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The Effects Of Leadership Training On Inter-Personal And Intra-Personal Development

James Mitchell Perry
University of the Pacific

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The Effects of
Leadership Training
On Inter-Personal
and Intra-Personal
Development

A dissertation
presented to
the faculty of the Graduate School
University of the Pacific
Stockton, California

in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree
Doctor of Education

by

J. Mitchell Perry

June 1980

This dissertation, written and submitted by

J. Mitchell Perry

is approved for recommendation to the Committee
on Graduate Studies, University of the Pacific

Dean of the School or Department Chairman:

Dissertation Committee:

Wm. C. Theimer Jr.

Chairman

M. G. Went

M. S. Davis

W. J. Jew

E. W. Klein

Dated

July 2, 1980

ABSTRACT

The Effects of Leadership Training On Inter-Personal and Intra-Personal Development

This study was designed to assess the impact of leadership training on inter-personal and intra-personal development of middle management in the banking and financial sector. The population under study was chosen from the bank and savings and loan industry in greater California. Sixty-six middle management personnel constituted the sample under study, with 51 branch managers of one financial holding company making up the experimental group and 15 branch managers of another association making up the control group. Both groups were asked to participate in the study and there was no random assignment.

The instruments used to assess the effects of the leadership training were the Individualized Management/Leadership Profile (IMLP) Self- and Supervisor-Rating Scales; the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS); and the Dogmatism Scale (D-Scale). Pre and post data from the IMLP Self-Rating Scale, the IMLP Supervisor-Rating Scale, and the TSCS were gathered from the experimental and control groups. The Dogmatism Scale data was gathered from the experimental group to control for rigidity, and closed-mindedness.

The leadership training program, the Perry Leadership Training Course (PLTC), a four-day, six-hour per day, one-day per month author-composed program, was administered by the author and another independent professional in order to control for experimenter bias. The program rested on the assumption that as leadership skills improve, so does the quality of the leader/follower relationship and also the level of the leader's self-concept. The hypotheses of the study tested this assumption by measuring leadership skills as self-perceptions and perceptions of the leaders' respective supervisors, and measuring self-perceptions of self-concept.

Data analysis was performed using three two-way analyses of covariance with treatment and sex being the independent variables. The post-test scores of the IMLP Self-Rating Scale, the IMLP Supervisor-Rating Scale, and the TSCS were considered the dependent variables, while the pre-tests on those instruments were used as covariates. Analysis of the data of the D-Scale was performed using a one-way ANCOVA with a mean split of high and low dogmatics.

The results of the study showed no significant difference in self-perceptions or supervisor-perceptions on the IMLP Scale. Further, there were no significant differences between self-concept scores on the TSCS. However, there was a significant difference between males and females self-concept scores on the TSCS. The findings suggested that males in this study had a significantly higher self-concept than females, although there was no evidence that the PLTC had any direct effect upon these differences. The findings of the data analysis on the D-Scale showed a significant difference in the experimental group between high and low dogmatics as measured by the IMLP Self-Rating Scale. A conclusion might be drawn that would suggest that high levels of dogmatism might inhibit possible treatment effectiveness that might be more evident should the subjects be more open-minded and more susceptible to change. While there were differences between high and low dogmatics as reflected in the self-ratings of the IMLP Scale, there were no similar differences between high and low dogmatics as reflected by the IMLP Supervisor-Rating Scale or the TSCS. This would suggest that dogmatism had no effect on supervisor-ratings of participants' qualities nor on self-rated self-concept of the subjects. It appears that the PLTC had no overall effect on changing leadership qualities or improving self-concept but there were differences between males and females self-concept and high and low dogmatics which might inhibit effectiveness.

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The Effects of Leadership Training on
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CHAPTER I

Introduction

The concept of leadership is difficult to evaluate. The word itself did not arise until the turn of the 19th century. Since then, according to Gordon (1977), not much research had been done on the phenomenon until the turn of this century. Burns (1978) referred to leadership as the most observed and least understood phenomenon. He maintained there is much to be learned about it from recent research in psychology.

There are many different theories about what makes an effective leader. In one publication, Fiedler (1967) suggested that leadership effectiveness is contingent upon the needs of a specific situation and the qualities of the leader. In this contingency theory, two styles of leadership were identified that are common in all theories: the human relations-oriented leadership style and the task-oriented leadership style. These two styles originated with Barnard (1938). For Fiedler, the key variable in determining which style fits the needs of a situation is the favorability of that situation. Favorability is affected by the quality of the leader/staff relationship. Gordon (1977) shared this opinion as well, and assumed the position that, for effective leadership, both leadership styles must be utilized concurrently. This view was shared by Herzberg (1959), in his two-factor theory of motivation, and by Moment and Zalesneck (1963), who stressed that the effective leader must be both a human relations specialist and a productivity specialist. This theory was corroborated with a study

that validated the notion that an effective leader is both task-centered and people-centered (Myers, 1964).

Miskel's (1974) model of leader effectiveness was similar to Fiedler's, because it was based upon the hypothesis that variables in an individual's leadership style and the organizational climate can be used to predict how effective the leader is in his job. However, measuring these variables has not been done extensively, and research findings are contradictory (Spiess, 1975). Although many people have written on the subject of leadership, Spiess said that some aspects of leadership are still surrounded by confusion and uncertainty. Further, very few of the numerous lists of leadership traits had many items in common.

According to Burns (1978), there are true leaders and power wielders. Power wielders respond to their subjects' needs only to the extent that they have to in order to fulfill their own power objectives, which remain the primary concern. True leaders, on the other hand, emerge from and always return to the wants and needs of the followers. In short, the effective leader mobilized new, "higher" needs in his followers.

Much of the literature on the subject of leadership effectiveness included the notion of the two leadership styles, and the inter-dependence of them. However, there has been little use of valid psychometric norming methods of research in executive ability evaluation (Scissons, 1977). This statement suggests that industrial psychologists are forced to be highly individualistic in evaluation procedures of leadership training and counseling programs.

The most viable model for leadership training courses available at this writing is Gordon's (1977) Leader Effectiveness Training (LET). He contended that the effectiveness of the leader is dependent upon the quality of the leader/staff relationship. This notion has been shown to be viable in a study by Blau (1964). This postulate and several other principles of LET are fundamental to the Perry Leadership Training Course (PLTC). Both LET and PLTC have basic requirements that a leader must possess to be successful. These characteristics are to (1) know his/her objectives and goals, (task-orientation) and (2) to have the ability to motivate people to follow him/her (person-orientation). The PLTC was designed to help actualize and refine these skills, and thereby increase the confidence of the leader and the quality of the leader/staff relationship.

The Problem

Related literature indicated there is limited formal research on the practical methodologies of leadership and confidence training. However, the review previously cited suggested that leadership can be taught. It is evident that there exists a need for further research on the practical methods of leadership training to help validate theoretical models and enrich teaching methods. Specifically, does leadership training actually make a difference on the behavior of the leaders in a way that is evident to themselves? Could leadership training result in behavior changes that are evident to their supervisors? Are there differences between males and females in their leadership ability as a result of leadership training? To what degree does dogmatism prevent changes in leadership behaviors?

Purpose of this Study

The PLTC was developed as a result of a need of a large financial corporation for a course that emphasized management and leadership training, confidence building and utilization of practical tools and application. The need for PLTC developed because of the corporation executives' opinion that other courses available were ineffective, over-priced, and did not allow for application and follow-up. Therefore, the PLTC was developed as a response to a need for a practically-based, experiential leadership and confidence training program. It must be noted here that the PLTC is in reality a confidence training course. It is designed to change behavior and train leadership skills, as reflected in gains in confidence and self-concept. The name "Leadership Training" was chosen for greater understandability by the layman. The purpose of the study is to test the effectiveness of the PLTC method in terms of its residual and applicative value.

Design of Study

This research study involved the training of middle management personnel in the financial sector. The training, referred to as the PLTC, is a 4-day training course consisting of 4 workshops, 6 hours per workshop, one workshop per month, designed to increase leadership effectiveness through the improvement of self-concept and leadership skills. The study tested experimental and control groups consisting of middle management personnel in large financial corporations. Fifty-one middle management personnel of a large financial corporation participated in the experimental group. They received the treatment,

PLTC, and pre- and post-testing. Fifteen middle management personnel in another financial corporation participated in the control group, receiving the pre- and post-testing and no treatment. There was a four-month interval between pre- and post-tests.

The assessment of the effect of the training was done using the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS) (Fitts, 1964), the Individual Management/Leadership Profile (IMLP) Self-Rating and Supervisor-Rating Scales, and the Dogmatism Scale (D-Scale) (Rokeach, 1960). The TSCS measured changes in self-concept and was a self-assessment instrument. The IMLP Self-Rating scale was an instrument developed for this research to measure changes in leadership and confidence levels. The IMLP Supervisor-Rating was used as a comparison measure between the self-ratings of the experimental and control groups and the rating of those individuals by their respective supervisors. The D-Scale measure was used as a blocking variable to explain possible treatment effectiveness, or the lack of it, which could be attributed to the high dogmatism trait.

The research methodology was a quasi-experimental pre-test, post-test control group design. Three, two-way ANCOVAs were used to study the interrelationship and interaction of the independent variables, treatment and sex, with the dependent variables, TSCS, measuring self-concept; and IMLP measuring leadership qualities as rated in self-assessments and supervisor assessments.

The research also measured differences in sex. An equal proportion of males and females was tested in both groups in order that those

differences could be measured. Generally, females in the experimental group were responsible for the operations management and internal workings of their branch. On the other hand, the males were generally responsible for business development and external sales of their branch. Therefore, sex is an important variable in determining differences in internal management confidence versus differences in external sales confidence and risk-taking behaviors.

Definition of Terms

The following definition of terms are used throughout the study:

Perry Leadership Training Course (PLTC): A four-day, six hour per day, one day per month, confidence training course devised by J. Mitchell Perry and used in this research.

Middle management: Personnel consisting of savings and loan and bank branch managers and account executives. These individuals are in charge of a staff of some three to ten people in a branch or division of the main company. They also have a senior supervisor that oversees the operation by geographic region.

Business development/PR, as referred to in the PLTC instrument: refers to the practice of developing new business by external solicitation or internal customer and public relations.

Research Hypotheses

H_{1a} There will be a difference in means between pre- and post-test scores between experimental and control groups as measured by the IMLP Self-Rating Scale.

- H_{1b} There will be a difference between males and females on post-test scores on the IMLP Self-Rating Scales.
- H_{2a} There will be a difference in means between pre- and post-test scores between experimental and control groups as measured by the IMLP Supervisor-Rating Scale.
- H_{2b} There will be a difference between males and females on post-test scores on the IMLP Supervisor-Rating Scale.
- H_{3a} There will be a difference in means between pre- and post-test scores between experimental and control groups as measured by the TSCS.
- H_{3b} There will be a difference between males and females on post-test scores on the TSCS.
- H₄ Participants scoring high on the D-Scale will show less change than those scoring low on the D-Scale.

Limitations of the Study

The study was limited to middle management personnel in financial corporations. The training was given to voluntary participants only. There was no random assignments of personnel to treatment and control groups.

Summary

The introductory chapter of the study presented a statement of the problem to be investigated, the purpose and rationale of the study, definitions of the terms used, hypotheses to be investigated, limitations

of the study and the statistical treatment. In Chapter II, the literature related to this investigation is reviewed. The design and procedures of the study are described in Chapter III. Included is a description of the population of the study, the instruments and procedures used to gather data, the experimental design and the statistical analyses. In Chapter IV, the results of the investigation are presented. In the final chapter, a summary and discussion of the findings and the conclusions and recommendations for further study are presented.

CHAPTER II

Review of Related Literature

This chapter includes a review of the literature related to the study of Leadership Training and its effect on inter-personal and intra-personal development.

This chapter is divided into (a) definitions and conceptualizations of leadership and leadership training, (b) approaches to leadership training including measurements of effectiveness, (c) changes in inter-personal and intra-personal development in relationship to leadership training, and (d) analysis of sex differences in relationship to leadership training.

Definitions and Conceptualizations of Leadership and Leadership Training

As previously stated, the concept of leadership is quite difficult to evaluate. Defined, leadership is having the capacity and ability to lead others, but measuring that variable is not easily done. Despite an abundance of literature on the subject, evaluation studies are few and quite contradictory (Spiess, 1975). Experts cannot even agree on the relationships between a leader's effectiveness and his or her height, weight, age, energy, appearance, dominance, self-sufficiency, and extroversion-introversion. These facts support the notion that it is not simply the traits of a potential leader, but how well they are suited to the needs of a specific situation that determines how successful the leader will be. This concept is shared by many authors including

Spiess (1975) and Fiedler (1967). Fiedler said that research findings on leadership have been inconclusive particularly where concerned with the influence of leader behavior on employee performance and the satisfaction of those attempting to identify and select effective leaders.

Fiedler (1973) developed the "Contingency Theory" for leadership effectiveness which has become a key to the conceptualization of leadership as it has been studied in research. The theory stated that in order for leadership training to work, a proper match between leader and situation must be reached and that a lack of attention to motivation and situation accounts for the fact that most studies have shown that leadership training and experience do not contribute positively to management performance. Thus, results of studies aimed at determining effectiveness of leadership training are generally not expected by the researchers. Fiedler considered the situation to be most favorable for a leader if there were (1) high inter-personal relations, (2) high task structure, and (3) high power in organizational authority. In extremely favorable and extremely unfavorable conditions, the task-oriented leader is the most effective. In situations where the conditions are neither extremely favorable or unfavorable, which includes most situations, the human relations-oriented leader is the more effective.

Gibb (1969) concurred with Fiedler's notion of situational leadership, and suggested that leadership included the expectations of the followers, the nature of the tasks of the group and the conditions under

which the tasks were taken. Therefore, leadership effectiveness is situational. Chemers (1974) further supported Fiedler's Contingency Theory, by again noting that task motivated people perform best with very much or very little control over their situation, while relationship motivated people perform better if the control is moderately high.

A considerable amount of the literature on the subject of leadership has been centered around the concepts of task-orientation and people-orientation. Though Fiedler's research suggested that leadership orientation is situational, most of the authors on the subject supported the notion that an effective leader is both people- and task-oriented. Clark (1969) argued that neither humanism nor efficiency can be achieved if either is valued exclusively of the other on the part of the leader. Further, Halpin (1966) supported that same notion saying that effective leaders are both task-oriented and people-oriented, and suggested that the effective leader must accomplish two factors to be effective: (1) to be a decision maker and accomplish the goals, (2) to be active in group maintenance where trust, mutual respect, warmth, and friendship are key ingredients.

Lavender (1975) concurred with the notion that both task- and people-orientation are necessary for effective leadership. An effective leader must develop foresight, the ability to see things clearly and accurately, and have the ability to translate those visions without camouflage to the followers. This translation will be made easier by establishing high levels of trust, openness, commitment, accountability,

and scope for personal growth and satisfaction.

Bottinger (1975) said leadership and management are both an art which are composed of three requirements: (1) Craft, referring to the cultivation and perfection of inter-personal skills, (2) Vision, referring to imagination and scope for the future, and (3) Communication, which develops inspiration and enthusiasm. Stogdill (1974) and Davis (1972) found four factors evident among effective leaders: (1) Leaders are slightly higher in intelligence; (2) Leaders are more emotionally mature; they exhibit self-confidence, are goal oriented, initiate action, are dependable in exercising responsibilities, and have a drive to succeed; (3) Leaders realize that people are necessary for goal achievement and therefore attempt to communicate with others, tend to be sociable, show consideration for people and seek cooperation; (4) the combination and increasing presence of these traits enhances the probability of effective performance as a leader.

Leadership and Motivation

In the last twenty years concepts of leadership in relationship to sources of motivation in people have taken a different series of perspectives. Research findings in the behavioral sciences led McGregor (1960) to formulate a new theory of management (Theory Y) to replace traditional management theory (Theory X). Theory X assumed that people inherently dislike work, shy away from responsibility, and consequently must be controlled in order to get work done. Therefore, a Theory X leader's job is to direct and control work, using firm authority.

McGregor believed that these assumptions were inadequate or inaccurate for explaining human behavior in organizations. Using social science research, especially the "hierarchy of human needs" as formulated by Maslow, McGregor proposed a new theory of management that assumed that man wants to work, is self-directing, is self-controlling, and accepts responsibility. The leader accepting this notion of motivation would be a Theory Y leader. Therefore, this leader has to create conditions that permit subordinates to achieve their own goals by directing their own efforts toward the success of the organization. In summary, according to McGregor, the effective leader must understand which conditions lend themselves to Theory X management or Theory Y management and act accordingly.

It is clear that Theory X management is similar to task-oriented leadership, and Theory Y is more suited to relationship-oriented leadership. Current literature suggests that the effective leader cannot neglect either of those two orientations. Herzberg (1977) proposed another model of motivation that again supported this notion. In his Motivation-Hygiene Theory, the main emphasis was on the combination of motivator needs which included responsibility, achievement, advancement, recognition, inter-personal relationships, and the nature of the work, and hygiene needs which included supervision, company policies, working conditions, salary, and job security to explain man's motivation to work. Herzberg suggested that too many leaders concentrated on fulfilling the hygiene needs and neglected the motivator needs of the

followers. He said that good leadership and organizational structures are concerned with both hygiene and motivator needs. In Herzberg's model, motivator needs are similar to relationship-orientation (Theory Y) and hygiene needs are similar to task-orientation (Theory X).

Levinson (1973) had another theory of motivation, "psychological man". He contended that most business leaders adopt the "Jackass Fallacy" which refers to the common assumption that rewards and punishments are what motivate people, where the boss is the manipulator of the subordinate, the "Jackass". Levinson said that the most powerful human motivators were not rewards and punishments but the individual's desire to attain his ego ideal, his best self. This ego ideal is what Levinson called "psychological man" and this concept he presented to explain organizational problems where leaders do not respond to the concept of motivating followers.

Current literature suggests that the leader in bureaucratic organizations tend to be more Theory X and authoritarian-oriented. Levinson supported this notion. However, contrary to this hypothesis, findings in research done by Greer (1973) suggested that a fairly constant pattern of attitudes favoring democratic leadership (Theory Y) were found to be held by the more successful leaders. The most significant finding in Greer's research was that leaders who progressed relatively rapidly in bureaucracy tended to be more democratic in their leadership orientations than less rapidly moving managers. Greer's conclusion was that leaders in bureaucratic organizations tended to be more democratic

in leadership orientation than current literature would suggest.

Current Position of Leadership Training Research

Current literature on the condition of research on leadership training suggests that the amount and quality to date has been very inadequate. According to Herbert (1976) leadership research has not dealt with the development of leadership skills and abilities in people, but rather has remained in the theoretical stage. The instilling of leadership effectiveness and the pragmatic application of leadership research are current areas lacking adequate research. This notion was supported by Bowles (1961) who was concerned with the large numbers of training programs that fail to train or fail to be shown to be effective. His explanations for this problem were: (1) training is given to be fashionable, (2) training often takes place in isolation with not enough practical application to the work setting, (3) the training is too gamey and theoretical, and (4) training is not evaluated enough or, if evaluated, it is done on a cursory basis.

Summary

In summary, the literature suggests that though leadership foundations have been extensively developed, there have been limited numbers of quality empirical research studies on leadership and leadership training. Conceptually, the effective leader must be both task-oriented (Theory X) and relationship/people-oriented (Theory Y). However, the research suggests that leadership styles vary according to the situation.

The recurring theme echoed by researchers about leadership and leadership training is that current research lacks adequate controls to display valid and reliable statistical significance. This study is designed to provide quality controls in evaluation of leadership training effectiveness.

Approaches to Leadership Training Including
Measurements of Effectiveness

Current Perspectives on Leadership Training

In a report on a study concerning effectiveness and the future of management training in major American companies, Lundberg, Dunbar, and Bayless (1973) found that management and leadership training is widespread; it is conducted mainly through classroom and on the job teaching; it will continue for the next decade with great popularity; and it is judged largely to be effective. However, current literature suggests that judgments of effectiveness are not necessarily supported by research on the same variables. In a study concerned with management perceptions of the effectiveness of various training techniques and the extent to which these perceptions are based on quality evidence, Blumenfeld and Crane (1973) explored the effectiveness of six training techniques: role-playing, case method, simulation business games, group discussion, programmed instruction, and in-basket. The research found all the techniques were reported to be highly or moderately effective while there was little systematic relationship between perceived positive effectiveness and research reported positive effectiveness. The results of the research

confirmed the need for basing conclusions on information obtained from controlled experiments rather than subjective opinions.

Research continues to show that there are clear differences of opinion concerning the effectiveness of leadership training programs. In a study of the impact of management development programs on attitude formation, Leidecker and Hall (1974) found that middle level managers of today do have positive attitudes toward modern management concepts, but many training programs do not have direct applicability to the job setting. It was their contention that leadership training programs should focus on the skills that will enable the managers to put the concepts to work. However, Gruenfeld (1966) disagreed with the notion that improved training programs will produce better results. Rather, he concluded that management development programs are more likely to achieve their immediate value objectives if greater care is taken to select individuals who (1) are unsure of their adequacy and likely to change, (2) are concerned with inter-personal and intra-personal motives, and (3) prefer social involvement and are more willing to accept change. This concept supports that notion that as dogmatism decreases, program influence increases and thus, effectiveness is more visible.

Leadership training programs have taken many forms. Among them are lecture, laboratory, sensitivity training, T-Group, human relations seminars, and organizational development programs. A review of the literature shows that most leadership training programs, regardless

of technique, follow the previously mentioned concentrations of relationship-oriented leadership, task-oriented leadership, or a combination of both.

Human Relationship-Oriented Training

Human relations training in the area of leadership has concentrated on the heightening and improving of inter-personal skills, with the notion that with the application of these improved skills, productivity and departmental efficiency will likewise improve. In the decade of the sixties, human relations labs took a popular form known as sensitivity training or T-Groups, which was a more intensified and experiential form of inter-personal education.

There was some thought shared by several researchers that as human relations labs became more intensified, there would be more observable behavior changes. Bunker and Knowles (1967) supported this notion in a study comparing behavioral changes resulting from human relations training labs of different lengths. They found that behavioral changes of participants in a 3-week training course on human relations were more overt and pro-active than a 2-week training group which made more passive attitudinal changes. In another study assessing human relations training as an influence on behavioral changes, Newstrom (1973) conducted an experiment to specifically test the effectiveness of human relations training in improving the supervisors' ability to classify managerial problems. A pre-test, post-test control group design was used and the overall findings suggested that human relations training has significant

value for inducing a measureable behavioral change in supervisors.

Other research has stressed the influence of human relations on attitudinal changes rather than the more significant behavior change. Hand, Richards and Slocum (1973) set up an experimental design to analyze change in attitude and behavior that occurred over a 2-year period following a human relations training program. The findings showed that 90 days following the training program, little change in attitude and behavior of managers was observed. However, 18 months later, significant positive changes in attitude existed in the experimental group while there were negative changes in the control group. In a previous study, Hand and Slocum (1972) developed a longitudinal study of the effects of a human relations training program on managerial effectiveness. In particular, the research investigated whether a human relations training program could change attitudes and whether these attitudinal changes were reflected in organizational effectiveness. A control group and experimental group (n=21) and criterion variables, self-awareness and leadership style, were measured before training and 18 months after completion of training. The instruments used were the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire and the Supervisory Behavior Description Questionnaire. The findings showed significant attitudinal and performance changes for the experimental group where there were no significant changes for the control group. Experimental subjects developed a more positive attitude toward the human relations aspects of their jobs and this attitude was reflected in positive changes in job performance.

Bolman (1970) conducted research to compare the human relations laboratory approach versus the lecture approach in training executives. This study involved four groups of business executives participating in a 6-week program designed to increase their competence in dealing with inter-personal phenomena. The control group participated in lectures, discussions and readings while the experimental group participated in T-Group sessions. The results showed that the laboratory training allowed greater effectiveness in the participants' perceptions of themselves and on their behavior. However, there was considerable fade-out of the effects of the training as time passed.

In a study of T-Group effectiveness, Weissman, Goldschmid, Gordon, and Feinberg (1972) examined the effects of self-directed audio-tape encounter group experiences in dimensions of self/ideal-self congruence, creativity and inter-personal need fulfillment. The Semantic Differential, Barron-Welsh Art Scale and the Fundamental Inter-personal Relations Orientation-Behavior Scale were administered to groups of college students, randomly assigned to encounter (n=9) and control groups (n=11). The encounter procedure was effective and results supported the hypothesis which predicted that encounter participants relative to control S's would achieve a higher congruence between the self and ideal-self concepts, seek more complex and imaginative solutions to problems, and become more self-directing in an inter-personal situation.

Task-Oriented Laboratory Training

Laboratory training in the business sector, particularly task-oriented

laboratory training, has been seen to be very effective, according to many of the researchers. Laboratory education is organizational training which combines lecture, group problem solving techniques, experiential role-playing and sensitivity training. According to Buchanan (1969) the values of laboratory training in business organizations are: (1) it facilitates personal growth and development and (2) it accomplishes changes in most individuals which are important in effectively managing organizations. Davis (1967) found that task related training laboratories are seen as very useful particularly if they have three major elements in their organization: (1) Orientation, to present theory and rationale, (2) a 3- or 4-day laboratory, and (3) a follow-up meeting to discuss carry over. Wilson, Morton, and Mullen (1972) studied trends in laboratory education for managers, comparing task-oriented organization training with relationship-oriented sensitivity training. The results of the study to determine perceived worth of different training devices indicated that task-oriented organization training had more impact than sensitivity training for performance of managerial jobs.

Individuals trained by laboratory education methods are more likely to be seen as changing their job attitudes and behavior in the direction of more openness, better self- and inter-personal understanding, improved communications and leadership skills (Dunnette and Campbell, 1970). Bradford and Mial (1967) supported this notion and presented 7 conditions of learning that laboratory training is said to meet: (1) exposure of behavior, (2) feedback, (3) atmosphere, (4) knowledge as a

map, (5) experimentation and practice, (6) application, and (7) learning how to learn.

Empirical Evaluations of Task- and Relationship-Oriented Leadership Training

There were few experimental or quasi-experimental studies to determine the effectiveness of leadership training and among those, many of the results were contradictory. The effectiveness of management and leadership programs can only be one with "controlled" experimental research. When a control group is used, combined with pre- and post-testing, illusions about training effectiveness are reduced to realistic terms (Blumenfeld and Holland, 1971).

In a study to assess the impact of leadership training in a military situation, Mayo and Dubois (1963) conducted research on army petty officers. They were randomly assigned into control and experimental groups of equal size, and the instruments used were before and after supervisor-ratings, self-ratings and peer-ratings. The results showed significant differences of leadership performance and perceptions between the two groups. In a similar study, data was gathered by soliciting the participants and the participants supervisors' perception of improved job performance 12 months after a management development program. The program utilized two Likert type rating scale questionnaires: one a self-rating, and one a supervisor-rating. The results showed a high degree of agreement between the responses of the two questionnaires, and job performance appeared to have significantly improved (Hodge, Anthony, and Swindley, 1976).

Aronoff and Litwin (1971) conducted research in the area of achievement motivation training and executive advancement, in which they described the effects of this training on promotion and raises of middle level managers. Two partially matched groups were used. Sixteen members of an experimental group participated in a one-week motivation training course and an 18 member control group participated in a 4-week management development course. Results of a 2-year follow-up study showed that those in the experimental group experienced significantly higher advancement than the control group. This finding suggests that achievement motivation labs have more influence on advancement potential than lecture-oriented management development classes.

Contrary findings in similar research were obtained by Jurkus (1974). This study was a quasi-experimental design in the evaluation of a 1-week management development program presented to middle management executives from 15 companies in a variety of areas. The experimental group numbered 18 while the control group numbered 51. Criteria for testing were a pre- and post-external criterion measure of attitudes toward training, a pre- and post-external criterion rating of performance by participants' supervisors, and an internal criterion rating of participants performed as a post measure by the instructional staff. Even with the use of a larger than necessary number of people in the control group, which would make it easier to show statistical differences, the results showed: (1) no difference on attitudes toward training, (2) no difference in supervisory ratings, and (3) no relationship between attitudes,

supervisory ratings or ratings by the instructional staff. The results suggested that no change was brought about in the intended direction of the management training. This study provided further evidence suggesting that after-only measures of effectiveness may be indicative of little more than the illusion of having learned.

In another empirical evaluation of a management training program, Sage (1973) attempted to determine whether the training resulted in changes in attitude as measured by self-perceptions and perceptions of others. The sample was taken from sales managers and branch administrators of financial institutions. The results of the research showed that no significant changes took place immediately after the training or after a period of time had elapsed. Sage concluded that there should be investigations to arrive at more definite training objectives in leadership laboratories against which evaluation may be made.

Summary

In summary, there are a variety of approaches to leadership and management training. Among them are human relations training labs, lecture, T-Groups, seminars, and task-oriented training labs. Review of the literature suggests that leadership training tends to revolve around improving inter-personal skills, intra-personal skills, or a combination of both. Empirical evaluations of leadership training programs are varied and somewhat contradictory. It was repeatedly made clear that controlled experimental research was necessary in evaluation of leadership training, and very definite objectives of the program and the research were in order. This study attempts to evaluate

on a pre- and post-test basis the effectiveness of a leadership training program designed to increase inter-personal and intra-personal development.

Changes in Inter-Personal and Intra-Personal Development
in Relationship to Leadership Training

Inter-Personal Changes

Many people in management and leadership training activities consider evaluations of the effectiveness of management training in relationship to inter-personal development to be a major problem currently associated with the area. Further, reports of adequate evaluation of the relative effectiveness of different training strategies is virtually non-existent. Evaluations take many forms and several conclusions may be drawn depending on whether the data gathered is from the participants of a training program, or from the participants' subordinates or superordinates (Beeland, 1976). An example of this disparity was shown by Burnaska (1976), who reported on the results of a study conducted to determine the effectiveness of a management training course with a behavior modeling concentration. Results showed that managers' inter-personal skills had improved as determined by judges evaluations, while employee perceptions of their managers' behavior had shown only slight improvement.

Runyan (1977) attempted to ascertain which inter-personal skills would be necessary for effective leadership. His study reviewed 15 groups of about 15 members each, led by 8 different leaders. These groups were involved in group sessions to increase inter-personal skills.

The results suggested that respect, empathy, genuineness, immediacy of attention and consideration were core conditions necessary for effective leadership in industry and business.

A study on management modeling training for middle management in financial companies to improve inter-personal skills and morale, measured employee morale and training participants' communication skills as measured by employees. The results of the study demonstrated that the greater the improvement in inter-personal communication skills, the higher was the internal morale of the department. Also, as communication skills increased, so did employees' perceptions of managers' communication skills (Smith, 1976). Similar findings were found by Valiquet (1968) in another study which focused on adaptations of behavior changes in an organizational setting following a management development program. Results indicated that participants in the program were seen by co-workers as significantly increasing inter-personal skills and initiative, and thus internal moral improved.

In a study of the effects of management development on manager behavior and sub-ordinate perception, Schwartz, Stillwell, and Scanlan (1968) reviewed a series of management development seminars sponsored by an insurance company involving 57 managers. This experimental research design had two purposes: (1) to assess the impact of training on behavior and (2) to identify subordinates' reaction to change. The results showed that the experimental group exhibited improved management behavior, were better in problem solving, and gained more from the day-

to-day experience and were more people and subordinate development oriented. These findings suggested that management development seminars improved inter-personal behavior on the part of the leader and thus more positive relationships between leader and follower. In a similar study of elementary school principals, 19 principals and 289 teachers responded to questionnaires designed to assess the extent of positive relationships and the leadership characteristics of the principal. The findings suggested that participative management and higher inter-personal contact will result in a higher degree of positive staff relationships (Darke, 1974).

Intra-Personal Development

Studies of leadership training and its effect on self-concept are not as numerous as those in relationship to inter-personal behavior except in recent research on women in business and male/female comparisons, which will be described in the next section. Many studies have suggested that an individual's leadership capability may be inhibited with lower levels of self-esteem. Further, many writers have suggested that as inter-personal skills increase, so does intra-personal development (Valiquet, 1968; Schwartz, Stillwell and Scanlan, 1968; Sage, 1973).

Information collected on the effects of inter-personal feedback on intra-personal development at the beginning, halfway point, the end and 10 months after the training, supported the proposition that a person's self-identity is influenced by the opinions others have of him, which they communicate to him (French, Sherwood, and Bradford, 1966).

The more information that is communicated, the more change there is in self-identity. However, the present self-concept of the individual, at the time of training was found to be important and the more dissatisfied he was with his present self-perceptions, the more likely he is to change. Similar findings were reported by Sand, Steele, and Salkind (1969) in a study assessing the impact of an organizational development program on 120 middle managers in a research and engineering company. In self-assessments taken before, during and 1 year after the program, the findings indicated that there were significant increases in self-concept particularly in perceptions of the manager's ability to confront conflicts.

Participants showed significant changes over time in self-perceptions during a 3-week human relations leadership training program (Burke and Bennis, 1961). There was increased similarity between perceived actual self and perceived ideal self. Also there was increased similarity between self-perceptions and perceptions of others. This finding suggests that human relations leadership training can significantly influence intra-personal development, as well as inter-personal development.

The relationship between an individual's level of self-esteem and his inter-personal communication behavior have suggested that lower levels of self-esteem may inhibit an individual's ability to make decisions and have opinion leadership (Shainwald, 1973). A person with lower levels of self-esteem may be more dependent upon the group's evaluation of a given situation or the endorsement of a central member of that group than upon his own convictions. Following analysis of data

in this research, Shainwald showed a positive relationship between an individual's self-esteem and his opinion leadership behavior. Therefore, he concluded that opinion leaders are active inter-personal information seekers and are considerably higher in self-esteem than non-leaders.

Dogmatism

Lareen and Schwendiman (1969) found a negative relationship between dogmatism and self-esteem. This finding supported Rokeach's (1960) hypothesis that feelings of self-adequacy underlie dogmatism. In a study designed to test the possibility that the negative relationship was artifactually based, Hess and Lindner (1973) found that the negative relationship between dogmatism and self-esteem is not due to contamination of the Dogmatism Scale by items directly measuring self-esteem. They concluded again that dogmatism and self-esteem are related reliably, and that the higher the self-esteem, the lower the dogmatism is likely to be.

Rokeach (1960) characterized highly dogmatic persons as more likely than the low dogmatic person to see the world as threatening and to be anxious about the future. These attributes reflect in part that the lack of predictability of the future increased anxiety. Franklin (1973) examined the relationship of dogmatism and personal efficacy, defined as the extent to which one feels he has control over his destiny, with the hypothesis that higher dogmatics would exhibit lower levels of personal efficacy than would lower dogmatics. He found that the data confirmed the predicted dogmatism/personal efficacy relationship and

Rokeach's (1960) main hypothesis that those with relatively more closed-minded systems should manifest more anxiety than those with relatively open systems. However, Gaensslen, May and Wolpert (1973) found that the observed relation between dogmatism and anxiety rests on only a small part of the D-Scale. These are the items having a close connection to feelings of helplessness, loneliness and anxiety. They contended that the remaining items on the scale have only a semantic content to the dogmatic attitude but no connection to the feelings of anxiety. Therefore, they suggested that proofs of the relationship of dogmatism with anxiety are questionable for methodological reasons.

A well established finding in research on attitude change is that the greater the authority of the source of communication, the greater the persuasion toward the position advocated by the source (Bandura, 1969). From Rokeach's (1960) theory, it may be predicted that the authority of the source would be more influential in the persuasion process for high-dogmatics than for low-dogmatics. This prediction is based upon the assumption that high dogmatics would not evaluate what an authority had to say independently of who the authority was, while low dogmatics would more readily discriminate source from message. Testing this hypothesis, Harvey and Hays (1972) had 80 high and low dogmatic women read a communication which was either attributed to an expert or to a high school student. As predicted, the high dogmatic S's agreed more with the communication when given by the high authority source than when given by the low authority source. This would suggest

that high dogmatic middle management leaders would be more likely to be persuaded by super-ordinate communications than by peers. Also, this finding suggests that the more highly structured the organization, the more likely the high dogmatic will function efficiently within it.

Summary

In summary, reports of adequate evaluation of relative effectiveness of different training strategies are quite limited. Evaluations can take many forms and can show a divergence of results depending on who makes the evaluations. There is a relationship between increased inter-personal skills on the part of the leader/manager and improved staff morale and positive staff relationships. Further, researchers have shown that as inter-personal skills improve, so does self-concept. Therefore, it can be concluded that there is a positive relationship between improved inter-personal skills, self-esteem, and effective leadership.

Finally, dogmatism has a negative effect on the effectiveness of leadership and leadership training, and as dogmatism increases, so do feelings of anxiety, inadequacy and defensiveness. This study will measure these variables to control for dogmatism that might inhibit training effectiveness, and to determine the effect of inter-personal skills from two perspectives; the subject and the subject's supervisor, and self-concept of the subjects to ascertain levels of intra-personal development.

Analysis of Sex Differences in Relationship
To Leadership Training

Women in Management

It has only been in the last decade that women have entered management and leadership roles in business in significant numbers. Orth and Jacobs (1971) predicted that there would be a likely trend in the 70's to increase women in management positions and this forecast has been fulfilled. As a result of the feminist movement, financial stress on the family, and changing sociological patterns, women have entered the work force and the leadership arena in increasing numbers. Consequently, research and literature on sex differences and sex-role stereotyping in business have increased in recent years.

In the last several years, specialized programs for management development for women have steadily increased in the business sector and in universities. Kozoll (1973) described a development program for women managers that attempted to: (1) show problems women face in management, (2) increase self-esteem for women in these positions, and (3) help women create strategies to solve problems they face in business. This program suggested that women have been at a disadvantage in management. Masters (1974) supported this notion and reported that the Purdue University business office has a program in training and development that eliminates sex-role stereotyping and helps women to be in management positions. The University of Houston taught a similar "Women in Management" course in 1974 (Stead, 1975) that had 5 objectives to describe:

(1) knowledge of equal opportunity laws, (2) role models of women in management, (3) current literature on the area of women in management, (4) procedures to seek out professional leadership positions, and (5) procedures to demonstrate how male students may be prepared to help women in management.

There are measureable differences between how men and women are afforded avenues for training and advancement in the business sector. There are 5 ways women acquire training and development that lead to advancement: (1) on the job training, (2) training and development programs offered in a company, (3) outside study and advance degree programs, (4) higher level mentor sponsorship, and (5) participation in conferences and other large group meetings. These avenues are very limited for women but greater access for advancement can be attained by: (1) conducting, supporting or arranging for non-sexist research to facilitate behavior and attitude change, (2) reviewing, revising and implementing organization development programs for women, and (3) monitoring and evaluating the results of these programs (Wells, 1973).

In an assessment of the attitudes of a corporation's male managers toward women in business management, 45 male managers of a major corporation were asked how accepting they were of females as managers. The ultimate purpose of this study was to determine which attitudes needed to be changed in an education awareness program. The sample of male managers thought that the traditional role for women would be a

negative factor in regard to women functioning as managers (Best,1975).

The New Woman Leader

In recent years, there have been increasing numbers of studies on women leaders in the business sector. Dollase (1976) performed an intensive study in leadership adaptation of top level female administrators in professional organizations. This study had three purposes: (1) to examine the ways she defined her position, (2) to examine leadership behavior, and (3) to examine how she used judgement to carry out her role. The analysis of research findings confirmed the following hypotheses: (1) Participatory management style: women executives are more likely to develop participatory decision making and shared goal setting. This finding was in contradiction to that of McDonnell (1974) who found that there was no predictability of participative management as a leadership style for men; (2) Detailed management: women executives are likely to pay significant attention to administrative detail; (3) Conflict: women leaders tended to avoid conflict situations, and if conflict existed, to seek to reduce its level of intensity; (4) Risk taking: women executives tended to be moderate risk takers and less willing than male executives to take higher risks. In summary, Dollase found that the new women administrators had a feminine leadership perspective. While she was direct, she was viewed as gentle. While she was decisive, she was thought as sensitive; hard working and yet considerate of other's needs. Her goals were humane and nurturant. In short, her leadership strategy accommodates to the realities of the organizational life with-

out necessarily sacrificing principles of basic standards of quality.

In a similar study, which investigated the relationship between competence of women in middle management positions and androgynous personality characteristics and self-concept, data was gathered using the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) and the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS). Results showed that, based on the BSRI 93% of the 27 women in middle management had incorporated masculine characteristics into their personalities with 63% in masculine categories and 29% in androgynous personality categories. Based on the TSCS, subjects were well integrated individuals with positive self-concepts and high levels of satisfaction about who they were and what they did. Sacrificing femininity, fear of success and reluctance to assert themselves in male domains were not viewed as limitations in the subjects' experiences. Banfield (1976) concluded that women managers tended to have masculine characteristics and high self-esteem.

In a similar study on the influences on women's sex-role attitudes, assertiveness, modes of interaction, and self-concept, Dileo (1975) performed an experimental design evaluation of a women's development training program. Experimental and control groups of women from the community were given comparable treatments of seminars. The experimental group's training was concerned with more assertiveness and focus on the changing role of women while the control group's training was concerned with more inter-personal processes. Questionnaires were given measuring assertiveness, sex-role attitudes, modes of interaction, self-concept and

self-esteem. The results of the study indicated that women in the experimental group, which highlighted the changing roles of women, became significantly less traditional on the factor of measuring sex-role attitudes. Of those women who did change, more often they were working outside the home, had fewer children, and were more likely to hold a dual orientation of having children and having a career.

Studies of Male versus Female Leadership

Previous reviewers have suggested that women display lower self-confidence than men across almost all achievement situations. The empirical validity of this suggestion was assessed in a study by Lenney (1976). She found that situational variables do determine whether women are lower in self-confidence than men. Further, it was concluded that women's responsiveness to social comparison cues, and the manner by which women evaluate themselves relative to others, are particularly important factors in their self-confidence. Lenney also found that women's self-confidence is more influenced than men's by social comparison cues and sex differences in self-confidence depending on the particular ability area.

Chapman (1974) performed a comparative analysis of male and female leadership styles in similar work environments and where the job requirements were comparable. The methodology was designed to accomplish two major objectives: (1) to determine leadership style as a function of the individual and his personality profile, and (2) to investigate and compare the relationships between situational and biographical

variables and leadership style for male and female leaders. The samples were selected from one civilian organization and one military organization that were comparable. Chapman found that neither job nor biographical variables account for any significant differences between male and female leadership styles. Also, there was no significant difference between male and female leadership styles with respect to their underlying need structure in similar work environments.

In a study to examine whether evaluations of job incumbents vary with sex under high challenge and performance conditions, Hall and Hall (1976) found that there were no significant differences in evaluations. However, Alpander and Gutman (1976) found that there are significant differences in the training and development needs of women versus men in high management positions. Also, they found that while there were no significant differences between men and women in efforts, task accomplishments, and leadership style, it was concluded that women tend to rank major job responsibilities higher than men.

Summary

In summary, research and literature on the subject of sex differences in leadership roles have increased in recent years. Women have been at a disadvantage in leadership positions because they are in a minority and because they have been challenging a stereotyping of their expected behavior (Masters, 1974; Wells, 1973; Best, 1975). The research indicated that women in leadership positions continue to have feminine leadership perspectives. However, they have incorporated

masculine characteristics into their personalities (Dollase, 1976; Banfield, 1976). As dual career marriages develop in increasing numbers, it is important that research continue to carefully measure sex differences in the professions. This study will add the dimension of sex differences in self-concept and inter-personal behavior to help that objective.

Summary of Review of Related Literature

This chapter reviewed the literature related to the study of leadership training and its effect on inter-personal and intra-personal development. The first section on conceptualizations of leadership training showed that leadership is a difficult hypothetical construct to evaluate. Theoretically, the effective leader was shown to be both task- and relationship-oriented, and the research indicated that there were inadequate controls to measure these variables.

The second section on approaches to leadership training showed clear differences of opinion on the effectiveness of leadership training programs. There were several techniques reviewed including task-oriented labs and human relations-oriented training programs. The research showed wide divergence of results and indicated that clearly delineated training objectives combined with quality research controls were necessary to arrive at significant and unbiased findings.

The third section reviewing changes in inter-personal and intra-personal development in relation to leadership training showed that increased inter-personal skills of the leader resulted in improved

morale of the followers. Further, there appeared to exist a positive relationship between increased self-esteem and improved leadership. Finally, it was shown that increased levels of dogmatism tended to inhibit leadership development by perpetuating anxiety defensiveness, rigidity, and feelings of inadequacy.

The last section on analysis of sex differences in relation to leadership training showed clear differences between men and women in leadership positions. Women tended to be lower in self-esteem and higher in feminine perspective than men in similar leadership positions. However, women in leadership positions showed less traditional behaviors and attitudes than women in non-leadership positions. It was suggested that sex differences continue to be a necessary variable in evaluating leadership and management development programs.

This study measured the effects of leadership training on interpersonal development between men and women in similar leadership positions. The research design was constructed to provide evaluations of the participants of the leadership training and evaluations of the participants by their respective supervisors to control for subjective bias on the part of the participants. Dogmatism levels of the participants were also measured to control for possible treatment effectiveness that might not be indicated due to high levels of dogmatism. The next chapter will delineate the specific statistical procedures of the study.

CHAPTER III

Within this chapter, the design and procedure of the study are specified under five major headings: Population of the Study, the Experimental Design, the Instruments, Data Gathering and Processing Procedures, and Statistical Hypotheses and Procedures.

Population and Sample of the Study

The population represented in this study was middle management personnel in the business and financial community of greater California. Middle management, as defined in this study, is executive personnel who manage a staff of one or more and who have senior supervision in a line relationship. Greater California is represented here, since the sample was provided by middle management personnel whose base of operations included branches located throughout the state. The financial and business community is particularly represented in this study because the sample was made up of middle management personnel in the savings and loan industry.

The sample of this study was obtained from three financial corporations. The experimental group was composed of middle management personnel from State Savings and Loan, and Century Bank. These two companies are joined together by a holding company, Financial Corporation of America, which is a large conglomerate based in Los Angeles, California, State Savings and Century Bank have over 40 branches throughout California, and with many located in the San Joaquin Valley. The experimental group was composed of middle management personnel who worked in and

represented each of these geographic locations. This group participated in the study on a volunteer basis, as part of a company inservice program.

The control group represented the same population and the sample was obtained from another large savings and loan association, Stockton Savings, based in Stockton, California. Stockton Savings has several branches in the Central Valley, and the sample represented the same geographic areas.

The experimental group numbered 51 with 26 women and 25 men. Their ages ranged from 22 to 57 with a mean age of 36. The control group numbered 15 with 10 women and 5 men. Their ages ranged from 24 to 53, with a mean age of 38. There was no random assignment; all participants were company personnel who elected to participate in the inservice program. One should note that even though the participants were volunteers, in the sense that they agreed to participate, they differed from other volunteer groups in that they were randomly selected from the middle management force in the respective companies and then asked to participate by the company presidents.

The Experimental Design

The research outline was a quasi-experimental, pre-test post-test control group design (Campbell and Stanley, 1963). This design allowed for maximum internal and external validity when random assignment was not possible. The experimental group received the treatment, Perry Leadership Training Course (PLTC); the control group received no special treatment during the time of the study, and simply completed the Tennessee

Self-Concept Scale (TSCS) and Individualized Management/Leadership Profile (IMLP) Self-Ratings. Supervisors of the control subjects also rated them on the IMLP Supervisor-Rating form. Only the experimental group completed the Dogmatism Scale.

The PLTC and sex were the independent variables. Pre- and Post-test scores on the TSCS, the IMLP Self-Rating, and the IMLP Supervisor-Rating Scales constituted covariates and post dependent measures respectively in statistical analyses.

Rokeach found that people who score with high levels of dogmatism do not show rapid change of behaviors and attitude. Scores on the D-Scale will be used as a blocking variable on the experimental group to test the effectiveness of the PLTC on those participants who are high versus low in dogmatism.

The Instruments

Four sets of instruments were used for data collection: (1) Participants leadership self assessments; (2) Participants leadership assessments by their immediate supervisors; (3) Participants self-concept assessments; and (4) Participants dogmatism self-assessments.

Leadership Assessment

Leadership variables were assessed on the PLTC Individualized Management/Leadership Perspective (IMLP) Self-Rating and Supervisor-Rating Scales. The IMLP Self-Rating and Supervisor-Rating Scales were developed by the researcher in order to measure predicted changes in leadership qualities. The two tests are variations on the same measure-

ment with the only difference being who is making the assessment. The Self-Rating Scale is designed for participants to rate themselves, while the Supervisor-Rating Scale is designed for the participants to be rated by their supervisors. The IMLP Scale contained 36 assessment items in which respondents were to mark one of 6 choices: "Poor", "Fair", "Satisfactory", "Very Good", "Outstanding", or "Don't Know". The items on the test measured perceptions of leadership qualities, including decision-making, formulation and completion of objectives, time management, communication skills, quality of relationships, conflict resolution skills, perceptions of leadership effectiveness and supervision and delegation (See Appendix A). The sum of the scores on the instrument represented the total score of the respondent. Each response was given a point value, with "Don't Know" receiving no points, Poor =1, Fair =2, Satisfactory =3, Very Good =4, and Outstanding =5. The total score was obtained by adding up the points obtained on each item; totals indicated the level of projected leadership designated over all the previously mentioned leadership skills.

Validity: Evidence for construct validity for the IMLP Self-Rating and Supervisor-Rating Scales was provided by Halpin (1966) who suggested that leaders must function as good decision makers to accomplish goals and maintain the group morale. Further, Stogdill (1974) and Davis (1972) suggested that leaders must exhibit self confidence, communicate well with others, initiate action, be dependable in execution of responsibilities, show sensitivity to others, and show priorities in goal achievement. Greer (1961) suggested that another necessary trait for good

leadership is that of problem solving skills; Fiedler (1967) suggested that the effective leader has high inter-personal relations and high task structure. Finally, Gordon (1978) has postulated that the effective leader is both task- and people-oriented, which results in high intra-personal and inter-personal qualities. The IMLP Self-Rating and Supervisor-Rating Scales items were devised to measure each of the leadership skills mentioned above.

Evidence for further construct validity was found when the instrument was shown to a panel of five experts in the field of psychology, administration, research and psychometry, executive administration and educational administration (See Appendix B for a listing of the panel with their qualifications). These professionals reviewed the first draft of the instrument and on no item did less than 4 people agree on the validity of the IMLP for testing the variables of leadership skills. The instrument was adjusted to meet the criteria of all the professionals so that validity on any given item was satisfied.

Reliability: The two week test-retest reliability coefficient for the PLTC Individualized Management/Leadership Perspective Profile was found to be .72 for 16 middle management personnel in the financial sector, which is significant at the .05 level. These middle management personnel were randomly selected from one large savings and loan association.

Tennessee Self-Concept Scale

One of the most widely used instruments to measure the self-concept

has been the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS), which is a self-administering instrument consisting of 100 self-descriptive statements, such as "I am a friendly person" and "I have a lot of self-control" (Fitts, 1964). Ninety of these items assess the self-concept, while the other 10 are from the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory Lie Scale and assess self-criticism. The items were selected from the literature on the self-concept and also from patient self-reports. The 90 items are worded half positively and half negatively in order to control for acquiescence response set. Each item has five response alternatives ranging from "Completely true of me" to "Completely false of me". The responses are scored according to a two-dimensional classification scheme. One dimension represents the five aspects of the self, which are physical self, moral-ethical self, personal self, family self, and the family-social self. The other dimension represents three internal frames of reference for each of the self-concepts; these are identity, what the person is; self-satisfaction, how the person accepts himself; and behavior, how he acts. The total positive score on the 90 self-concept items is the overall self-esteem measure, but there are a number of subscores that can be derived. The scale provides scores for up to 29 variables, which furnishes the examiner with a rather complete and complex self-concept profile. This study will be concerned primarily with the overall score.

Validity: Evidence for convergent validity has been provided by Vincent (1968) who hypothesized that Self-Satisfaction and Personal Satisfaction scores on the TSCS would be significantly intercorrelated with similar scores from different inventories. Bentler (1972) stated

that correlations between the TSCS and various scales of the MMPI are frequently in the .50's and .60's.

The TSCS has been successful in differentiating normals from non-normals such as psychiatric patients and alcoholics, thus providing some support for the construct validity of the scale. Crites (1965) reported that the test tended to differentiate psychiatric groups from one another. Gross and Adler (1970) found that 140 male alcoholics differed significantly in a negative direction from a normal group. Herbert (1968) found that individuals with low reading comprehension generally had low self-concept scores on the TSCS. Ashcraft and Fitts (1964) found that total self-concept scores increased significantly for therapy patients, as compared to no change in a group of patients receiving no therapy. The TSCS was selected for use in this study to determine whether the PLTC would lead to changes which would differentiate self-concept assessments between the experimental and control groups of the PLTC study.

Reliability: Fitts (1965) reported that the two week reliability coefficient for the total self-concept score was found to be .92 for 60 college students. There appear to be no established reports on the internal consistency of the TSCS.

Rokeach Dogmatism D-Scale

The Dogmatism Scale (D-Scale) is a 40 item assessment designed to measure rigidity, intolerance and authoritarianism. Rokeach (1960), assuming that everyone has an interrelated and organized belief-disbelief

system, hypothesized that certain predictions about behavior could be possible as a result of communication of this belief system. The notion was that people who had closed-minded belief systems would be less susceptible to change than those who had open-minded systems. Constructed to measure individual differences in these systems, the D-Scale arrived at levels of dogmatism, authoritarianism and intolerance. The D-Scale was used in this study to measure levels of intolerance and dogmatism that might have inhibited treatment effectiveness.

Validity: Rokeach undertook extensive investigations to test the construct validity of the D-Scale using particularly the "known group" method of testing. Rokeach asked college professors and graduate students to select friends and colleagues with "known", or predictable open or closed mindedness. This selected group was then administered the D-Scale and it differentiated the two groups ($P < .05$, $N=1,025$).

In other "known group" testing, Rokeach used differing religious and cultural groups that had predictable differences in dogmatism. He found that Catholic students in Michigan obtained significantly higher scores on the D-Scale with a mean of 94.5 than Protestant students, with a mean of 86.4. In other testing of cultural groups, Rokeach found that Communists scored higher on the D-Scale with a mean of 47.0 than did liberals with a mean of 29.2.

Reliability: On the test-retest reliability of the D-Scale, reliability coefficients ranged from .68 to .93 for samples (alpha level .05) at Ohio State University, Michigan State University and the Veterans Administration (Rokeach, 1960).

Data Gathering and Processing Procedures

Data were collected during three periods, Fall 1978, Spring 1979, and Summer 1979, from three respective groups, A, B, and C. Group A and Group B made up the experimental group, with the only difference being Group A received the treatment in Fall 1978, and Group B received the treatment in Spring 1979. Group C acted as the control group, did not receive the treatment and participated in pre- and post-testing four months apart during the summer of 1979.

1. Group A, consisting of 20 persons in middle management, received the treatment (PLTC) in two groups of 10 from September 1978 through December 1978. Class size was limited to 10 for maximum educational involvement. This group received pre-testing on the TSCS, the IMLP Self-Rating and the D-Scale in September and was post-tested on the first two of these scales in December.
2. Group B, consisting of 32 persons in middle management, received the treatment (PLTC) in three classes of approximately 10 each from February 1979 through May 1979. This group received pre-testing of the TSCS, the IMLP Self-Rating and the D-Scale in February, and was post-tested on the first two of these scales in May.
3. Group C, consisting of 14 persons in middle management, received no treatment and participated in pre- and post-testing of the TSCS and the IMLP Self-Rating from May 1979 (pre-test) to August 1979 (post-test). Due to difficulty in scheduling, and the fact that the original control group was not able to parti-

cipate, Group C which consisted of a new group of similar professionals was given the testing sequence after Groups A and B in the summer.

All members of all the groups were evaluated concurrently during the treatment period by their respective senior supervisors using the IMLP Supervisor-Rating as the instrument. This exercise was done to compare self-assessment of leadership skills with supervisor-assessments.

The data were collected by the researcher in all cases. The PLTC treatment was administered four times by the researcher. In order to control for experimenter bias, and for purposes of external validity and generalizability, another impartial researcher was employed to instruct one complete PLTC class in Spring 1979.

Description of Treatment

The PLTC is a four-month course consisting of four, six-hour sessions, one per month. Each session was concerned with a different area of leadership and confidence training, and the content of each session was dependent on what was learned in the previous one. The instruction utilized experiential learning techniques, including discussion, demonstration, role-playing, feedback, and practical application in the work setting. The workshop sessions were deliberately spread several weeks apart to allow the participants to apply the concepts learned and return for discussion, evaluation and more guidance in the areas of self-confidence and leadership.

The PLTC equips each participant with a 70-page workbook. The basic

concept on which the course is built is that leadership effectiveness increases as the leader gains confidence in his abilities and initiative. As the leadership effectiveness increases, so does the quality of the leader/staff relationship.

Session by Session Coverage of PLTC Topic Outlines

Session 1. (6 hours of instruction, first chapter of workbook)

Management Styles: This session includes the pre-tests and a variety of assessment methods to allow the participant to evaluate his/her strengths and weaknesses. He/she will gain insight into management/leadership style and confidence level through projective drawings, small group debate, and discussion.

Session 2. (6 hours of instruction, second chapter of workbook)

Management Communication Skills: This session, focusing on interpersonal skills, includes introduction and application of communication skills as related to the leader/staff relationship. The participant will gain insight into communication patterns, decoding messages, listening skills, patterns of manipulation and engendering positive relationships.

Session 3. (6 hours of instruction, third chapter of workbook)

Manager's Self-Management: This session, focusing on intrapersonal skills, includes introduction and application of self-management skills, including decision making, conflict resolution, management by objectives, positive energy, non-verbal messages and valuing.

Session 4. (6 hours of instruction, fourth chapter of workbook)

Summary and Professional Command Development: This session, focusing on design for change, includes introduction and application of skills in time delineation, matching objectives with scheduling requirements, professional behavior, synthesizing course concepts, review, the post-test, and evaluation.

Statistical Hypotheses

The research hypotheses stated in Chapter 1 are restated below in the null form. The level of significance for rejection of the null was determined at .10 because of the small sample, and because this is an initial study, subject to further refinements. There is a tendency in this study to make a Type 1 error. Because this study is early and experimental in development, the relaxed alpha level provides less likelihood of rejecting the PLTC as ineffective when it may be effective with more refinement. Further study of the PLTC effectiveness would necessarily require an alpha level of .05.

Hypotheses Using IMLP Self-Rating Scale as the Dependent Variable

H_{1A} Among participants in the study, there will be no difference in leadership qualities between those who received the PLTC and those who did not receive the training as demonstrated on post-test measures of the IMLP Self-Rating Scale.

H_{1B} Among Participants in the study, there will be no difference between males and females leadership qualities as demonstrated on post-test measures between those who received the PLTC and those who did not receive the training.

Hypotheses Using the IMLP Supervisor-Rating Scale as the Dependent Variable

- H2_A Among participants in the study, there will be no difference in supervisor-ratings of leadership qualities between those who received the PLTC and those who did not receive the training as demonstrated on post-measures of the IMLP Supervisor-Rating Scale.
- H2_B Among participants in the study, there will be no difference between males and females in leadership qualities as demonstrated on post-test measures of the IMLP Supervisor-Rating Scale between those who received the PLTC and those who did not receive the training.

Hypotheses Using the TSCS as the Dependent Variable

- H3_A Among participants in the study, there will be no difference in self-concept between those who received the PLTC and those who did not receive the training as demonstrated on post-test measures of the TSCS.
- H3_B Among participants in the study, there will be no difference between males and females self-concept as demonstrated on post-test measures of the TSCS, between those who received the PLTC and those who did not receive the training.
- H4 Among participants in the study, there will be no difference in scores on the IMLP or the TSCS, regardless of the levels of dogmatism as measured by the D-Scale.

Statistical Analysis

The statistical analysis for the first three hypotheses will be done using three 2-way ANOVAs. The design paradigm is as follows:

		Treatment		
		PLTC	None	
Sex	Male	n=13	n=5	18
	Female	n=26	n=10	36
		39	15	

The independent variables were treatment (PLTC) and sex. The Covariates were:

Covariate 1 = Pre-test on IMLP Self-Rating
Dependent variable: post-test on IMLP Self-Rating

Covariate 2 = Pre-test on IMLP Supervisor-Rating
Dependent variable: post-test on IMLP Supervisor-Rating

Covariate 3 = Pre-test on TSCS
Dependent variable: post-test on TSCS

Hypothesis 4 will be tested using a one-way ANCOVA by dividing the experimental group into high and low scores based on a mean-split on the D-Scale scores. Those above the mean were listed as high in dogmatism while those below the mean were listed as low in dogmatism.

Because the two-way ANCOVA required proportionality of cells in order to provide unbiased solution, 13 of the men in the experimental group were randomly discarded to reach proportionate n's. By having

26 women/13 men and 10 women/5 men in experimental and control groups respectively, the requirement of proportionality was met. However, for analysis of dogmatism effects in Hypothesis 4, all 51 subjects in the experimental group were tested in the one-way ANCOVA.

Summary

In this chapter the population used to study the problem of PLTC on middle management in the financial sector was described. The procedures for administering the PLTC were described and the PLTC itself outlined. The measurement instruments used to assess leadership effectiveness, self-concept and dogmatism were described and their respective validity and reliability provided. Finally, the hypotheses tested were outlined. The following chapter presents the findings of the study.

CHAPTER IV

Findings of the Study

This chapter presents the findings of the study and is organized in the following manner: first the results of testing the hypotheses on the effects of the independent variables PLTC and sex as measured by the IMLP Self-Rating Scale are presented; then the results of testing the hypotheses on the effects of the independent variables PLTC and sex as measured by the IMLP Supervisor-Rating Scale; next the results found by testing the effects of the independent variables treatment and sex as measured by the TSCS are shown; finally the results of testing the hypothesis that the independent variable PLTC will vary as a function of dogmatism are presented.

Hypotheses Testing

IMLP Self-Rating Scale

- H1_A Among participants in the study, there will be no difference in leadership qualities between those who received the PLTC and those who did not receive the training as demonstrated on post-test measures of the IMLP Self-Rating Scale.
- H1_B Among participants in the study, there will be no difference between male and female leadership qualities as demonstrated on post-test measures between those who received the PLTC and those who did not receive the training.

Table 1 shows the Analysis of Covariance testing $H1_A$ and $H1_B$ on the post-test measure of the IMLP Self-Rating Scale with the pre-test as the covariate. The results of these tests indicate that the F-values are relatively small and well within the values expected by chance; therefore, $H1_A$ and $H1_B$ cannot be rejected. It appears that the PLTC had no significant effect on participants' leadership qualities as measured by the IMLP Self-Rating Scale. Further, it appears that there were no significant differences between males and females in leadership qualities as measured by the IMLP Self-Rating Scale.

IMLP Supervisor-Rating Scale

$H2_A$ Among participants in the study, there will be no difference in supervisor-ratings of leadership qualities, between those who received the PLTC and those who did not receive the training as demonstrated on post-test measures of the IMLP Supervisor-Rating Scale.

$H2_B$ Among participants in the study, there will be no difference between males and females in leadership qualities as demonstrated on post-test measures of the IMLP Supervisor-Rating Scale between those who received the PLTC and those who did not receive the training.

Table 2 shows the Analysis of Covariance testing $H2_A$ and $H2_B$ on the post-test measure of the IMLP Supervisor-Rating Scale. The results of these tests indicate that $H2_A$ and $H2_B$ cannot be rejected because the

Table 1

Analysis of Covariance of Middle Management
Bank and Savings and Loan Personnel Post-Test
Scores of the IMLP Self-Rating Scale by
Treatment and Sex Using the Pre-Test as Covariate

SOURCE	SS	df	MS	F	Sig.
Treatment	126.338	1	126.38	1.368	.248
Sex	111.871	1	111.871	1.211	.277
Treatment x Sex	50.244	1	50.244	.544	.464
Covariate	7277.078	1	7277.078	78.76	.000
Residual	4527.397	49	92.396		
Total	12127.481	53	228.820		

Table of Means on Post-Test

VARIABLE	Experimental	Control	Total	N
Males	133.461	129.400	132.332	18
Std Dev	12.712	21.755	15.223	
Females	111.000	129.300	116.083	36
Std Dev	16.745	13.425	15.822	
Total	118.487	129.333	121.499	54
Std Dev	18.725	15.846	17.925	
N	39		54	

F-value for each of the variables was relatively small. It appears that the PLTC had no significant effect on the supervisors' evaluation of the participants' leadership qualities as measured by the IMLP Supervisor-Rating Scale. Further, it appears that there were no significant differences between supervisors' evaluations of male and female participants' leadership qualities as measured by the IMLP Supervisor-Rating Scale. By reviewing Tables 1 and 2, it appears that the PLTC showed no significant changes in self-perceptions or supervisor-perceptions of leadership qualities. Also, there were no significant differences between male and female self-perceptions, or the perceptions by their respective supervisors.

Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS).

H3_A Among participants in the study, there will be no difference in self-concept between those who received the PLTC and those who did not receive the training as demonstrated on post-test measures of the TSCS.

H3_B Among participants in the study, there will be no difference between males and females self-concept as demonstrated on post-test measures on the TSCS, between those who received the PLTC and those who did not receive the training.

Table 3 shows the Analysis of Covariance testing H3_A and H3_B on the post-test measure of the TSCS. The results of these tests indicate the F-value for the treatment did not reach a value large enough to

Table 2

Analysis of Middle Management Bank
And Savings and Loan Personnel Post-Test Scores
Of The IMLP Supervisor-Rating Scale by Treatment
and Sex Using the Pre-Test as Covariate

SOURCE	SS	df	MS	F	Sig.
Treatment	772.078	1	772.078	2.382	.129
Sex	413.900	1	413.900	1.277	.264
Treatment x Sex	433.415	1	433.415	1.337	.253
Covariate	14848.247	1	14848.247	45.804	.000
Residual	15884.418	49	324.172		
Total	32380.148	53	610.946		

Table of Means on Post-Test

TREATMENT

	VARIABLE	Experimental	Control	Total	N
SEX	Males	111.000	122.80	114.277	10
	Std Dev	25.083	22.443	24.349	
	Females	105.346	108.00	106.083	36
	Std Dev	25.256	24.454	25.033	
	Total	107.230	112.933	108.814	54
	Std Dev	25.079	24.093	24.805	
	N	39	15	54	

permit rejection of $H3_A$ at the .10 level of significance established for this study. However, based upon a F-value of 6.861 for sex, $H3_B$ can be rejected. There is a statistically significant difference between males and females self-concept scores in this study.

However, there is no evidence that the PLTC had any effect on that difference since neither the treatment nor the interaction of treatment by sex effects were significant. This finding would suggest that women in these institutions have lower levels of self-concept than men in this study as can be seen in the Table of Means in Table 3. It is interesting to note that there was a clearly larger margin between means of TSCS scores between males and females in the experimental group than in the control group. The scores used here are net-positive scores of the TSCS which is the most reliable of the several scores that can be obtained in scoring the TSCS. In the appendix, additional tables are presented depicting ANCOVAs of the same variables using the Consistency and L-Scale scores of the TSCS. It should be noted that no statistical significance was found for those scores.

Dogmatism Scale (D-Scale)

H4 Among participants in the study, there will be no difference in scores on the IMLP or the TSCS, regardless of the levels of dogmatism as measured by the D-Scale.

Table 4 shows the Analysis of Covariance testing H4 on the post-test measures of the IMLP Self-Rating Scale. The results of these tests indicate that H4 can be rejected in regard to the IMLP Self-Rating scores

Table 3

Analysis of Middle Management and
Savings and Loan Personnel Post-Test Scores
of the TSCS by Treatment and Sex Using the
Pre-Test as Covariate

SOURCE	SS	df	MS	F	Sig.
Treatment	21.891	1	21.891	0.124	.726
Sex	1211.568	1	1211.568	6.861	.012
Treatment x Sex	19.036	1	19.036	0.108	.744
Covariate	24093.470	1	24093.470	136.446	.000
Residual	8652.385	49	176.579		
Total	33993.481	53	641.386		

Table of Means on Post-Test

TREATMENT

	VARIABLE	Experimental	Control	Total	N
SEX	Males	119.923	104.400	115.610	18
	Std Dev	19.926	22.864	20.742	
	Females	89.269	102.600	92.972	36
	Std Dev	23.405	23.894	23.540	
	Total	99.487	103.200	100.518	54
	Std Dev	26.459	22.741	25.325	
	N	39	15	54	

because the F-value for the dogmatism blocking variable did reach a .012 level of significance. This suggests that among the experimental group, there were significant differences in self-rated leadership qualities between those rated as high in dogmatism, and those rated low in dogmatism. This would suggest that high levels of dogmatism, rigidity and closed-mindedness might inhibit possible treatment effect; that is, the treatment might have shown some effect should there have been lower levels of dogmatism since there is a ten-point spread on IMLP self-rated means between high dogmatics and low dogmatics.

Table 5 shows the Analysis of Covariance testing H4 on the post-test measure of the IMLP Supervisor-Rating Scale by Dogmatism Block. The results of these tests indicate that H4 cannot be rejected in regard to IMLP Supervisor-Rating Scores because the F-value for the dogmatism blocking variable did not reach the .10 level of significance established for this study. It appears that supervisors of the participants did not show a significant difference in scores between high and low dogmatics.

Table 6 shows the Analysis of Covariance testing H4 on the post-test measures of the TSCS net-positive by Dogmatism Block. The results of these tests indicate that H4 cannot be rejected in regard to TSCS scores because the F-value for the dogmatism blocking variable did not reach the .10 level of significance established for this study. It appears that participants' self-concept scores showed no significant difference between high and low dogmatics.

Table 4

Analysis of Bank and Savings and Loan
Middle Management Personnel Post-Test Scores
Of the IMLP Self-Rating Scale by Dogmatism Block
Using the Pre-Test as Covariate

SOURCE	SS	df	MS	F	Sig.
High/Low Dogmatism	574.726	1	574.726	6.809	.012
Covariate	7847.624	1	7847.624	92.973	.000
Residual	4051.572	48	84.408		
Total	12473.922	50	249.478		

Table of Means on Post-Test

VARIABLE	Mean	STD DEV	N
High Dogmatism	121.1304	16.5098	23
Low Dogmatism	131.8949	13.6282	28
Total N	127.0392	15.7949	51

Table 5

Analysis of Bank and Savings and Loan
Middle Management Personnel Post-Test
Scores of the IMLP Supervisor-Rating Scale
by Dogmatism Block Using the Pre-Test as
Covariate

SOURCE	SS	df	MS	F	Sig.
High/Low Dogmatism	37.660	1	37.660	0.088	.768
Covariate	15536.161	1	15536.161	36.216	.000
Residual	20591.355	48	428.987		
Total	36165.176	50	723.304		

Table of Means on Post-Test

VARIABLE	Mean	STD DEV	N
High Dogmatism	101.6087	27.7632	23
Low Dogmatism	105.5357	26.5356	28
Total N	103.7647	26.8943	51

Table 6

Analysis of Bank and Savings and Loan
Middle Management Personnel Post-Test
Scores of the TSCS Net-Positive by Dogmatism Block
Using the Pre-Test as Covariate

SOURCE	SS	df	MS	F	Sig.
High/Low Dogmatism	333.638	1	333.638	1.579	.215
Covariate	24794.366	1	24794.366	117.373	.000
Residual	10139.682	48	211.243		
Total	35267.689	50	705.354		

Table of Means on Post-Test

VARIABLE	Mean	STD DEV	N
High Dogmatism	91.1304	24.8748	23
Low Dogmatism	101.9643	27.3340	28
Total N	97.0784	26.5585	51

In Appendix C, for further study, additional tables are presented depicting ANCOVAs for the same variables using the Consistance and L-Scale scores of the TSCS as dependent variables and covariates. No differences were found between high and low dogmatics on either of these variables.

Chapter 5 will discuss the summary, conclusions, and recommendations of this study.

CHAPTER V

Summary, Conclusions and Recommendations

Summary of the Study

This study was designed to assess the impact of leadership training on inter-personal and intra-personal development of middle management in the financial sector. The population under study was chosen from the bank and savings and loan industry in greater California, particularly the San Joaquin Valley. Sixty-six middle management personnel constituted the sample under study, with fifty-one branch managers of one financial holding company consisting of a bank and savings and loan association making up the experimental group and fifteen branch managers of another savings and loan association making up the control group. Both groups were composed of volunteers and there was no random assignment.

The instruments used to assess the effects of the leadership training were the Individualized Management/Leadership Profile (IMLP) Self-Rating Scale; the Individualized Management/Leadership Profile (IMLP) Supervisor-Rating Scale; the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS); and the Dogmatism Scale (D-Scale). The data from the IMLP Self-Rating Scale, the IMLP Supervisor-Rating Scale, and the TSCS were gathered from the experimental group on a pre-treatment and post-treatment basis and at the same interval of time from the control group. The Dogmatism Scale was gathered at one time within the treatment from the experimental

group to control for rigidity and closed-mindedness that might inhibit possible treatment effectiveness.

The leadership training program, a four-day, six-hour per day, one-day per month author composed program, was administered by an independent professional and by the author in order to control for experimenter bias. The program rested on the assumption that as leadership skills improve, so does the quality of the leader/follower relationship and also the level of the leader's self-concept. The hypotheses of the study tested this assumption by measuring leadership skills as self-perceptions and perceptions of the leaders' respective supervisors, and measuring self-perceptions of self-concept.

Data analysis was performed using three two-way analyses of covariance with treatment, the Perry Leadership Training Course, (PLTC) and sex being used as the independent variables. The post-test scores of the IMLP Self-Rating Scale, the IMLP Supervisor-Rating Scale, and the TSCS were the dependent variables, while the pre-tests on those instruments were used as the covariates. Analysis of the data of the D-Scale was performed using a one-way ANCOVA with a mean split of high and low dogmatics.

The results of the study showed no significant difference in self-perceptions or supervisor-perceptions on the IMLP Scale. Further, there were no significant differences between self-concept scores on the TSCS. However, there was a significant difference between males and females self-concept scores on the TSCS. The findings suggested that males had a significantly higher self-concept than females in this study, although there was no evidence that the PLTC had any direct effect upon these

differences. The findings of the data analysis on the D-Scale showed a significant difference in the experimental group between high and low dogmatics as measured by the IMLP Self-Rating Scale. This suggested that among the experimental group, there were significant differences in self-rated qualities between those rated high in dogmatism and those rated low in dogmatism. A conclusion might be drawn that would suggest that high levels of dogmatism might inhibit possible treatment effectiveness. While there were differences between high and low dogmatics as reflected in the self-ratings of the IMLP Scale, there were no similar differences between high and low dogmatics as reflected by the IMLP Supervisor-Rating Scale or the TSCS. This would suggest that dogmatism had no effect on supervisor-ratings of participant's qualities nor on self-rated self-concept of the subject. It appears that the PLTC had no overall effect on changing leadership qualities or improving self-concept. There were, however, differences between males and females in self-concept and between high and low dogmatics on self-ratings which might have inhibited treatment effectiveness.

Discussion

Population

As was stated in Chapter III, the participants in this study were not volunteers in the usual sense, but rather were asked to participate by the company presidents. Some of the experimental group agreed reluctantly and could be considered non-volunteers and therefore could be

considered less motivated to participate than those who did not resist. The honesty and lack of willingness to participate needs to be considered in this study. It is possible that treatment effectiveness was inhibited due to the passive resistance and reluctance of some of the sample. This possibility was supported by Gruenfeld (1966) who suggested that greater care should be taken to select individuals for leadership training; those selected should be those who are motivated and therefore more likely to change.

The sample, however, was a representative sample of the population of middle level management in the financial sector in California. There are many banks and savings and loan associations in California that are arranged by a main office and external branch system. The sample in this study was made up of bank and savings and loan branch managers of three financial institutions of the California population of financial institutions and in that way was representative. For replication studies, larger N's are recommended to increase generalizability.

IMLP Self-Rating Scale

The first question in the problem statement in Chapter I stated: "Does leadership training actually make a difference on the behavior of the leaders in a way that is evident to themselves?" With respect to the data analysis of the IMLP Self-Rating Scale, there were no significant differences on post-test scores between the experimental and control groups. This would suggest that the PLTC was not effective in changing leadership skills so that the change would be evident to the participants.

The data analysis also showed that there were no differences between males and females on the same skills as measured by the IMLP Self-Rating Scale.

Thomas Gordon's hypothesis in his "Leader Effectiveness Training" (1977) is that the effectiveness of the leader is largely dependent upon the quality of the leader/staff relationship or people-orientation and the extent to which the leader is accomplishing his goals or task-orientation. Gordon's model to increase leader effectiveness, a model with postulates similar to those in the PLTC, has not been experimentally tested, but rather subjectively evaluated as effective. The PLTC was also repeatedly subjectively evaluated as effective by the participants, but the data analysis does not corroborate their evaluations. This result was also found in a study by Blumenfeld and Crane (1973) where they found little relationship between perceived positive effectiveness and reported positive effectiveness of a management training program.

A strong question can be raised here: Do the subjective evaluations have any value at all? According to Rice (1979) in an evaluation of the Menninger Foundation Business Executive Seminars, the fact that there were no hard measures of the seminar's impact on managerial effectiveness did not dissuade his conviction, and those of his participating colleagues, that the seminars were both important and effective. However, the importance of a potential growth experience of these seminars does not necessarily guarantee behavioral and attitudinal changes in leadership. The findings of data analysis on the IMLP Self-Rating Scale would suggest

that the PLTC and perhaps Gordon's Leader Effectiveness Training are not effective in obtaining significant changes in leader effectiveness.

If this study was replicated, it is recommended that (1) the PLTC be re-examined in detail to determine which components were capable of accomplishing the objectives and which were not and (2) additional instruments be used to measure the same variables in leadership ability. Components of the PLTC should be tested separately and only those that resulted in behavioral change retained. The Leadership Opinion Questionnaire and the Supervisory Behavior Description Questionnaire are recommended for these purposes. These additional and more validated instruments would provide more quantitative and qualitative information to measure leadership variables.

IMLP Supervisor-Rating Scale

The second question in the problem statement in Chapter I was: "Could leadership training result in behavior changes of the participants in a way that is evident to their supervisors?" With respect to the data analysis of the IMLP Supervisor-Rating Scale, there were no significant differences on post-test scores between experimental and control groups. This would suggest that the PLTC was not effective in showing measurable leadership behavior changes of the participants that were evident to the participants' respective senior supervisors. Further analysis of data showed no significant differences between males and females measuring the same variables as rated by the participants' senior supervisors.

It is possible that the senior supervisors were highly rigid and dogmatic in their evaluations. This possibility would not allow real changes on the part of the participants as a result of the PLTC to be observed. Another possibility is that the senior supervisors might have felt their own job insecurity which prevented them from giving credit for positive changes of their subordinates.

The control group senior supervisors numbered 10, with 7 men and 3 women. The experimental group senior supervisors consisted of 6 men. During the analysis of the supervisor responses, both groups of PLTC participants had double the number of women to men, while there was clearly a majority of men to women in the supervisors sample. It is possible that a contributing factor to the lack of statistical significance found in the supervisor-rated instrument was due to biases held by the male supervisors that women managers are less effective leaders by virtue of their sex. This possibility would be strengthened by Banfield (1976) who found that effective women managers would have to have more masculine characteristics and high self-esteem. Since many women participants in the PLTC study were relatively new in management positions, it is possible that the likelihood of them developing masculine leader characteristics was diminished. Further, data analysis of the TSCS showed that there were significant differences in self-concept between males and females with females having lower self-concept. This finding could also place the female leadership effectiveness at risk in the perceptions of the senior supervisor.

Subordinate perceptions of the manager have great value according

to Darke (1974) and Gordon (1977). In fact, since the subordinate has more direct and continuous contact with the manager than do the manager's supervisor, it is possible that the perceptions of the subordinate might have more strength and validity in terms of leadership effectiveness. If this study is replicated, it is recommended that subordinate perceptions as well as supervisor perceptions of the manager be obtained and compared in order to control for supervisor bias and unilateral evaluations. Further, more homogeneous cells are recommended in order to control for sexual bias perceptions of the supervisors.

Tennessee Self-Concept Scale

The TSCS was used in this study to measure levels of self-concept that could change as a result of leadership training. With respect to data analysis of the TSCS, there were no significant differences found on post-test scores between experimental and control groups. This would suggest that leadership training had no direct effect on improving levels of self-concept. However, significant differences in self-concept were found between males and females with males having significantly higher levels of self-concept. Though these differences cannot be attributed to the PLTC, it is possible that since there were double the number of women to men in both groups for this analysis, and they had lower self-concept, leadership effectiveness may have been more at risk. This position was supported by Stogdill (1974) and Davis (1972) who found that effective leaders were more emotionally mature, were slightly higher in intelligence, and were likely to exhibit self-confidence and initiative.

If the male to female proportion in this study had been more equal, it is possible that the higher levels of self-concept exhibited by the males might have had greater influence on female peer self-concept change and thus leadership effectiveness in women. This notion was supported by Lenney (1976) who found that women's self-concept is more susceptible to change from peer influence.

French, Sherwood, and Bradford (1966) found that the present self-concept of the individual at the time of training is an important variable that might affect training results, and the more dissatisfied the person is with his/her present self-concept, the more likely he/she is to change. Findings from the PLTC study showed that the females in this study had significantly lower self-concept than men, and therefore their likelihood to change would be greater. However, this likelihood was not shown in the analysis of the TSCS in this study in that there were no differences between control and experimental groups.

Wells (1973) found that women's avenues for training and advancement in business are severely limited. This position is supported by this study, since all the experimental group senior supervisors were male. Also, among the entire executive staff of the experimental group organizations, there was only one woman holding an executive position. This condition would possibly contribute to lack of self-esteem as exhibited by the female participants in the experimental group. In addition, Best (1975) found that the traditional role for women would be a negative factor in regard to women functioning effectively as managers.

This finding again would be supported by this study because many women

in the experimental group were continuing to maintain a traditionally domestic role while incorporating a relatively new management role in their lives. This condition could possibly influence their lack of self-esteem in management capacities and the lack of improved leadership qualities. If this study is replicated, greater control over measuring self-concept levels could be reached using samples more homogeneous in age, thereby increasing similarities in chronological and developmental life dynamics. Also, some attention would be given to analyzing scores of women in terms of whether they held a dual role or were career oriented only.

Dogmatism D-Scale

The last question in the problem statement in Chapter I asked: "To what degree does dogmatism prevent changes in leadership behaviors?" The D-Scale was used in this study to control for dogmatism levels that might inhibit possible treatment effectiveness. The reasoning was that the highly dogmatic and closed-minded individual would not be very susceptible to change regardless of the effectiveness and intensity of influence. Analysis of the D-Scale data showed that there was a significant difference in self-rated leadership qualities between those rated as high dogmatics and those rated as low dogmatics. Low dogmatics' self-rated leadership improved more than high dogmatics. This finding suggests that total treatment effectiveness might have been inhibited due to the high levels of dogmatism or rigidity and closed-mindedness. This position was supported by Rokeach (1960) who suggested that dogmatism has a negative effect on leadership and leadership training and development.

If there were lower levels of dogmatism in the experimental group, it is possible that self-rated leadership perceptions would have been significantly higher on post-test scores on the IMLP Self-Rating Scale.

The data analysis of the dogmatism block on the IMLP Supervisor-Rating Scale and the TSCS did not continue to show significant differences, however. This finding suggests that the participants' senior supervisors did not see that the factors which compose dogmatism were important factors when rating the participants. Also, there did not appear to be any relationship between levels of self-concept, as measured by the TSCS, and high and low dogmatism. This finding would not support Rokeach's (1970) suggestion that feelings of self-inadequacy underlie dogmatism and the higher the self-esteem, the lower the dogmatism is likely to be. However, it is possible that the high levels of dogmatism might have inhibited self-confidence of leadership skills as shown by the analysis of the IMLP Self-Rating Scale. Though general self-concept was not related in this study to the high dogmatism levels, leadership self-concept might have been influenced. It is recommended that this suggestion be tested further in future study.

A popular argument in business administration on the subject of management is that better training is needed to improve management performance. However, Gruenfeld (1977) disagreed that better training makes better results. He suggested rather that greater care should be taken to select individuals for training that are (1) unsure of their adequacy and likely to change, (2) concerned with inter-personal and

intra-personal development and (3) more willing to accept change. This study of the PLTC would support Gruenfeld's position as exhibited by the high levels of dogmatism which suggests less likelihood of willingness to accept change. However, there appears to be a discrepancy between the significant differences between males and females self-concept levels, which would suggest females would be more likely to change as a result of lower self-concept, and the lack of significant findings between the dogmatism block and the TSCS. Again, it is possible that the females' self-adequacy was only in question in the area of leadership and management skills which the IMLP Self-Rating Scale measured while the TSCS did not. If this study is replicated, it is recommended that individuals with relatively lower levels of dogmatism and self-adequacy be selected for treatment with the PLTC, then tested to find any possible differences in leadership qualities and self-concept to maximize treatment effects. This procedure would result in a better test of the PLTC as a treatment since it would hold the personality factors which inhibit change constant.

Finally, an argument can be made that observable and measurable attitudinal and behavior changes are more evident in longitudinal terms. Hand, Richards, and Slocum (1973) found that 90 days following a human relations training laboratory there were no significant changes in attitude and behavior. However, 18 months later, they found significant positive changes. This suggests that training effectiveness might not become apparent until a period of time has passed. Since, in the PLTC

study, data was collected on a pre- and post-basis during the training and not on a longitudinal follow-up basis, it is possible that significant changes in leadership skills and self-concept were not given sufficient time for application and development. Informally, such effects have been reported; however, no formal measures have been obtained. If this study is replicated, it is recommended that several longitudinal follow-up gatherings of data from both experimental and control groups be performed in order to detect any possible treatment effectiveness that might have developed over time.

Conclusions

1. No direct treatment effects on inter-personal and intra-personal development were found in the PLTC as measured by the IMLP Self-Rating Scale and the IMLP Supervisor-Rating Scale.
2. Women in middle management positions in banks and savings and loan associations tended to have less self-concept than men in similar positions as measured by the TSCS.
3. Individuals rated as low in dogmatism showed more improvement in self-rated leadership qualities than those individuals rated high in dogmatism.
4. Ratings by senior supervisors of the participants did not corroborate the self-rated improvement of individuals rated low in dogmatism.
5. Individuals rated low in dogmatism showed no difference in self-concept following treatment as compared to those rated high in dogmatism.

Recommendations

Practical

1. In order to allow greatest potential of treatment effectiveness, trainers should select individuals for management training who have relatively low levels of dogmatism and self-concept.

Research

1. For greater control and improved similarity to developmental live dynamics, it is recommended that future studies of management training programs use samples which are homogeneous in age.
 2. To control for supervisor bias and unilateral evaluations, it is recommended that in future studies involving management training that subordinate evaluations as well as supervisor evaluations be obtained.
 3. To provide better qualitative and quantitative analysis, it is recommended that in future studies in which management training programs such as the PLTC are used that additional instruments such as the Leader Opinion Questionnaire and Supervisory Behavior Description Questionnaire be used. These instruments have established validity and reliability and provide additional sources of valid information in testing the effectiveness of such programs.
 4. To increase external validity, it is recommended that equal
-

numbers of each sex be used in both groups. Also to increase generalizability and reduce standard errors, larger N's are recommended for any future studies.

5. To allow greater potential of detecting possible treatment effectiveness in evaluating management training programs, it is recommended that individuals with relatively low levels of dogmatism be selected to participate rather than choosing groups randomly or by administrative requirement.
6. To detect possible treatment effectiveness that developed over time, it is recommended that longitudinal follow-up data analyses be performed following treatment on both experimental and control group data.

APPENDIX A
Instruments of the Study

SELF-RATING SCALE

LEADERSHIP TRAINING COURSE

INDIVIDUALIZED MANAGEMENT/LEADERSHIP PERSPECTIVE PROFILE

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NAME: _____ PRE-TEST DATE: _____ POST-TEST DATE: _____

Directions: Circle the appropriate number after each item. Please be honest and as accurate as possible. Then check the appropriate box to indicate desire for improvement.

I. SELF-MANAGEMENT: PERCEIVED COMPETENCIES

(Intra-personal relationships)

	poor	fair	satisfactory	very good	outstanding	don't know
	10%	30%	50%	70%	90%	?
<input type="checkbox"/> 1. My <u>confidence</u> in my decision making skills, as related to:						
a. management	1	2	3	4	5	DK
b. priorities of objectives	1	2	3	4	5	DK
c. business development/PR	1	2	3	4	5	DK
d. personal life	1	2	3	4	5	DK
<input type="checkbox"/> 2. My <u>confidence</u> in my effectiveness in time management, as related to:						
a. professional life	1	2	3	4	5	DK
b. personal life (home)	1	2	3	4	5	DK
c. personal life (social)	1	2	3	4	5	DK
d. personal interests	1	2	3	4	5	DK
<input type="checkbox"/> 3. My <u>confidence</u> in my effectiveness in formulating and completing objectives, as related to:						
a. business development/PR	1	2	3	4	5	DK
b. management	1	2	3	4	5	DK
c. personal life (home)	1	2	3	4	5	DK
d. personal interests	1	2	3	4	5	DK

SELF-MANAGEMENT: PERCEIVED COMPETENCIES (continued)

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		poor	fair	satisfac- tory	very good	outstand- ing	don't know
		10%	30%	50%	70%	90%	?
<input type="checkbox"/>	4. My <u>general perception</u> of my effectiveness as related to:						
	a. problem solving	1	2	3	4	5	DK
	b. achieving objectives	1	2	3	4	5	DK
	c. supervision and delegation	1	2	3	4	5	DK
	d. business development/PR	1	2	3	4	5	DK
<input type="checkbox"/>	5. My <u>insight</u> into reasons for my own behavior, as related to:						
	a. my professional life	1	2	3	4	5	DK
	b. my personal life	1	2	3	4	5	DK

II. LEADER/STAFF RELATIONSHIPS: PERCEIVED QUALITIES

<input type="checkbox"/>	1. The <u>quality</u> of my relationship with:						
	a. my staff	1	2	3	4	5	DK
	b. my peers	1	2	3	4	5	DK
	c. my superiors	1	2	3	4	5	DK
<input type="checkbox"/>	2. My <u>skills</u> in effective conflict resolution:						
	a. on the job	1	2	3	4	5	DK
	b. at home	1	2	3	4	5	DK
<input type="checkbox"/>	3. The <u>quality</u> of my interaction with others as related to:						
	a. business development/PR	1	2	3	4	5	DK
	b. personal life (home)	1	2	3	4	5	DK
	c. social life	1	2	3	4	5	DK
	d. management	1	2	3	4	5	DK

LEADER/STAFF RELATIONSHIPS: PERCEIVED QUALITIES (cont.)

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4. The quality of my skills in communication, as related to:
- a. creating positive energy in staff
 - b. sensitivity to others
 - c. listening
 - d. PR/business management
 - e. getting full effectiveness from staff

	poor 10%	fair 30%	satisfac- tory 50%	very good 70%	outstand- ing 90%	don't know ?
	1	2	3	4	5	DK
	1	2	3	4	5	DK
	1	2	3	4	5	DK
	1	2	3	4	5	DK

III. MANAGEMENT/LEADERSHIP STYLE

1. My awareness of my style of management/ leadership is:
2. My perception of the effectiveness of my management/leadership style is:

	1	2	3	4	5	DK
	1	2	3	4	5	DK

IV. ACCURACY PERCEPTION

1. The accuracy of my self-perceptions on this profile has been (to the best of my knowledge):

	1	2	3	4	5	DK
--	---	---	---	---	---	----

Supervisor-Rating Scale

Pre-Test Date: _____

PLTC

INDIVIDUALIZED MANAGEMENT/LEADERSHIP PROFILE

Post-Test Date: _____

Supervisor: _____ Person rated: _____

Directions: Please rate the person indicated above as you see him/her. Please be as accurate as possible.
Circle the appropriate number after each item.

I. SELF-MANAGEMENT: PERCEIVED COMPETENCIES
(Intra-Personal Skills)

	poor	fair	satis- factory	very good	out- standing	don't know
	10%	30%	50%	70%	90%	?
1. His/her confidence in his/her decision-making skills, as related to:						
a. management of staff	1	2	3	4	5	DK
b. priorities of objectives	1	2	3	4	5	DK
c. business development/PR	1	2	3	4	5	DK
d. personal life	1	2	3	4	5	DK
2. His/her effectiveness in time management, as related to:						
a. professional life	1	2	3	4	5	DK
b. personal life	1	2	3	4	5	DK
c. social life	1	2	3	4	5	DK
d. personal interests	1	2	3	4	5	DK
3. His/her effectiveness in formulating and completing objectives, as related to:						
a. business development/PR	1	2	3	4	5	DK
b. management of staff	1	2	3	4	5	DK
c. personal life	1	2	3	4	5	DK
d. personal interests	1	2	3	4	5	DK
4. My general perception of his/her effectiveness, as related to:						
a. problem solving	1	2	3	4	5	DK
b. achieving objectives	1	2	3	4	5	DK
c. supervision and delegation	1	2	3	4	5	DK
d. business development/PR	1	2	3	4	5	DK

IMLP Supervisor Rating Scale -2-

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5. His/her insight into reasons for his/her own behavior, as related to:
 a. his/her professional life
 b. his/her personal life

	poor 10%	fair 30%	satis- factory 50%	very good 70%	out- standing 90%	don't know ?
a. his/her professional life	1	2	3	4	5	DK
b. his/her personal life	1	2	3	4	5	DK

II. LEADER/STAFF RELATIONSHIPS: PERCEIVED QUALITIES
 (Inter-Personal Skills)

1. The quality of his/her relationships with:
 a. his/her staff
 b. his/her peers
 c. his/her superiors
2. His/her skills in effective conflict resolution:
 a. on the job
 b. at home
3. The quality of his/her interaction with others:
 a. business development/PR
 b. personal life
 c. social life
 d. management of staff
4. The quality of his/her skills in communication:
 a. creating positive energy in staff
 b. sensitivity to others
 c. listening
 d. business development/PR
 e. getting full effectiveness from staff

a. his/her staff	1	2	3	4	5	DK
b. his/her peers	1	2	3	4	5	DK
c. his/her superiors	1	2	3	4	5	DK
a. on the job	1	2	3	4	5	DK
b. at home	1	2	3	4	5	DK
a. business development/PR	1	2	3	4	5	DK
b. personal life	1	2	3	4	5	DK
c. social life	1	2	3	4	5	DK
d. management of staff	1	2	3	4	5	DK
a. creating positive energy in staff	1	2	3	4	5	DK
b. sensitivity to others	1	2	3	4	5	DK
c. listening	1	2	3	4	5	DK
d. business development/PR	1	2	3	4	5	DK
e. getting full effectiveness from staff	1	2	3	4	5	DK

III. MANAGEMENT/LEADERSHIP STYLE

1. His/her awareness of his/her style of management is:
 2. The effectiveness of his/her style of management is:

1. His/her awareness of his/her style of management is:	1	2	3	4	5	DK
2. The effectiveness of his/her style of management is:	1	2	3	4	5	DK

IV. ACCURACY PERCEPTION

1. The accuracy of my perceptions on this profile is:
 (to my best knowledge at this time).

1. The accuracy of my perceptions on this profile is: (to my best knowledge at this time).	1	2	3	4	5	DK
---	---	---	---	---	---	----

Tennessee Department of Mental HealthSelf-Concept Scale

Instructions: These statements are to help you describe yourself as you see yourself. Please respond to them as if you were describing yourself to yourself. Do not omit any item! Read each statement carefully; then select one of the following responses; and next record the number that represents that particular answer in the blank space at the end of that statement.

Responses -	Completely true	Mostly true	Partly true and partly false	Mostly false	Completely false
Number -	5	4	3	2	1

Remember you are not trying to describe yourself as others see you, but only as you see yourself.

1. I have a healthy body. _____
4. I am full of aches and pains. _____
7. I am neither too fat or too thin. _____
10. I don't feel as good as I should. _____
13. I take good care of myself physically. _____
16. I do poorly in sports and games. _____
19. I am a decent sort of person. _____
22. I am a moral failure. _____
25. I am satisfied with my moral behavior. _____
28. I wish I could be more trustworthy. _____
31. I am true to my religion in everyday life. _____
34. I sometimes use unfair means to get ahead. _____
37. I am a cheerful person. _____
40. I am a hateful person. _____
43. I am satisfied to be just what I am. _____
46. I am not the person I would like to be. _____
49. I can always take care of myself in any situation. _____

52. I change my mind alot. _____
55. I have a family that would always help me in any trouble. _____
58. I am not loved by my family. _____
61. I am satisfied with my family relationships. _____
64. I am too sensitive to things my family say. _____
67. I try to play fair with my friends and family. _____
70. I quarrel with my family. _____
73. I am a friendly person. _____
76. I am mad at the whole world. _____
79. I am as sociable as I want to be. _____
82. I should be more polite to others. _____
85. I try to understand the other fellows point of view. _____
88. I do not feel at ease with other people. _____
91. I do not always tell the truth. _____
92. Once in a while I think of things too bad to talk about. _____
93. I get angry sometimes. _____
2. I like to look nice and neat all the time. _____
5. I consider myself a sloppy person. _____
8. I am neither too tall nor too short. _____
11. I would like to change some parts of my body. _____
14. I feel good most of the time. _____
17. I often act like I am all thumbs. _____
20. I am a religious person. _____
23. I am a bad person. _____
26. I am as religious as I want to be. _____
29. I ought to go to church more. _____
32. I do what is right most of the time. _____

35. I sometimes do very bad things.
38. I have a lot of self-control.
41. I am a nobody.
44. I am as smart as I want to be.
47. I despise myself.
50. I solve my problems quite easily.
53. I do things without thinking about them first.
56. I am an important person to my friends and family.
59. My friends have not confidence in me.
62. I treat my parents as well as I should.
65. I should trust my family more.
68. I do my share of work at home.
71. I give in to my parents.
74. I am popular with women.
77. I am not interested in what other people do.
80. I am satisfied with the way I treat other people.
83. I am not good at all from a social standpoint.
86. I see good points in all the people that I meet.
89. I do not forgive others easily.
94. Sometimes, when I am not feeling well, I am cross.
95. I do not like everyone I know.
96. I gossip a little at times.
3. I am an attractive person.
6. I am a sick person.
9. I like my looks just the way they are.
12. I should have more sex appeal.

15. I try to be careful about my appearance. _____
18. I am a poor sleeper. _____
21. I am an honest person. _____
24. I am a morally weak person. _____
27. I am satisfied with my relationship to God. _____
30. I should not tell so many lies. _____
33. I try to change when I know I am doing things that are wrong. _____
36. I have trouble doing the things that are right. _____
39. I am a calm and easy going person. _____
42. I am losing my mind. _____
45. I am just as nice as I should be. _____
48. I wish I didn't give up as easily as I do. _____
51. I take the blame for things without getting mad. _____
54. I try to run away from my problems. _____
57. I am a member of a happy family. _____
60. I feel that my family doesn't trust me. _____
63. I understand my family as well as I should. _____
66. I should love my family more. _____
69. I take a real interest in my family. _____
72. I do not act like my family thinks I should. _____
75. I am popular with men. _____
78. I am hard to be friendly with. _____
81. I try to please others, but I don't overdo it. _____
84. I ought to get along better with people. _____
87. I get along well with other people. _____
90. I find it hard to talk with strangers. _____

97. Once in a while, I laugh at a dirty joke. _____
98. At times I feel like swearing. _____
99. I would rather win than lose in a game. _____
100. Once in a while, I put off until tomorrow what I ought to do today. _____

Rokeach Dogmatism Scale

On the following pages are a number of statements. The best answer to each statement below is your personal opinion. We have tried to cover many different and opposing points of view; you may find yourself agreeing strongly with some of the statements, disagreeing just as strongly with others, and perhaps uncertain about others; whether you agree or disagree with any statement, you can be sure that many people feel the same as you do.

Mark each statement in the left margin according to how much you agree or disagree with it. Please mark every one.

Write +1, +2, +3, or -1, -2, -3, depending on how you feel in each case.

+1: I AGREE A LITTLE	-1: I DISAGREE A LITTLE
+2: I AGREE ON THE WHOLE	-2: I DISAGREE ON THE WHOLE
+3: I AGREE VERY MUCH	-3: I DISAGREE VERY MUCH

- ___ 1. The United States and Russia have just about nothing in common.
- ___ 2. The highest form of government is a democracy and the highest form of democracy is a government run by those who are most intelligent.
- ___ 3. Even though freedom of speech for all groups is a worthwhile goal, it is unfortunately necessary to restrict the freedom of certain political groups.
- ___ 4. It is only natural that a person would have a much better acquaintance with ideas he believes in than with ideas he opposes.
- ___ 5. Man on his own is a helpless and miserable creature.

- ___ 6. Fundamentally, the world we live in is a pretty lonesome place.
- ___ 7. Most people just don't give a "damn" for others.
- ___ 8. I'd like it if I could find someone who would tell me how to solve my problems.
- ___ 9. It is only natural for a person to be rather fearful of the future.
- ___ 10. There is so much to be done and so little time to do it in.
- ___ 11. Once I get wound up in a heated discussion I just can't stop.
- ___ 12. In a discussion I often find it necessary to repeat myself several times to make sure I am being understood.
- ___ 13. In a heated discussion I generally become so absorbed in what I am going to say that I forget to listen to what the others are saying.
- ___ 14. It is better to be a dead hero than to be a live coward.
- ___ 15. While I don't like to admit this even to myself, my secret ambition is to become a great man, like Einstein, or Beethoven, or Shakespeare.
- ___ 16. The main thing in life is for a person to want to do something important.
- ___ 17. If given the chance I would do something of great benefit to the world.
- ___ 18. In the history of mankind there have probably been just a handful of really great thinkers.
- ___ 19. There are a number of people I have come to hate because of the things they stand for.
- ___ 20. A man who does not believe in some great cause has not really lived.
- ___ 21. It is only when a person devotes himself to an ideal or cause that life becomes meaningful.
- ___ 22. Of all the different philosophies which exist in this world there is probably only one which is correct.

- ___23. A person who gets enthusiastic about too many causes is likely to be a pretty "wishy-washy" sort of person.
- ___24. To compromise with our political opponents is dangerous because it usually leads to the betrayal of our own side.
- ___25. When it comes to differences of opinion in religion we must be careful not to compromise with those who believe differently from the way we do.
- ___26. In times like these, a person must be pretty selfish if he considers primarily his own happiness.
- ___27. The worst crime a person could commit is to attack publicly the people who believe in the same thing he does.
- ___28. In times like these it is often necessary to be more on guard against ideas put out by people or groups in one's own camp than by those in the opposing camp.
- ___29. A group which tolerates too much differences of opinion among its own members cannot exist for long.
- ___30. There are two kinds of people in this world: those who are for the truth and those who are against the truth.
- ___31. My blood boils whenever a person stubbornly refuses to admit he's wrong.
- ___32. A person who thinks primarily of his own happiness is beneath contempt.
- ___33. Most of the ideas which get printed nowadays aren't worth the paper they are printed on.
- ___34. In this complicated world of ours the only way we can know what's going on is to rely on leaders or experts who can be trusted.
- ___35. It is often desirable to reserve judgment about what's going on until one has had a chance to hear the opinions of those one respects.
- ___36. In the long run the best way to live is to pick friends and associates whose tastes and beliefs are the same as one's own.

- ___ 37. The present is all too often full of unhappiness. It is only the future that counts.
- ___ 38. If a man is to accomplish his mission in life it is sometimes necessary to gamble "all or nothing at all".
- ___ 39. Unfortunately, a good many people with whom I have discussed important social and moral problems don't really understand what's going on.
- ___ 40. Most people just don't know what's good for them.

APPENDIX B
Identification of Five-Member Panel

Identification of Five-Member Panel
Reviewing Construct Validity of
The IMLP Self-Rating and Supervisor-Rating Scale

1. Elliot Kline, Ph.D.: Dean of the School of Business and Public Administration, University of the Pacific, Stockton, California
2. Michael B. Gilbert, Ed.D.: Associate Professor, School of Education, University of the Pacific. Director of the Bureau of Educational Research, University of the Pacific, Stockton, California
3. Michael L. Davis, Ph.D.: Associate Professor, Psychology, and Assistant to the Academic Vice President, University of the Pacific, Stockton, California
4. J. Foster Fluetsch: President, State Savings and Loan Association, Division of Financial Corporation of America, Stockton, California
5. Vanda Clements: Senior Vice President, Operations and Training, State Savings and Loan Association, Stockton, California

APPENDIX C
Additional Tables for Chapter IV

Table 7
 Analysis of Middle Management Bank
 and Savings and Loan Personnel Post-Test
 Scores of the TSCS Consistency Scale By
 Treatment and Sex Using the Pre-Test as Covariate

SOURCE	SS	df	MS	F	Sig.
Treatment	147.225	1	147.225	1.153	.228
Sex	117.576	1	117.576	.921	.342
Treatment x Sex	70.565	1	70.565	.553	.461
Covariate	4243.697	1	4243.697	33.230	.000
Residual	6257.600	49	127.706		
Total	10834.593	53	204.426		

Table of Means on Post-Test

		TREATMENT			
VARIABLE		Experimental	Control	Total	N
SEX	Males	42.692	32.600	39.888	18
	Std Dev	16.784	11.717	15.376	
	Females	45.615	38.400	43.610	36
	Std Dev	13.833	11.596	13.211	
	Total	44.641	36.466	42.370	54
	Std Dev	14.724	11.562	14.297	
	N	39	15	54	

Table 8
 Analysis of Middle Management Bank
 and Savings and Loan Personnel Post-Test
 Scores of the TSCS Lie Scale by Treatment
 and Sex Using the Pre-Test as Covariate

SOURCE	SS	df	MS	F	Sig.
Treatment	10.875	1	10.875	1.053	.310
Sex	1.419	1	1.419	.137	.712
Treatment x Sex	23.026	1	23.026	2.230	.142
Covariate	843.727	1	843.727	81.717	.000
Residual	505.922	49	10.325		
Total	1384.981	53	26.132		

Table of Means on Post-Test

		TREATMENT			
VARIABLE		Experimental	Control	Total	N
SEX	Males	36.230	38.000	36.721	18
	Std Dev	6.112	5.147	5.843	
	Females	37.461	36.400	37.166	36
	Std Dev	4.597	5.581	4.870	
	Total	37.051	36.933	37.018	54
	Std Dev	5.103	5.311	5.111	
	N	39	15	54	

Table 9
 Analysis of Bank and Savings and Loan
 Middle management Personnel Post-Test
 Scores of the TSCS Consistency Scale by
 Dogmatism Block Using the Pre-Test as Covariate

SOURCE	SS	df	MS	F	Sig.
High/Low Dogmatism	300.444	1	300.444	2.749	.104
Covariate	3364.068	1	3364.068	30.783	.000
Residual	5245.645	48	109.284		
Total	8910.157	50	178.203		

Table of Means on Post-Test

VARIABLE	MEAN	STD DEV	N
High Dogmatism	41.173	8.189	23
Low Dogmatism	45.000	16.386	28
Total N	43.274	13.349	51

Table 10
 Analysis of Bank and Savings and Loan
 Middle Management Personnel Post-Test
 Scores of the TSCS Lie Scale by Dogmatism
 Block Using the Pre-Test as Covariate

SOURCE	SS	df	MS	F	Sig.
High/Low Dogmatism	.318	1	.318	.029	.865
Covariate	643.062	1	643.062	59.057	.000
Residual	522.660	48	10.889		
Total	1166.039	50	23.321		

Table of Means on Post-Test

VARIABLE	MEAN	STD DEV	N
High Dogmatism	37.260	5.136	23
Low Dogmatism	37.142	4.656	28
Total N	37.196	5.829	51

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