

**Report Prepared for the Canadian Forces Leadership Institute**

**Leadership Development Programs in the Canadian Armed Forces  
(Sub-Group Differences): Moving Women Into Positions of Leadership**

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*“If you’re too feminine, then you’re not strong enough to command respect, and lead men into battle, but if you’re strong and aggressive you’re not being a {real} women...”*

*“I knew a female airman {sic} who could do her job on the flight line better than most of the guys in her unit. This convinced some people she was a dyke – just had to be a lesbian otherwise she wouldn’t have been so good at a man’s job!”*

*(Quotes from two female Captains in the U.S. Air Force, cited in Herbert, 1998).*

**Overview**

This report considers the implications of sub-group differences for formal leader development programs in the Canadian Forces, with a particular focus on the training of women for positions of leadership. We will provide an integrative review of the literature identifying the key concepts or principles that should be considered in formulating doctrinal policies and/or programs in this regard. In order to accomplish this task we will necessarily address the following questions: First, in what environment is the Canadian Forces currently operating, and what are the key challenges that this new environment poses for leaders? This necessarily leads into a discussion of how leadership is (or ought to be) defined in the Forces in the 21<sup>st</sup> Century. Third, the key implications for leadership development and training that follow from these environmental changes and new definitions of leadership will be discussed (e.g., the potential for transformational leadership training in this regard will also be highlighted). Next we will review where women and other designated groups currently stand in terms of representation in leadership positions within the Canadian Forces, as well as some of the barriers identified as blocking them from ascending into these positions. Fifth, we will draw on the literature from other male dominated fields (e.g., management, engineering) to gain insight into some of these

barriers and what we can learn from these other contexts. Sixth, we will proceed to review the literature on hiring decisions, performance evaluations, and promotion decisions as women progress through the ranks toward positions of leadership. Based on the review of this literature, we will evaluate how the Canadian Forces can best select, promote, and train women for positions of leadership. Finally, special attention will be given to the role of transformational leadership as one potential training model for advancing women into positions of leadership (including a discussion of the implications of findings concerning transformational leadership and sex differences for leadership development programs – e.g., how can women capitalize on any advantages of this model while minimizing potential disadvantages?). Here we will delve into the ‘nuts and bolts’ of leadership training programs and discuss research on the effectiveness of transformational leadership programs in particular. Finally, we will point to gaps in our knowledge that require future research and suggest how the Canadian Forces can best discover, nurture, and advance the most talented women into positions of leadership in the 21<sup>st</sup> Century.

Before proceeding two caveats should be borne in mind while reading this review:

1) Women are not a homogeneous sub-group (e.g., an aboriginal and Caucasian women may have very different perspectives on their worlds). 2) Much of what we say about this particular sub-group (i.e., women) could easily be applied to other sub-groups (e.g., visible minorities, gays and lesbians, etc.) that are not specifically addressed in this report.

### **Environment Confronting Military Leaders in the 21<sup>st</sup> Century**

As discussed in our previous report (see Loughlin and Arnold, 2002) globalization, the unprecedented pace of technological development, intense public scrutiny, and increasing diversity in the workforce are all trends that are having an impact on the Canadian Forces. Since 1990, international forces have been transformed, and the nature of conflicts in which the Forces

have been involved have changed. Authors now speak about battlefields being ill defined (e.g., Wojack, 2002), about soldiers being asked to be “international social workers” while fighting “more crucial battles in the heart of cities”, they speak about “urban warfare” in “murky, chaotic, lawless” situations, all while forces are expected to operate at an unprecedented operational tempo and in a “politically correct fishbowl” (Gutmann, 2000).

In terms of the Canadian Forces in particular, The ‘Debrief the Leaders’ Project found that “the scope, intensity, tempo and ambiguity inherent in operations in the 1990’s caught the Canadian Forces unaware” (Bentley, n.d., Executive summary p. 4). Internationally, September 11, 2001 also brought a new war on terrorism that “involve[s] a landscape of military action that is completely unfamiliar” (Ignatieff, 2002, p. 5). Subsequent to the U.S. “Attack on Iraq” in March, 2003, the new realities facing the Military became readily apparent to any citizen watching CNN. While some of these viewers may have been surprised by the changing nature of war, emerging events only confirmed forecaster’s worst fears about the new environment in which the Forces will operate in this new Century (e.g., guerrilla warfare, opposing soldiers who burrow into cities and use civilians as human shields, etc., Gutmann, 2000). On top of all this, advanced technologies are having a significant impact on how war is waged, and analysts have termed this a Revolution in Military Affairs (RMA) (Irwin, 2002, p. 53).

Throughout this period of change, the Canadian Forces (and U.S. forces for that matter) have operated under conditions of fiscal restraint and downsizing. Societal expectations of the Canadian (and international) Forces have also changed dramatically. For example, high profile scandals associated with Somalia and Bacovici (Bentley, n.d.), incidents of rape, abuse, and incompetent handling of such cases (O’Hara, 1998), and public outcry over hazing rituals in the Canadian Airborne Regiment (Winslow, 1999), have all spurred an unprecedented demand for

transparency within the Forces (Bentley, n.d.). The environment in which the Canadian Forces is operating is more turbulent and uncertain than ever.

**Implications of this Changing Environment for Definitions of Leadership  
and Leadership Development Programs**

In order to ensure that future leaders possess the requisite skills and attitudes to fulfill their mandate, the Canadian Forces are beginning to undertake various training strategies. First, work on two visionary documents, *Officership 2020* and *NCM Corps 2020*, is nearly complete (Chief of Defence Staff, 2002). *Officership 2020* provides the framework for revising officer professional development in the Canadian Forces (Special Advisor to the CDS for Professional Development, n.d.). These documents delineate some of the “key competencies required for modern military leaders” (Chief of Defence Staff, 2002). In 2001 the Canadian Forces Leadership Institute was established with a view that it would become a “center of excellence for leadership research and concept development in the Canadian Forces” (Chief of Defence Staff, 2002). Finally, the Canadian Defence Academy was established in 2002 with objectives of providing more rigorous and integrated educational processes for the Canadian Forces (Chief of Defence Staff, 2002). In order for future leaders in the Canadian Forces to in fact embody these new skills, the preceding documents and initiatives will need to directly influence the type of training and development to which these future leaders are exposed.

Changes in the operational landscape of the forces necessitate that leaders in the Canadian Forces possess different skills than were required in the past. The Somalia Inquiry recommended that the Chief of Defence Staff adopt formal criteria for the assessment of leaders. Core competencies suggested include: integrity, courage, loyalty, selflessness, and self-discipline. Other necessary attributes recommended were: dedication, knowledge, intellect,

perseverance, decisiveness, judgement and physical robustness (Report of the Somalia Commission of Inquiry, 1997). Other Canadian Forces documents put an emphasis on the necessity of leaders to inspire trust, to maintain high standards of professionalism, to exercise critical thinking that will challenge the status quo (Chief of Defence Staff, 2002), and to have the “ability to resist the stressful effects of ethical dilemmas, or the need for increased emotional competency” (Lemieux, 2002, p.35). A greater understanding of other cultures, as well as the development of a military attitude that combines the concept of soldier as ‘warrior’ with soldier as ‘diplomat and scholar’ are also necessary (Lemieux, 2002). This will be a tall order to fill, and we are expecting much of individuals moving into positions of leadership in the Canadian Forces in the years to come.

Interestingly, many of the leadership qualities mentioned above are quite similar to the four dimensions of transformational leadership discussed in our earlier report (Loughlin & Arnold, 2002). We will briefly review them for present purposes: Transformational leadership is composed of what are often referred to as the four I’s (idealized influence, inspirational motivation, individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation; Bass, 1985, 1998). The first two components are grouped together and labelled ‘charismatic leadership’ in some cases: Idealized influence refers to a leader who does the right thing, is a role model, and followers aspire to be like him/her. A high standard of ethics and morality is part of this component (Avolio, 1999). A leader who is inspirationally motivating is able to communicate and guide the vision and mission of the organization. This is a leader who inspires followers, is enthusiastic and optimistic, and is able to infuse followers work with meaning and challenge (Avolio, 1999). The intellectual stimulation component refers to a leader who encourages followers to think ‘outside the box’ and to generate new solutions to old problems. Creativity is supported and

followers are encouraged to reconsider their perspectives and assumptions about issues (Avolio, 1999). Finally, an individually considerate leader spends time coaching and developing each individual follower. He/she treats each follower as a 'whole' person, and gets to know them as more than just employees or soldiers (Avolio, 1999, p. 48).

New definitions and models of leadership are being sought in the Canadian Forces. Members must accept that the nature of war/peacekeeping has changed, and develop new models of leadership based on these changes. We are in a knowledge/technology based era, and to base definitions of leadership on outdated standards (e.g., only physical strength versus mental ability) is to sentence the Canadian Forces to stagnation and decay. We need new definitions of leadership, new individual qualities associated with it, and new training and development programs to foster it, if the Canadian Forces are to thrive in the years to come. Interestingly, recent research has found that leaders who exhibit higher levels of transformational leadership also display higher levels of moral reasoning (Turner et. al., 2002). Given the Forces concern with issues such as ethical decision making, critical thinking, and trust (as discussed above) transformational leadership may be a very promising model for developing future leaders in the forces (although we know little about how this model works for women, or whether it is perceived as a masculine or feminine style of leadership, as will be discussed shortly). Officer candidates in the Canadian Forces are now being exposed to this leadership model in their training (Bradley et. al., 2002), and later in this report we will discuss specific details related to implementing training in transformational leadership in the Forces.

### **Representation, Barriers, and Success Strategies Related To Women in Leadership**

As discussed in our previous report (Loughlin & Arnold, 2002) key challenges facing the Canadian Forces will be the changing demographics and the potential for increased competition

with other employers for top talent in the years to come (Chief of Staff, Department of National Defence, 2002). In the year 2000 it is estimated that over 80% of people entering the Canadian workforce will be designated group members (women, minorities, aboriginals; Minister's Advisory Board on Canadian Forces, 2001). In addition to this change in composition, young workers today bring with them different values and attitudes towards work than previous generations (e.g., with young men putting more emphasis on family and young women more emphasis on work). The new generation will not be as willing to sacrifice their lives for their work and they reject older models of authority and leadership (Loughlin & Barling, 2001). These trends will all impact on Canadian Forces recruiting. If the Canadian Forces wishes to attract the best and brightest people and promote them through the ranks, the integration of women, minorities and aboriginals will need to be a top priority, and the training of non-traditional and young leaders a necessity. The successful retention of these people will also be a key factor in the number of senior leaders who come from the ranks of women and other designated groups.

While many aspects of the advancement of women have improved in the Canadian Forces since 1989, the Minister's Advisory Board on Canadian Forces (2001) found that there was still significant progress to be made. This report indicated that there continue to be barriers to women's (and other designated groups') advancement in the Canadian Forces. Some of the barriers that have been identified include attitudes and behaviours towards women, high attrition rates for women, and lack of flexible career options. These barriers are similar to barriers faced by women in business (Fagenson, 1993).

In 1999, women accounted for 11.8% of officers and 10.5% of NCM in the Canadian Forces, yet the majority of these women were serving in traditionally female areas such as



medical/dental (41.8% officers and 23.6% NCM) and support positions (22.4% officers and 31.1% NCM) (Tanner, 1999 as cited in Minster's Advisory Board, 1999). Women in the combat arms make up a smaller percentage of the population: .9 % of non-commissioned members [NCM's] and 2.9 % of officers in 1997 (Minister's Advisory Board, 1999). Of the Regular Force and Primary Reserve, visible minorities made up 2.1% of the Canadian Forces, and aboriginals 1.3% (Minster's Advisory Board, 1999). Another troubling statistic is that the successful completion rates of Combat Arms training are lower for women (27% pass rate) than for men (57% pass rate) in the Regular Force. When Reserves are included in these pass rates the percentages for men and women are similar (Minister's Advisory Board, 2001).

In combat support environments women, minorities, and other designated groups may encounter more formidable barriers than elsewhere in the military (Davis Report, 1997). The perceptions of men with respect to the employment of women in combat arms are generally quite negative (Davis Report, 1997). The key issues for women in combat arms include physical standards of strength and stamina; double standards (specifically the perception of inconsistent applications of physical standards to women); quotas which promote the perception that there is no screening of female candidates; harassment and the lack of accountability of leaders for the harassment; fraternization and the perception that women receive special attention from senior males; ill-fitting kit and equipment; little or no special access to facilities for women; lack of a critical mass of women; family issues (treatment during pregnancy, emergency and extended childcare) and finally, morale (for both men and women; Davis Report, 1997). One of the most pervasive problems of those listed above is that of physical achievement. This is used as an over-riding indicator of leadership ability, and other skills that women may possess are typically

discounted. Consequently, women in leadership roles are typically accorded less respect and support than their male counterparts (Davis Report, 1997).

Whether it be in the military, business (Fagenson, 1993; Fine, 1987), educational institutions (Basinger, 2001), or professions such as engineering (McKay, 1992) and law (Kay & Hagan, 1998), there are certain similarities in the challenges that women (and individuals from designated groups) face in traditional male dominated environments when trying to move into positions of leadership. It should be noted that the barriers to advancement appear to become more difficult to surpass as the level in the hierarchy increases. There are far fewer women in positions of executive leadership than there are in middle management (c.f. Ragins, Townsend & Mattis, 1998). In the Canadian Forces there are far fewer women in the more 'masculine' areas (such as combat arms – 2.9% in 1998) versus more traditional areas (such as medical/dental – 41.8% in 1998) (Minister's Advisory Board, 1999). Research clearly shows that women who lead in male dominated contexts have added challenges to overcome in order to be successful. Some of the barriers that have been documented in the literature include proportional scarcity, sexual and gender harassment, sex stereotypes that portray managers' roles as masculine and the effect these stereotypes have on perceptions of effectiveness (the 'double bind'), being responsible for a larger percentage of family duties, and decreased mentoring and networking opportunities.

Women employed in non-traditional occupations are presumed to be at a disadvantage due to the intense scrutiny caused by their proportional scarcity (i.e., tokenism; Kanter, 1977). Being a token (working in groups of fewer than 15% women) has been found to be associated with increased pressure to perform, social isolation, and with a constant fight against stereotypes to be

seen as one really is (Kanter, 1977; Yoder et. al., 1998). It has also been found that until there are a substantial minority of women (15-35%) at a particular level within an organization, women are less likely to be promoted to that level (Cohen, Broschak & Haveman, 1998). In a study of the Israeli Defense Forces women's performance was rated lower than men's when women were token members of the unit (Pazy & Oron, 2001). When women constituted a higher proportion of the group their performance was rated higher than men's (Pazy & Oron, 2001).

Women in male dominated work environments are subjected to more negative interactions such as criticism and bias (Balkin, 1988), as well as more sexual harassment than men (Morris, 1996). Although sexual harassment has received a fair bit of attention in recent years, it should also be noted that women frequently experience gender based harassment as well. Gender harassment refers to "generalized sexual remarks and derogatory behaviour that is gender-based and hostile but non-specific" (Parker & Griffin, 2002, p. 195). Women also experience different and more negative consequences from gender harassment than do men. For women, gender harassment is associated with over-performance anxiety and psychological distress. The same relationship was not supported for men (Parker & Griffin, 2002). We could extrapolate that the results women experience from sexual harassment would be even more negative than from gender harassment. As previously noted, sexual harassment has been a problem that the Canadian Forces are dealing with through various educational programs (e.g., SHARP - Report of the Somalia Commission of Inquiry, 1997). Women leaders in male dominated industries in general report a high level of pressure from discrimination, and those who enact an interpersonally oriented leadership style have been found to report worse mental health than men (Gardiner & Tiggemann, 1999).

Sex role stereotypes “refer to the belief that a set of traits and abilities is more likely to be found among one sex than the other” (Schein, 1978, p. 259). The importance of sex role stereotypes for female leaders in male dominated environments is twofold. They can affect how leaders are evaluated and perceived (evaluation issues) and/or they can influence which groups of people are seen as most similar to our implicit definitions of leaders (selection issues).

First, sex stereotypes can affect how individuals perceive and assess leadership behaviour (Eagly & Karau, 2002). The violations of stereotypes that occur when women perform stereotypically male leadership roles may result in questions about their competency and have a negative impact on evaluations of effectiveness (Eagly, Karau, & Makhijani, 1995) and performance appraisals (Yoder et. al., 1998). A female leader in a traditionally male dominated environment may also find herself in somewhat of a ‘double bind’ due to these stereotypes (c.f. Delgado, 1990). If she acts in traditionally masculine ways she may have good evaluations from supervisors but poor evaluations from followers. If, however, she acts in traditionally feminine ways, followers may be satisfied but superiors will judge her as ineffective (Harris, Smith & Hale, 2002; Siskind & Kearns, 1997). Some authors have also found that this pressure can vary by rank, with junior soldiers feeling most pressured to act in stereotypically masculine ways (even when age, time in service, etc. are controlled for statistically; Herbert, 1998). Perhaps this is not surprising since they would most need to fit the stereotype of “soldier” in order to prove themselves and gain acceptance.

Second, there is overwhelming evidence that men generally associate the characteristics of a manager with masculine characteristics due to sex role stereotypes (c.f. Brenner, Tomkiewicz & Schein, 1989; Dodge, Gilroy & Fenzel, 1995; Heilman, Block & Martell, 1995). This tendency has also been demonstrated cross culturally (c.f. Schein, Mueller, Lituchy & Liu, 1996;

Tomkiewicz & Adeyemi-Bello, 1995). However, women do not tend to see 'manager' as synonymous with 'male' in more recent studies (since 1989). When managers profiled in these study scenarios are explicitly labelled as 'successful' male/female differences tend to disappear. This is consistent with the finding that generally when more relevant, accurate, and unambiguous information is available, stereotyping is less likely to occur (Heilman, 1995). However, when it comes to executive leadership positions, the effect of sex stereotypes appears to be stronger (Martell, Parker, Emrich & Crawford, 1998). One study that evaluated sex stereotypes within a military context found that men were more likely than women to be seen as possessing the leadership and motivational qualities necessary for effective military performance (Boldry, Wood, & Kashy, 2001). Despite no differences in actual performance, men and women in the Texas A&M Corps of Cadets judged men to possess more leadership qualities than women. At the same time women were rated higher than men on attributes of character such as being selfless, respectful of authority, lacking arrogance and possessing integrity. This study also compared integrated units (i.e., with women) versus non-integrated units (without women), and found that in integrated units, perceptions of women tended to be more positive with respect to motivation. With respect to the question of the training and development of leaders, needless to say, if women are not seen as 'fitting' the characteristics necessary for leadership positions they will be less likely to be given the opportunities to fill these positions. Indeed, one study using an Israeli military sample found that both men and women who were high in masculinity (as measured by the Bem Sex-Role Inventory) saw themselves as most likely to succeed and also received higher ratings of success from peers than did those low in masculinity (Dimitrovsky, Singer & Yinon, 1989).

While men are taking on more responsibilities for childcare, eldercare and household work, current data show that women still carry majority of the load even when they work outside the home (Dwyer & Coward, 1992; Kan, 2001). The Canadian Forces are aware that policies that support families and childcare leaves are necessary to be able to attract talented leaders of the future (Minister's Advisory Board, 2001). The issues with deployment when the employee is a single parent, or when both parents are Canadian Forces members also become more complicated (Minister's Advisory Board, 1999). Currently, women who take time off to have children are penalized in terms of their career paths. This has also been found in other organizations but the fact that career paths are much more rigid within the Canadian Forces exacerbates this issue for women (Minister's Advisory Board, 1999). Flexible career paths have been identified by senior women in the Canadian Forces as essential to improving retention rates for women (Minister's Advisory Board, 2001).

Mentoring is an important success strategy for both men and women in organizations. One study found that the experience of an extensive mentoring relationship was associated with receiving more promotions, higher incomes, and greater satisfaction with pay and benefits (Dreher & Ash, 1990). These relationships were not moderated by gender – they were equally important for women and men in this study. In terms of mentoring opportunities these may be fewer for women when there are no formal mentoring programs and when the majority of higher level managers are male. Homophily may encourage same sex mentorship relationships. Women executives reported that having a male mentor with pre-established networks and credibility was especially critical to “sponsor” them into senior management circles and “provide inside information usually obtained in the old boys networks” (Ragins et. al., 1998). However, male mentors did not really appreciate the extra challenges that these women faced (Ragins et.

al., 1998). One very important function that a mentor can fulfill is that of conveying to the new member the organizational norms for effective leadership (Rice et. al., 1984). These norms may differ depending on the context.

How have women become successful despite these challenges? One study surveyed executive women and male CEO's asking about career strategies used for success (Ragins et. al., 1998). Executive women in this study cited a number of strategies that enabled them to be successful. The first critical strategy was *exceeding* performance expectations (99% rated this strategy critical or fairly important – 77% rated it critical). The second strategy was developing a style with which male managers are comfortable (cited as critical or fairly important by 96% and critical by 61%). Seeking out difficult, challenging and highly visible assignments was cited by 50% as critical and as important by 94%. In addition women had to seek out these assignments and explicitly signal their willingness to take them on – unlike men who were offered them without having to actively seek them. This may be an especially important barrier for women in military roles in many nations. In the Canadian Forces it has not been until recently that women have been allowed to serve in battle. In other nations combat roles are still relatively closed to women (Pazy & Oron, 2001). Finally, having an influential mentor was cited by 37%. Evidence that the performance bar is placed higher for women than for men was indicated in the interviews done in this study. As well the double standard was in evidence – the authors suggest that women are forced to develop leadership and managerial styles that are neither masculine nor feminine but that are acceptable to male colleagues, supervisors and subordinates. This is a tall order indeed that has also been documented in other research (Harris, Smith & Hale, 2002; Siskind & Kearns, 1997).

Do the barriers delineated above impact on the hiring, performance appraisal, and promotion decisions responsible for moving women into positions of leadership? In order to assess the impacts of these barriers we will summarize the literature that specifically examines hiring, performance appraisal, and promotion of women with special attention to studies using military samples.

### **Hiring Decisions, Performance Evaluations, and Promotions**

In order for a person to rise to a leadership position in the Canadian Forces they must successfully pass several key decision points. First, they must meet the criteria to be hired. Next, they must receive positive performance evaluations (be these formal or informal). People in positions with the power to promote them must evaluate their leadership abilities positively. Finally, the decision to actually promote them must occur. The Canadian Forces promotes leaders from within, and as such constitutes an internal labour market with a hierarchical structure. At any one of these stages along the way a women may be at a disadvantage compared with men. Studies consistently show that after controlling for education and work experience women are still less likely to be moved into positions of authority than men, and that the percentage of women in an occupation is negatively associated with earnings (i.e. more women less earnings; Perry, Davis-Blake & Kulik, 1994).

The research that investigates whether job applicant gender directly affects hiring decisions has found mixed results (Perry et. al., 1994). It appears that it is not only the sex of the applicant that affects hiring decisions. Another stream of research has investigated contextual factors affecting hiring decisions. This research has found that the gender composition of a work group or an organization affects who gets hired (Perry et. al., 1994). It appears that some interaction



between job applicant, sex, and contextual factors best explains the persistence of gender segregated jobs (Perry et. al., 1994).

There is some empirical research that suggests that the sex-type of the job interacts with the sex of the applicant to affect the hiring decision. In a recent meta-analysis of studies looking at simulated hiring decisions, it was found that raters discriminated against females and males when the jobs were male and female sex typed respectively (Davidson & Burke, 2000). This finding would suggest that women in the Canadian Forces will be at a disadvantage for some time due to the extreme male stereotype associated with military positions. Discrimination against women was also found in this study when less job relevant information was available. A limitation of this study was the focus on experimental studies. However, this limitation is tempered by the fact that the findings are in line with findings of other meta-analyses that investigate both experimental and field studies (c.f. Eagly, Karau & Makhijani, 1995).

One experimental study investigated the effect of gender and role on ratings of traits and anticipated performance (Mettrick & Cowan, 1996). The participants read scenarios of combat air pilots that were either male or female and possessed individuating information or not. Overall the findings of this study showed that male pilots were rated higher in 'combat toughness' than women. Men were rated higher in "trait hostility, killer instinct, requisite physical strength, and fearlessness", even when individuating information was provided (i.e., even when participants were told that the female pilot had used violent force to kill 30 troops: Mettrick & Cowan, 1996, p.116). Further, male pilots were more likely to be selected for the mission than women. This study is important because it shows that in some cases even when

clear information about an individual candidate is provided stereotypes are no less operative in terms of hiring or evaluation decisions.

Another line of research has investigated the variables that are predictive of leadership success and in some cases the measures used to decide who gets hired. One study looking at this in a US Army sample investigated the possibility that personality measures differentially predict successful job performance for men and women in the Army (Saad & Sackett, 2002). What was found was that differential prediction did occur in one third of the cases, yet it was in the form of over-prediction for females. Hence, there was no bias against women in the personality measures used to predict future performance.

Another longitudinal study using a Canadian sample looked at prediction of leadership performance and perceptions of leadership styles (Bradley et. al., 2002). This study did not look at differential prediction between women and men, but it did investigate perceptions of transformational leadership as an outcome at the third measurement period. The results showed that of all the variables measured at Time 1, dominance, energy level and internal control predicted outcomes at Time 3. The authors suggest that dominance “may be among the most useful predictors for leader selection” (Bradley et. al., 2002, p.100). One concern with this finding is that some research suggests that women who enact dominance as an influence strategy are subject to more negative reactions than are men (Copeland, Driskell & Salas, 1995), particularly in a military environment (Herbert, 1998).

Finally, a number of studies were conducted investigating the differences between men and women on measures of success when women were just beginning to be integrated into military roles in the United States (Adams, 1984; Defleur, Gillam & Marshak, 1978; Rice et. al., 1984).

These studies show that women and men were more similar than different in terms of demographics, educational variables, and hopes for career and marriage. They also point to the importance of physical performance measures in predicting perceptions of military leadership success. Indeed in one study the authors found that the attitude seemed to be “that if women could not run, they could not lead” (Adams, 1984. p.539). There continues to be controversy over physical performance measures in the Canadian Forces, with many male members expressing the sentiment that standards have been lowered for women (Minister’s Advisory Board, 2001). Due to the changes in the environment previously discussed in this review, it appears that a realistic assessment of physical performance as an indication of successful leadership is necessary. However, some recent writings in the U.S. suggest that women’s abilities in this regard are often underestimated (Wojack, 2002). This author uses the analogy of women in sports to make his case. He points out that it was only after the passing of Title IX in the U.S. in 1972 (making it illegal for schools to spend less federal money on women’s sports than men’s), that women’s athletics and physical fitness began to make strides (e.g., with women improving almost 24% over previous records in marathon running to men’s improvements of 3% since the law was passed). This does not deny that there will be differences in the physical ability of men and women, only that these differences may at times be overstated and/or could often be substantially mitigated by additional training for women before entering integrated basic training (Gutman, 2000; Wejack, 2002). This is an important avenue for future research and investigation in the Canadian Forces.

While the studies just discussed looked at prospective predictions of performance, the performance appraisal literature looks at ratings of actual performance made once an individual has been hired. Performance appraisal is a key decision point for both women and men who

want to reach higher leadership positions. A meta-analytic study examined the evaluations of men and women in non-experimental settings (Bowen, Swim & Jacobs, 2000). This meta-analysis included only studies that explicitly accounted for confounds (such as experience, education), either via matching procedures or statistical controls. The authors hypothesized that gender biases would increase in situations “that accentuate gender stereotypes, as well as those that decrease accuracy in performance evaluations” (Bowen et. al., 2000, p. 2197). Overall, they found little evidence of gender bias in performance appraisals in real work settings. However, this finding was tempered by the finding that there were two significant moderators. When measures were either stereotypically masculine or feminine, men or women respectively were rated higher. The gender composition of raters also moderated the effects. In situations where the raters were all male, “males were rated significantly more highly than females” (Bowen et. al., 2000. p. 2207).

Other studies have found that the proportion of women in the group is an important factor in how performance is appraised. Using a large database prepared by the U.S. Employment Service (USES), it was found that overall on average women received only slightly lower ratings than men. However, women received significantly lower ratings when the proportion of women in the group was small (less than 20%; Sackett, Dubois, & Noe, 1991). This difference in ratings occurred even when cognitive ability, psychomotor ability, education and experience were statistically controlled. This same difference in ratings was not found when men were in the minority (i.e. when men made up less than 20% of the group they were not rated lower on performance measures). Similar analysis using whites and blacks did not find the same token effect. The proportion of women has also been found to affect performance ratings in a military setting in a similar fashion (Pazy & Oron, 2001). These results confirm some previous research

and also suggest that the token effect may work differently for different groups when they form the minority.

Some studies have investigated the mediators associated with gender bias in work ratings. An experimental study had male participants read a vignette about the performance of either a male or female police officer while attending to another task at the same time. Participants rated the behaviours of the police officer in the vignette either immediately or five days after. It was found that more accurate behavioural ratings were attributed to men when the ratings were delayed (Martell, 1996). It seems that in the delayed rating condition, a more liberal decision criterion was adopted when rating the behaviour of male police officers. This study suggests that some gender discrimination can be a result of an “over-evaluation of men and not necessarily a derogation of women” (Martell, 1996, p. 163). It appears that when ratings are delayed (as they often are in the ‘real world’), raters tend to fall back on “stereotypes when deciding whether or not a particular behaviour had been observed” (Martell, 1996, p. 163).

In one study of performance appraisal using a military sample, the effects of rater source (peer or supervisor), rater and ratee race, rater and ratee sex, and job type for 8,642 US Army personnel were examined (Pulakos, White, Oppler & Borman, 1989). The findings showed that the proportion of rating variance accounted for by race and sex were very small. This is similar to other studies that find that the ratees’ sex alone is insufficient to explain the differences in male and female ratings. However, the job type x ratee sex interaction was also quite small. This finding is in contrast to other findings that show that females who work in stereotypically male occupations receive lower ratings than males. One possible reason for this difference is that in this study the job type was not coded for masculinity or femininity. As well, the

proportion of women in each job was not part of the analysis. These are both potential reasons that the findings were not similar to those in other samples.

There are some indications that there are numerous contextual factors that can improve the reception of performance appraisals and these apply equally in a military context (c.f. Reinke & Baldwin, 2001). Many times characteristics of the sender influence how the feedback is received and whether any action is taken to make improvements on the part of the person being rated. Factors such as trust, expertise, and similarity to the receiver of the performance evaluation can affect the efficacy of the process (Reinke & Baldwin, 2001). The Minister's Advisory Board (2001) has recommended that the Canadian Forces include items that evaluate an individual's commitment to diversity as part of the performance appraisal. The Board has also suggested that the Canadian Forces be sure that Performance Evaluation Reports (PER) be examined for "bias stemming from favoritism, sports association, cultural uniformity and other intangible and non-performance related factors" (Minister's Advisory Board, 2001, Performance Appraisal Section). These issues as well as 'best practices' from the performance appraisals literature should be given serious consideration in discussions about moving sub-groups into positions of leadership in the Canadian Forces.

Finally, the literature comparing promotion rates for men and women in a military setting is particularly relevant to our discussion and we will briefly summarize four studies in this regard: These studies investigate promotions and early promotions of women in the US Navy, Air Force and Army (e.g., do women get promoted at a rate equal to that of men in military settings)? Three studies answer this question. The first uses data on promotions at levels of captain, major, lieutenant colonel, and colonel from 1977-1989 for the U.S. Air Force (Baldwin & Rothwell,

1993). The data indicated that in the Air Force, Caucasians are promoted at a higher rate than minorities at all ranks investigated. The findings also showed that Caucasians are promoted at a higher rate than females at half of the ranks investigated. One of the limitations of this study was that it was not possible to separate the categories of female from Caucasian and minority – in essence, there was double counting in the data that could not be teased apart. The authors conclude that while these findings seem positive, they must be interpreted in light of the very small numbers of women and minorities promoted in comparison with the total number of officers promoted.

A second study used data from 1980-1993 and analysed promotions of 123,000 officers in the United States Army at the ranks of captain, major, lieutenant colonel, and colonel (Baldwin, 1996). This study found that women and minorities are under-represented in the Army's middle officer ranks. Female officers were promoted at lower rates than male officers. Minorities were promoted at lower rates than majority officers. The proportions of males and Caucasians increase with rank. This study also concludes that as long as women are excluded from combat positions, programs to increase women's representation at the higher officer ranks may not succeed. Serving in a combat role is one of the key experiences necessary in order to become a senior leader in the military environment. This conclusion is echoed again in the next study we discuss that looks at promotion in the United States Navy.

A third study used data from 1984-1993 and analysed 75,000 promotion decisions in the United States Navy. It was found that while promotion rates of men did exceed those of women, this difference was more pronounced during the period of 1984-1988 (Baldwin, 1997). This difference was also more apparent at higher ranks with men experiencing higher promotion rates

than women at commander and captain levels. Male rates of promotion are lower than female rates at lieutenant and practically identical at the level of lieutenant commander. This study also looked at turnover rates for men and women. They found that after achieving lieutenant commander and commander women leave the Navy at much higher rates than men do. This attrition rate has a negative impact on the representation of women at the higher ranks. Because women do not have the same opportunity as men to serve sea duty, they may not possess the human capital necessary for promotion to commander and captain. Women were still not permitted to serve on submarines at the date that this study was published. The experience of women in the Canadian Forces is similar with women still not being allowed to serve submarine duty (Minister's Advisory Board, 2001). Further, the attrition of women is more than twice that of men in male dominated areas of the Canadian Forces, such as combat arms and naval operational/technical (Minister's Advisory Board, 2001). The explanations for women being promoted at lower rates than men echo findings in business. Successful women at the executive level of leadership say they needed to actively seek out challenging and high visibility assignments in order to be promoted to the executive ranks (Ragins et. al., 1998). In the military these challenging roles appear to be focused on combat and submarine duty.

A final study looked at early promotion in the United States Air Force (Baldwin, 2000). In the military setting, advancing to the highest levels is highly correlated with achieving early promotion (Baldwin, 2000). The study looked at early promotion to the levels of major, lieutenant colonel, and colonel from 1975-1995. Because in the military setting there are specific time frames during which promotion will generally occur, early promotions can be distinguished. The findings of this study were that at the level of major, women surpass the early promotion rates of men, at the level of lieutenant colonel the rates are not significantly different,



and at the colonel level, women's rates of promotion almost double those of men. Once again, despite the positive finding of higher rates of early promotion, women are still a very small percentage of total officers receiving early promotion. This study found that women leave the Air Force at substantially higher rates than men do (similar to other studies examined here). Between the ranks of lieutenant colonel and colonel, women turn over at almost twice the rate of men. This is in contrast to some research in business investigating the relationships between turnover and promotion. A recent study found that managers who had been promoted were less likely to resign than non-promoted managers when the promotion occurred in the past 11 months (Lyness & Judiesch, 2001). As well, promoted women were less likely to resign than promoted men. One of the differences between this finding and those of the military studies is the differentiation between voluntary and non-voluntary turnover that was not made in the military studies.

In examining the literature on hiring, performance evaluation, and promotion we did not come across any studies based on samples from the Canadian Forces (the studies were based almost exclusively on U.S. military and non-military samples). Studies that use samples from the U.S. Military may be instructive, but we urge caution in generalizing from these studies to the Canadian context (in many cases the Canadian Forces have actually been far more progressive in attempting to promote women into leadership and combat roles; Gutmann, 2000). This is an area where future research using Canadian samples is necessary. It does appear that women turnover at rates higher than men in the Canadian Forces, are underrepresented in proportion, and are also less likely to be given assignments that will give them the experience necessary to move into senior leadership roles. The overriding conclusion from these studies is

that while women may sometimes enjoy higher rates of promotion or even early promotion, they are under-represented in senior leadership positions nonetheless.

This summary of the barriers, success strategies, hiring, performance appraisal and promotion of women compared with men suggests several leadership training and development initiatives that could be instituted in order to ensure that more qualified and talented women (and other designated groups) rise to the top. Interestingly, one of the key challenges in moving women into positions of leadership may be in identifying female candidates with the most potential for leadership. Because women must walk such a fine line between displaying male and female stereotypical behaviour, those most able to “blend” will be most successful in this male dominated environment where “women are discouraged from being aggressive, displaying leadership skills, being self-assured and independent” (Herbert, 1998, p. 75). By virtue of their very success in “coping” with this environment, the women with the most potential for leadership may also be the toughest to spot. Consequently, selection into leadership training programs may have to pay special attention to personalities and attitudes congruent with leadership in addition to behaviour (i.e., women who want to lead may not be displaying behaviours that would have set them apart in their groups in order to successfully navigate their acceptance into the group).

The next section of the paper reviews what we know about whether men and women adopt different leadership styles with a focus on transformational leadership. Following this brief summary, we will discuss the nuts and bolts of actual training programs to support the move of women into positions of leadership, as well as some of the contextual and organizational factors

that must also be considered. We delineate how these findings can be applied specifically to the Canadian Forces.

### **Sex Differences in Leadership Styles and Transformational Leadership**

Do men and women ‘naturally’ adopt different leadership styles without leadership training? Overall studies addressing this question show that there may be some differences in the way women and men lead according to traditional models of leadership.<sup>1</sup> Women are believed to be more likely to use a participative style of leadership and men more likely to use a directive style (see Loughlin & Arnold, 2002). However, the type of study is an important moderator. Women and men in organizations tend to lead using similar styles, whereas women and men in laboratory experiments exhibit more stereotypical leadership styles. Women and men seem to both be equally capable of adopting leadership styles that suit the situation. The difference is in how they are perceived in terms of effectiveness. The factors that coincide to produce our perceptions of a leaders’ effectiveness are complex as discussed in our previous report.

Some studies have specifically investigated sex differences in transformational leadership. Studies investigating followers’ perceptions of differences between male and female leaders in terms of transformational leadership have produced inconclusive findings. Some studies show no differences (e.g. Carless, 1998; Komives, 1991a; Komives 1991b; van Engen et. al., 2001). Other studies show differences, but these are not consistent across samples or across the components of transformational leadership that differ (e.g. Bass & Avolio, 1994; Bass et. al.

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<sup>1</sup> The reader is referred to our previous literature review Loughlin & Arnold (2002) “Transformational Leadership in the Canadian Forces: Implications for Female Leaders (and Other Designated Groups)” for a more complete discussion of the theory of transformational leadership as well as discussion of the studies looking at sex differences in enactment of this leadership style and traditional leadership styles.

1996; Druskat, 1994). Many studies that do report differences between men and women find that while these may be statistically significant they are not practically significant (Bass et. al., 1996). Self-reports of leaders sometimes show that women rate themselves as more transformational than men (c.f. Burke & Collins, 1995; Rosener, 1990) and sometimes women and men rate themselves as equally transformational (c.f. Komives, 1991b). Men have been found in one sample to rate themselves as more likely to engage in intellectual stimulation (Komives, 1991b).

Despite these inconclusive findings, women do seem to engage in transformational leadership behaviours *at least as often* as men across a variety of samples. No study has reported that followers perceive male leaders to engage in significantly more transformational behaviours than female leaders. We may conclude on the basis of this review that women are not at any disadvantage when it comes to displaying transformational leadership behaviours in a variety of settings. We do not know how women who enact this style of leadership are perceived and evaluated in the military context. There is a fairly consistent finding that women who act outside of their gender role (i.e. who enact more masculine behaviours) tend to be rated as less effective (Eagly & Karau, 2002). We do not know whether transformational leadership and its four components are stereotypically considered masculine or feminine? Hence we cannot state with certainty whether a women enacting this leadership style would be considered to be acting out of role. Investigating this question was one avenue for future research that was previously suggested (Loughlin & Arnold, 2002).

Next we discuss the types of training programs in transformational leadership that have actually been implemented in organizations and their demonstrated effectiveness. We also

discuss other organizational initiatives that are likely to have a positive impact on the advancement of women into positions of senior leadership in the Canadian Forces.

### **Training Women in Transformational Leadership; the ‘Nuts and Bolts’ of Delivering Training Programs**

In this section we discuss some of the key elements in leadership training programs and review research on which aspects appear to be most effective. The question of the effectiveness of transformational leadership training is addressed (i.e., does training in transformational leadership actually result in more transformational leaders?). The short answer is yes! We summarize the field experiments that have investigated this question. Finally, we discuss some contextual factors that can be implemented to enhance the effectiveness of these types of training sessions (examples are a formal mentoring program, performance appraisal systems that are free of bias, etc.).

There are many different leadership development and training systems. Most use some form of lecture based/participative workshop in combination with feedback (either 180°, 360° or some combination of these), as well as coaching and development of individual action plans for improvement. Bass (1990) first described two main methods for training in transformational leadership. The first was personal feedback and goal setting done with a facilitator. The second was workshops on transformational leadership. Using the first strategy, subordinate ratings of the leaders' transformational behaviours are obtained and then presented (in average form) to the leader in a one-on-one counselling session. In this session the facilitator focuses on any discrepancies between the leaders' self-ratings and subordinate ratings and also helps the leader to develop specific action plans for enhancing their transformational behaviours (Kelloway, Barling & Helleur, 2000). When feedback on the leader is obtained from numerous sources

(self, subordinates, peers, supervisor) the process is referred to as 360° feedback. When subordinates rate supervisors and supervisors rate subordinates it can be termed 180° feedback (Larsson et. al., 2003). The workshop format commonly contains activities done as a group such as brainstorming about effective leader behaviours and linking these with the theory of transformational leadership (given in a lecture type format), watching videos depicting effective transformational leadership and finally, focusing on the development of specific action plans for improvement (Barling, Weber & Kelloway, 1996).

Another potential aspect of leadership development and training programs is coaching (Thach, 2002). Coaching is most often used at executive levels of organizations (due to the high cost) and consists of a formal helping relationship between the client (who is the employee with managerial authority) and a consultant. The consultant uses a wide range of behavioural techniques to help the client achieve mutually agreed upon goals (Thach, 2002). There can be two types of coaching – performance based and in-depth coaching. Performance based focuses on “practical and specific business issues” such as project management or goal setting (Thach, 2002, p.205). In-depth coaching is more psychological in nature and focuses more on “personal values, motivations and even family issues” (Thach, 2002, p.205). Coaching does appear to be effective, although in the action research study cited, the effect of coaching was intertwined with 360° feedback and their independent effects could not be distinguished (Thach, 2003). To our knowledge there are no studies investigating coaching as a training format for improving transformational leadership.

It should be noted that there are field experiments showing that people can be trained to be more transformational. Barling et. al. (1996) report a study where the intervention was a training program that consisted of a workshop and individual feedback sessions in transformational

leadership. Bank managers were either assigned to an experimental group (who received the workshop and the counselling sessions) or the control group (no training). The findings showed that subordinate ratings of transformational leadership (two weeks before the sessions and five months after) in terms of intellectual stimulation were significantly enhanced by the intervention. As well, subordinates organizational commitment was significantly higher in the experimental group. Financial outcomes for the organization included increased sales activity when the manager had participated in the training program. The key finding here was that it is possible to train managers to be more transformational and this training has positive impacts on employee attitudes and unit level financial outcomes. It was not possible in this study to tell whether it was the workshop itself, the individual counselling sessions themselves, or some combination of both that produced the results. Results similar to these have also been found in numerous organizational interventions where such a rigorous research design was not possible (Kelloway & Barling, 2000).

To answer the question of which component of the training was most effective another field experiment was conducted (Kelloway et. al., 2000). The participants were employees of a provincial health care corporation in Eastern Canada. Subordinates completed pre and post (6 months later) measures of their leaders' transformational behaviours. There were four groups in the study in a 2 (training) X 2 (counselling) design. The training consisted of a one day workshop and the counselling condition consisted of the individual one-on-one sessions. The four groups were: (no training, no counselling); (training, no counselling); (no training, counselling); (training, counselling). The results suggest that training and counselling feedback are to some extent interchangeable. Leaders who received training alone, counselling alone, or both were rated significantly higher than leaders in the control group (no training, no

counselling) six months after the intervention. Because both types of training delivery focus on setting “specific, challenging, achievable, and sustainable goals” for changes in transformational behaviours it is perhaps not surprising that the format of the training did not make a difference (Kelloway et. al., 2000, p. 148). Group based workshops are most cost-effective and to the extent they facilitate individuals setting viable goals they may be a valid first step in training options.

There are a few issues related to leadership training programs that need to be highlighted at this point in our discussion. First, is the frequency of follow-up. In one research report on a large scale implementation of a leader evaluation and development strategy in the Swedish armed forces it was suggested that the instrument developed be used at intervals corresponding with the yearly evaluations of personnel (Larsson et. al., 2003). Indeed, we believe that if there is no consistent follow-up there will be no way for individuals involved in a training session to know if they have in fact improved in terms of their leadership behaviours. This is a common concern with training in most organizations. Consequently, the project in the Swedish armed forces is deliberately being implemented with the intention that individuals will receive “regular booster sessions” (Larsson et. al., 2003, p.23). We would suggest that at any leadership training that is undertaken should be revisited at regular intervals if it is to be effective.

Another issue that must be addressed in delivering 360° feedback during training sessions concerns individual responses to negative feedback. A recent study showed that participants who received negative and discrepant feedback did not perceive it as an opportunity for change (Brett & Atwater, 2001). In fact they perceived the feedback as inaccurate and not useful. They also reacted with anger and discouragement. This study also found that individuals reacted more negatively to discrepant feedback from supervisors and peers than from subordinates. These



findings resonate with our own experiences when implementing transformational leadership training programs in both public and private sector organizations. This is an area of leadership training and development that requires future research. Research needs to be done to understand the “value and relevancy of feedback from different sources” (Brett & Atwater, 2001, p.940). Because the theory of transformational leadership focuses on the leaders’ followers and their perceptions, the finding that discrepant feedback from subordinates is reacted to differently may be especially important. Another question that arises from this research is whether leaders receiving negative feedback require different follow-up activities than those receiving positive feedback. Although privacy issues related to different follow up sessions would need to be addressed, this is another area which needs to be clarified through further research in the days to come. A final issue that the Canadian Forces will have to address immediately related to such training programs will be who’s evaluations of a given leader (e.g., supervisors, subordinates, peers) will be considered in terms of performance evaluations (e.g., are subordinates reactions more important than supervisors)?

In terms of the differential effectiveness of these training programs for women and other designated groups there is simply no evidence currently available to speculate on outcomes. In fact, this area is wide open (and in desperate need of ) research. There are some indications that contextual factors that may enhance an organizations’ investment in leadership training for women (and other minority groups). That is, the training program itself may be equally effective for women and men, but if the environment to which women return is not supportive in the enactment of skills learned during the training, then the training becomes ineffective. Although not specifically referring to leadership training programs, some authors have discussed the effects of environmental context on the progression of women into leadership positions in the

U.S. Forces and the Canadian Forces are unlikely to be much different (e.g., Herbert, 1998; Wojack, 2002). There is good reason to believe that the environments to which women return will be pivotal in determining the ultimate success of such training programs. For example, while organizational efforts to support mentoring programs are effective for both men and women, they may play a particular role in propelling women into senior positions of leadership (c.f. Ragins et. al., 1998). Mentoring programs can support the development of leaders over the long term. Consequently, the formal implementation of such programs in the Canadian Forces would be desirable in terms of the advancement of women and other designated groups. In fact, this one of the recommendations of the Minister's Advisory Board (2001) and it is supported by academic research on this topic. A final issue that must be addressed that will impact on the ultimate success of any leadership training programs implemented in the Canadian Forces relates to perceptions of fairness surrounding performance appraisals. These appraisals determine who will be selected to participate in leadership training programs to begin with, and the perceptions of some sub-groups in the Canadian Forces indicate that there are likely biases in the performance appraisal system (e.g., especially for women who have taken maternity leave; Minister's Advisory Board, 2001). These perceptions and the actual reality of the situation need to be addressed if the Canadian Forces wishes to promote and train more qualified women and designated group members for positions of senior leadership.

Finally, in the beginning of this paper we discussed the changing nature of missions facing the Canadian Forces and suggested that the organization needs to consider whether there are different leadership skills and styles that are more or less effective for different situations. For example, some authors have suggested that there is a difference between effective leadership in combat and non-combat situations (Keithly & Tritten, 1997). What specific (transformational)

leadership attributes and behaviours are more or less effective on peacekeeping missions versus wartime situations? Can individuals be specifically trained in these different styles to improve readiness? This is another question that deserves future research attention. The answers to these type of questions are particularly relevant due to the changing nature of the environment within which the Canadian Forces are currently operating.

Some of the questions we set out to address in this paper were related to the implications of sex differences in transformational leadership for leadership development programs in the Canadian Forces, as well as how training programs could capitalize on these findings (i.e., maximize their advantages while mitigating their potential disadvantages in the military context)? In this regard, we found that while there are some mixed results, women do seem to enact a transformational leadership style at least as often as men do. What remains unclear is whether women who enact this style will be violating sex role stereotypes, and hence be evaluated more harshly than men enacting this style? There are no studies investigating the differential effectiveness of training programs in transformational leadership for women versus men. There are no reasons to believe that the training would be less effective for women than for men, but empirical study has simply not been done in this regard.

The ultimate acceptance of women exhibiting this style may well depend to a great extent on whether soldiers rate each individual aspect of transformational leadership as masculine or feminine (and thus whether this style is seen as congruent with women leading in this male dominated environment). Research is necessary to study these possibilities. As other authors have pointed out, women pay a high price for not being both masculine and feminine at the same time (some would argue that to succeed they must actually be gender neutral; Herbert, 1998) as the quotes at the beginning of this paper suggested. Consequently, research will need to

determine which specific aspects of transformational leadership most enhance perceptions of women as leaders. For example, although women may be able to convey individual consideration, intellectual stimulation, and possibly even the inspirational motivation components of transformational leadership without operational experience, it is hard to visualize soldiers viewing women as displaying idealized influence (i.e., being seen as a role model for men) without operational experience. This leads to another interesting question, do leaders need to be high on all four aspects of transformational leadership in order to be effective?

Alternatively, can a high rating on one component compensate for a lower rating on another component? If this is the case it may explain why women seem to do better in the U.S. Air Force (which seems to be more focussed on brains than brawn) and has been more successful in integrating women into its forces and all of its jobs (Herbert, 1998; Gutmann, 2000). If they are more successful in moving women into positions of leadership is this because women (who tend to do better on intellectual than physical pursuits in the Forces; Gutman, 2000) are able to capitalize on this strength (i.e., perhaps very high ratings on intellectual stimulation and individual consideration compensate for lower scores on idealized influence – assuming these were found to begin with)? These are the types of questions that will need to be addressed in future research if we are to capitalize on the advantages of this kind of training for women moving into increasingly senior positions of leadership within the Canadian Forces.

### **Future Models of Leadership Development and Training: Some Conclusions**

*“It depends on if the woman plays according to the white male system and is competent. If she does both of these, she’ll have the best chance; If she is competent, but bucks the white male system, she’ll have trouble...” (Major, U.S. Army, as cited in Herbert, 1998).*

It is evident from our review that future leaders in the Canadian Forces will need to possess new skills in order to be successful. What we do not know is whether the necessary leadership

skills will differ depending on the mission and/or the sex of the leader. Considerable research must be undertaken immediately to address these issues if readiness is to be enhanced. We know that women and men seem equally capable of adopting leadership styles that are effective, however, we do not know if there are differences in terms of the effectiveness of training and development programs for women and other designated group members as opposed to men. This research has simply not been done. The environment into which the leader is sent will also be pivotal in determining whether or not the skills learned during leadership training can be applied effectively. For example, research shows that women who enact a masculine style of leadership are evaluated harshly especially in male dominated environments (c.f. Eagly et.al., 1995 and Loughlin & Arnold, 2002) and research will need to be undertaken to determine which aspects of transformational leadership can best be capitalized upon in this regard. Some environmental changes may also be necessary. In this regard, the Canadian Forces is on the right track by opening traditionally male dominated jobs to women (Gutman, 2000; Wojack, 2002). Given the changing nature of war (whereby “combat” lines are no longer easily identified) the practise of “protecting” women from these roles is long since outdated anyway. While challenges still lie ahead (e.g., in terms of improving women’s physical readiness for some of these roles) some authors are now noting that we may have previously been underestimating women’s abilities in this regard (Wojack, 2002).

If training programs are to fully capitalize on their ability to train women for positions of leadership, the Forces must foster a culture that is open and supportive of women in these roles. Formal mentoring programs and performance appraisal systems that are unbiased will be key elements in supporting the development of leadership skills in women (and minority groups). Family friendly policies (with respect to leave as well as emergency child and elder care

responsibilities) as well as flexible career tracks are other organizational changes that will be necessary to increase the retention of qualified women in the Canadian Forces. Finally, women would benefit from being given access to some of the most challenging field assignments in the Canadian Forces (such as combat and submarine duty). These assignments appear to be critical in proving your capability to handle senior leadership positions within the Forces. In this regard, a U.S. officer's comment in reference to the very successful U.S. deployment of 40,000 women during the Gulf war is instructive "the Gulf demonstrated that combat exclusion policies do not keep women from dying in war, they just keep them from advancing to the highest ranks in the military" (Gutman, 2000). Currently, in the Canadian Forces, women are either excluded from certain duties (in the case of submarine duty) or they are severely underrepresented in these capacities (e.g., combat roles). Although these types of changes in the Forces would necessitate other adjustments (e.g., increasing physical readiness and assuring that women are assigned to such roles with a fighting chance of success by maintaining as close to a critical mass of 20% as possible in each sub-group; Wojack, 2002), such changes offer promising possibilities for eventually moving women into the most senior positions of leadership in the Canadian Forces.

Many avenues for future research have been highlighted by this report and should be pursued if we are to fully utilize the untapped leadership potential of women and other designated groups within the Canadian Forces. The world is changing too quickly and our need too great for us to delay acting in this regard. However, before leaving this topic, it is important to point out that although the biases discussed in this paper appear to be based on sex (i.e., the biological sex of being a woman) they are really about gender (i.e., displaying behaviours deemed masculine versus feminine). Consequently, it would be quite surprising if homosexual men, or men of either sexual orientation displaying more feminine behaviours, do not also fight an uphill battle

in terms of leading in this male dominated context. In other words, these issues have more to do with conformity and resistance to change in general within the military, than with any inherent bias against women per se. This in and of itself may give us cause for hope, as it should be noted that when homosexuals were granted equal status in the Canadian Forces the fear of change turned out to be worse than the experience of the change itself (Loughlin & Arnold, 2002). The possibility exists that experiences related to moving women into positions of leadership in the Forces may not be so different.

Moving women into positions of leadership is only one of many changes with which the military must cope in the years ahead. Society has changed, and what was acceptable at the beginning of the previous century is simply no longer acceptable to most citizens. The integration of black soldiers into the U.S. military is a perfect example of another situation where change was initially resisted but eventually successfully implemented within a military context (interestingly this example also illustrates that warnings of unit cohesion being undone by such changes are often unsubstantiated). The Canadian Forces has made more progress in terms of integrating women into its infantry ranks than any other developed nation (including the U.S. and Israel – which has mandatory military service for women as well as men however only uses women in combat situations in emergencies). Other nations are citing Canada as an innovative organization and trend-setter in this regard (Gutmann, 2000; Wojack, 2002). Consequently, although this has not been an easy task for the Forces, and many lessons have been learned, the Canadian Forces are perhaps more poised than those of any other nation to make positive strides in terms of moving women into positions of leadership. As women in the Canadian Forces progress through the ranks and gain operational experience they will be better equipped to assume senior positions of leadership in the military of tomorrow. Paying heed to the guidelines

outlined in this report and engaging in the kind of research recommended, will assure that women in the Canadian Forces have the training and development tools they need to thrive in these positions in the future.



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