34	.74	66	4.41	.63	19	4.11	.88

Table 9 Continued

Descriptive Statistics Summary – Skills and Behaviors

Skills and Behaviors	Black			White			Hispanic		
	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD
Delegates	39	4.05	.92	66	4.11	.88	19	4.37	.68
Handles complex problems	40	4.40	.78	66	4.23	.67	18	4.33	.91
Listens	40	4.63	.63	66	4.67	.51	19	4.73	.70
Consults group	40	3.68	.97	66	3.39	.97	19	3.47	.84
Insists rules are followed	40	3.65	1.12	66	3.42	1.07	19	3.89	.94
Ability to manage people	41	4.29	.87	66	4.38	.72	19	4.37	.83
Uses others suggestions	41	3.46	1.05	66	3.85	1.00	19	3.79	1.03
Takes charge	40	4.28	.96	66	4.12	.92	19	4.42	.84
Takes risks	40	3.58	1.34	66	3.62	.89	19	3.42	1.07
Overall importance	40	4.28	.82	66	4.29	.58	19	4.16	1.07

Table 10

Descriptive Statistics Summary –Situational Characteristics

	Black			White			Hispanic		
Situational characteristics	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD
Authority to hire, fire, reward	41	3.68	1.25	66	3.64	1.00	19	3.94	.97
Appointed by power	40	3.13	1.28	66	3.05	1.10	19	3.21	1.27
Elected by a majority	41	3.41	1.38	65	2.95	1.22	19	3.15	1.21
Have support of followers	41	4.12	1.08	66	4.20	.85	19	4.16	.90
Have support of peers	41	3.90	1.14	66	4.00	.89	19	4.00	.82
Have support of power	41	3.98	1.06	66	4.03	.89	18	4.00	1.08
Overall importance	41	3.93	1.01	66	3.74	.85	19	4.11	.74

I, Carla L. Chatman, hereby submit this thesis to Emporia State University as partial fulfillment of the requirements for an advanced degree. I agree that the Library of the University may make it available to use in accordance with its regulations governing materials of this type. I further agree that quoting, photocopying, or other reproduction of this document is allowed for private study, scholarship (including teaching), and research purposes of a nonprofit nature. No copying which involves potential financial gain will be allowed without written permission of the author.

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